NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

COURSE CODE: EDA 803

COURSE TITLE: Human Behaviour and Leadership

EDA 803: Human Behaviour and Leadership In Schools

COURSE GUIDE

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COURSE GUIDE

Introduction: Course Description

Human behaviour and leadership in schools (EDA: 803) is a semester 3 credits unit course. It is designed for all masters' students intending to obtain M.Ed in Educational Management/Administration.

The course consists of four modules divided into 20 units which include theories of administration and leadership influence of leadership style on educational administration; leadership behaviour; school bureaucracy; decision-making procedures in educational institution; organization and human needs; school climates; and current problems and issues in school administration.

This course material is designed for students of National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) with the hope that a thorough understanding of the course will make the students efficient and effective educational administrators.

Course Aim

The general aim of this course is to provide intellectual and professional training for would-be educational administration in order to make them effective and efficient in their day-to-day practice. Literature reveals that most head of educational institutions do not really understand the nitty-gritty of school management. As a result, it makes it difficult for them to achieve the goals of the respective institution they manage. Some head teachers or principal accidentally found themselves in the leadership position without adequate pre-requisite, hence experiencing what is termed the 'peter principles'. With this course therefore, potentials school heads will be properly equipped to handle the challenges of institutional management in this ever dynamic society.

Course Objective

At the end of this course you should be able to:

1. explain clearly the differences between administration and leadership.
2. explain the different theories of administration
3. identify the various leadership styles and their shortcoming
4. explain the major factors affecting leadership behaviour in public institutions.
5. explain how Weber's bureaucratic principles can be adopted in educational institutions.
6. explain the types of decision that are commonly made in schools.
7. identify the persons that make decision in school
8. explain clearly the system approach to decision making.
9. identify various personnel administration practices in the school system.
10. describe lucidly the role of motivation, training and development programmes on staff behaviour and general productivity.
11. explain at least five approaches to performance appraisal

Working through this Course

In order to complete this course, you are required to read each module, read the reference books and other materials provided by NOUN. Each module contains tutor-marked assignments and or self-assessment exercise. At points in the course, you are required to submit assignment for evaluation purposes.

Course Materials

This course consists of:

1. Course Guide
2. Study Modules
3. Assignment files
4. Relevant text books including the ones listed at the end of each unit.

Assessment

This course will be assessed in two ways. The first is the Tutor-Marked Assignments while the second is the end of the semester written examination. You are expected to use the information and knowledge gained during the course of study to answer the questions.

There are 20 Tutor-Marked Assignments, your tutor will inform you of the one to submit. The assignment attracts 30% while the end of semester examination attracts 70%. A minimum of 75% at the tutorial and counseling session must be met.

How to get the most from the Course

Since this is a distance learning programme, face-to-face interaction with lecturers may not be possible, nonetheless, going through each module carefully can be of immense advantage. Your progress is determined by you, this flexibility enables you to work at your own pace, time and place. Each module has a common format. It starts with introduction, objectives, main content and tutor-marked assignments. The objectives and the questions at the end of the module should help you to get the most of the module and prepare you thoroughly for the assignment and examinations.

Consider the following practical strategies for working through the course;

1. Read the course guide thoroughly

2. Organize a study schedule
3. Stick to your study schedule strictly
4. Start with module one and read the introduction and objectives for the modules
5. Assemble all study materials
6. Work through the modules
7. Do the assignment and convince yourself that you have mastered the modules
8. Move to the next modules
9. Do the same for other modules until you get to module nine.

Study Module

There are four modules in this course, they are arranged in units in the following order:

MODULE ONE

THEORIES OF ADMINISTRATION AND LEADERSHIP

Unit 1: The Concepts of Administration and Leadership

Unit 2: Leadership Theories

UNIT 3: LEADERSHIP STYLES

Unit 4: Influence of Leadership Styles on Educational Administrators

UNIT 5: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

MODULE TWO

BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOLS AS BUREAUCRATIC INSTITUTIONS

Unit 1: The Meaning of Bureaucracy

Unit 2: Bureaucracy in Schools

UNIT 3: Meaning and Types of Decision

UNIT 4: Decision Making Procedures in Educational Institutions

UNIT 5: Decision Making Models

MODULE THREE

ADMINISTRATION OF STAFF AND STUDENTS IN SCHOOLS

Unit 1: Personnel Administration in Schools
Unit 2: Personnel Motivation in Schools
Unit 3: Performance Appraisal

UNIT 4: Formal and Informal Organisations

UNIT 5: Organizational and Human Needs

MODULE FOUR
SCHOOL CLIMATE

Unit 1: The Concept of School Climate
Unit 2: Measuring the School Climate

Unit 3: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration (I)

Unit 4: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration: The Meneace Of Examination Malpractices
Unit 5: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration: The Scourge of Brain Drain in the Nigerian Universities

Tutors and Tutorials

Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and any difficulties you might have and also provide assistance to you during the course. Ensure that your tutor-marked assignment gets to you before the due date.

EDA 803: Human Behaviour and Leadership in Schools (3c)

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MODULE ONE

THEORIES OF ADMINISTRATION AND LEADERSHIP

Unit 1: The Concepts of Administration and Leadership

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1.0. Introduction

All organizations both formal and informal are governed, this implies that they all have leaders and followers. In order for the goals of an organization to be achieved, the leaders often adopt some techniques. Leaders in organization can make a difference. In this chapter the concepts of administration and leadership are defined, the various sources of power are equally explained.

2.0. Objectives

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

1. explain the concepts of administration and leadership
2. explain five sources of power.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Concepts of Administration and Leadership

Adebayo (1981) defines administration as the organization and direction of persons in order to accomplish a specified end. This is synonymous with Olagboye (2004) who sees administration as a process of getting the people in an organization to achieve the aims of the organization through the efficient and effective use of available scarce human and material resources. In these two definitions some basic facts are established. These include:

1. administration involves the act of directing;
2. it is peculiar to organizations; and
3. it is geared towards achievement of some goals.

Academics continue to argue over a precise definition of what leadership is; yet management commentator like the late Peter Drucker - renowned for his to-the-point insight, observed that the only definition of a leader is someone who has followers.

The Australian Leadership Development Centre builds on this simple yet powerful insight to define leadership as any behaviour that influences the actions and attitudes of followers to achieve certain results (Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., and Dennison, P.).

Leadership is the process of directing and inspiring workers to perform the task related activities of group members (Stoner and Wankel, 1988). In the word of Adesina (1990), he defines leadership as the ability to get things done with the assistance of other people within the institution.

Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals (Robbins, 2005). Fajana (2002) expantiates five categories of influence namely legitimate, reward, coercion, expert and referent. The five sources he emphasizes are the major sources of power of a leader. This clearly shows that leaders are individuals who have authority over others and are responsible for guiding their actions.

3.2. Power as a Source of Leadership Influence

A leader's capacity to influence others is dependent on the power he/she has. Without some form of power a leader will not be able to have any influence over others. There are five potential sources of power:

1. Positional Authority
2. Reward Power (the carrot)
3. Coercive Power (the stick)
4. Expertise
5. Interpersonal Power

Positional Authority

It is important for a leader to be clear about his/her positional authority. This includes a solid working knowledge of relevant laws, awards and industrial agreements. This knowledge provides the parameters within which one can exercise command and control. There is no doubt that positional authority is a legitimate and prevalent form of influence within organizations. The evidence demonstrates that positional authority is still the most used form of power by managers and it is also the most common reason for staff compliance.

Reward Power

Leaders also use rewards to shape the attitudes and behaviours of staff. The use of financial rewards to shape behaviour is largely the province of an organisations HR staff. However, all leaders can make use of non-financial reward systems to shape the behaviour of their staff. The use of positive rewards to recognize and encourage further repeats of desired behaviours is one of the simplest yet most powerful forms of power a leader can exert. Kouzes and Posner, when researching their book,

Encouraging the Heart, interviewed staff about the most important non-financial reward they could receive at work; the answer was a simple thank-you. For those interested in doing more than just thanking people, or who want to how to maximize the impact of thank-yous, the evidence suggests that rewards are most effective when:
Rewards are given for specific behaviours that managers would like to see repeated. They are things that matter to the person being thanked. Rewards are given at random rather than fixed intervals. The nature and scale of the reward varies in response to the nature and scale of the behavior.

Coercive Power

The use of coercive power – that is negative consequences following undesirable or unacceptable behaviour has been shown to be effective in reducing the instances of such behaviour. It has a place in manager's repertoire, yet it should be used with care and judgment as it has also been shown to have a significant negative impact on subsequent relationships.

Expertise

Expertise is also a source of power. People will put more weight on a leader's words when they believe the leader knows what you he is talking about. Early levels of leadership typically involve leading staff who have the same professional function as their leader – accountants leading accountants, teachers leading teachers or engineers leading engineers etc. Therefore first level leaders typically have significant expertise power. As leaders move to higher levels of leadership they find themselves leading people whose functional expertise is different and superior to theirs. Expertise will not be sufficient on its own, however leaders can continue build their expertise power base by:

- keeping up to date with and sharing information on strategic initiatives.

- take part in all relevant development opportunities within your organisation.
- read relevant leadership and professional magazines for your industry.
- progressively building your reputation as a competent leader.

Interpersonal Power

Interpersonal power refers to the leader's ability to influence others' behaviour simply because of the relationship they have with him. A thank-you from someone who counts is more powerful than a thank-you from someone who doesn't. Expressed disappointment by someone a staff member holds a leader in high regard is more effective than the same statement made by someone the staff member does not care about. In fact, research shows that interpersonal power is the most effective form of influence within an organisational setting and with younger generations placing more value on loyalty to relationships than they do on loyalty to organisations, the importance of relational power is sure to increase.

4.0. Conclusion

In this unit, you have learnt the meaning of administration and leadership. This should therefore enable you to fully understand other management related concepts that will be discussed later.

5.0. Summary

This unit is all about the meaning of administration and leadership as well as the major sources of power. Although these sources are interwoven and interrelated, a leader's capability to influence others is dependent on the power he has.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercise

1. How would you define administration?
2. How would you define leadership?
3. Explain clearly five sources from which a leader can derive his authority.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Clearly distinguish between leadership and administration.
2. Which of the sources of power do you think is based on force? Explain.

7.0. References/Further Readings

Adebayo, A. (1981). *Principles and Practice of Public Administration in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Spectrum Books.

Adesina, S. (1993). Education Law and Politics. In Yoloye, E. A. (ed). *Education and the Law in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

Fajana, S. (2002). *Human resource management: An introduction.* Lagos: Labofin and Company.

Olagboye, A. A. (2004). *Introduction to Education Management in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Daily graphics (Nigeria) Limited.

Robins, S. P. (2005). *Organizational Behaviour.* New Jersey: Pearson Education International

Unit 2: Leadership Theories

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1.0. Introduction

There are many approaches to the study of leadership, these approaches gave birth to the many theories. The following theories of leadership shall be examined one after the other:

- Trait theories
- Behavioural theories
- Contingency theories

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. Summarize the conclusion of trait theories; and
b. Identify the limitations of behavioural theories.

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Trait Theories

The trait theories believe that leaders are born rather than made. This belief is borne out of the fact that leaders must possess some characteristics that can neither be learned nor transmit from one person to the other. These characteristics according to Olagboye (2004) are intelligence, energy, resourcefulness, integrity, friendliness, ambition, enthusiasm among others. He further stresses that any body who possesses any or all of these traits will necessarily become a leader in whatever group situation he/she finds him/her self. On the basis of these inherent peculiarities, leaders are differentiated from non-leaders. This school of thought is supported by Robbins (2005) who is of the opinion that people who are high self-motivators – that is highly flexible in adjusting their behaviour in different situations, are much more likely to emerge as leaders in groups than low self-motivators. This implies that some traits increase the likelihood of success as a leader than others.

These theories have been criticized by various people. The following are some of its weaknesses:

- there are no universal traits that predict leadership in all situations, rather traits appear to predict leadership in selective situations.
- it has also been discovered that traits predict behaviour more in weak situation than in strong situations. Strong situation Mischel (1973) explains are those in which there are strong behavioural norms, strong incentives for specific types of behaviours and clear expectations as to what behaviours are rewarded and punished. Such strong situation create less opportunity for leaders to express their inherent dispositional tendencies
- it is unrealistic to conclude that a leader is successful as a result of some characteristics he possesses, in this regard, it becomes difficult to separate cause from effect.

Nevertheless, trait theories have some implications for educational practice:

- educational leaders today can not be evaluated solely on some personal qualities without given consideration to some fundamental capabilities;
- since educational institution is becoming complex, selection for leadership position can no longer be based only on personal traits but rather on relevant administrative acumen like technical, human and conceptual skills

3.2. Behavioural Theories

The criticisms levied against the trait theories made people to look for another approach of explaining leadership behaviour. According to the behaviouralist school of thought, leadership involves performance of those acts which helped the group to achieve its preferred outcomes. These theories therefore stress on how effective leaders should behave rather than what they should possess.

There are four different studies that explain the behavioural theories, they are:

1. Ohio State Studies
2. University of Michigan Studies
3. The Managerial Grid
4. Scandinavian Studies

Ohio State Studies

Researchers at the Ohio State University carried out a large number of studies focusing on the impact of leadership styles on workers' satisfaction and productivity. Two different types of leadership behaviour were identified namely: initiating structure and consideration.

If a leader is able to define and structure his/her roles and those of his employees in an attempt to achieve the organizational goal, such a leader is operating on initiating structure. This is more or less task-oriented. Leaders on this side assign group members to particular tasks, give them specification on how to accomplish the task and bent rigidly on deadlines.

On the other hand, consideration is the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationship that are anchored on trust, respect for employees' ideas and regard for their feelings as human being. The well-being, comfort, status, dignity and satisfaction of the employees are given much priority by the leader. Thus consideration is better described as relationship – oriented structure.

Various research findings show that leaders who are high on both initiating structure and consideration (i.e. high-high leaders) tend to achieve high employee performance and satisfaction than those who are low in either the two or both.

University of Michigan Studies

The Michigan Studies had the objectives of locating behvaioural characteristics of leaders that appeared to be related to measures of performance effectiveness. The studies identified two types of leaders namely: employee oriented leader and production oriented leader.

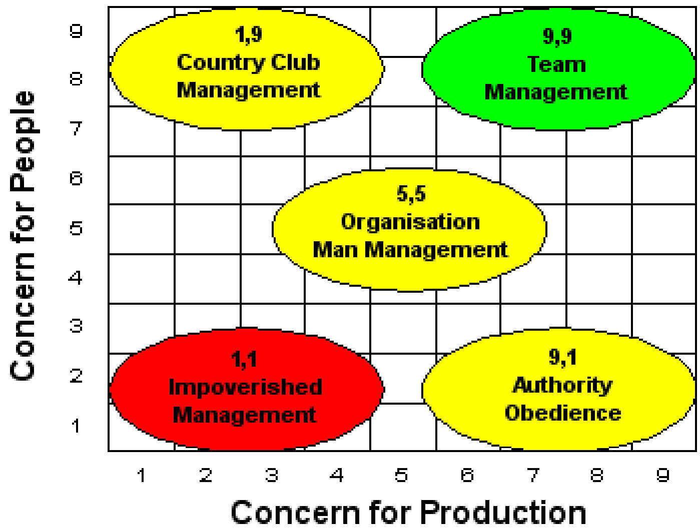
Employee oriented leaders are defined as leaders who emphasize interpersonal relations, take personal interest in the needs of their employees and accept individual differences among members. Higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction are the major characteristics of this style.

On the other hand, Production oriented leaders emphasize technical or task aspects of the job. Their main concern is the accomplishment of the group tasks. Unlike the employee oriented leaders, these leaders tend to be associated with low group productivity and lower job satisfaction.

The Managerial Grid

The managerial grid was one of the important studies arising out of the result of the Ohio Studies. It was produced by Black and Mouton. This is a nine-by-nine matrix outlining 81 different leadership styles. Two major styles arouse from this grid, that is, concern for people and concern for production. These styles essentially represent the Ohio state dimensions of consideration and initiating structure or the Michigan dimension of employee oriented and production oriented. The grid is presented in figure one:

Fig: One: The Managerial Grid



Scandinavian Studies

The Scandinavian Studies attempted to bridge the gap in the three other behavioural theories, that is, Ohio State Studies, the University of Michigan Studies and the Managerial Grid. These three approaches were criticized on the ground that they failed to capture the more dynamic realities of today. These studies was anchored on the premise that effective leaders in a dynamic environment must be development – oriented. These therefore are the leader who value experimentation, seek new ideas, generate and implement change. Using sample of leaders in Finland and Sweeden, the study discovered that leaders who demonstrate development – oriented behaviour have more satisfied employees and are trusted by those employees.

In conclusion, one major contribution of behavioural theories is the implication that behaviour, unlike traits could be learned and therefore, individuals could be trained in the relevant leadership behaviour to enhance this performance.

The theories were criticized on the ground that they failed to consider the situational factors that can influence success or failure of leaders. This therefore gave rise to other theories of leadership known as contingency theories.

3.3. Contingency Theories

Al Dunlap earned his nickname of "Chainsaw Al". He built his executive reputation on being tough, arrogant and insensitive toward employees. At Lily Tulip, he fired 50 per cent of the corporate office; at Crown – Zellerbach, he cut 20 percent of the work force; at Scott-paper, he axed 11,000 employees. These styles worked as his actions at Scott-paper turned the company around and made him and his stockholders a ton of money. But when Dunlap tried these tactics at Sunbeam, they blow up his face as employee motivation tanked, key managers left, profit disappeared, and the company's stock collapsed. The board on recognizing they had made a huge mistake in hiring Dunlap, fired him (Robins, 2005).

The above experience underscores the fact that no single style is all-in-all and that leadership success reflects the situation. What works in one company or situation may not necessarily work in another. This notion is therefore the belief of contingency theories. The main approaches in these theories are:

- Fiedler contingency model
- Heresy and Blanchard's situational theory
- Leader – member exchange theory
- Path – goal theory
- Leader participation model

Fiedler contingency model

This model asserts that the most effective leadership style is contingent upon the nature of the situation. This therefore implies that the performance of a group depends on their leader adopting an appropriate leadership style relative to the favourableness of the situation (Olagboye, 2004). With the use of an instrument entitled 'Least Preferred Co-worker Questionnaire', Fiedler was able to identify two basic styles of leadership namely: relationship – oriented and task – oriented styles.

He further went on to identify three types of situations as follows:

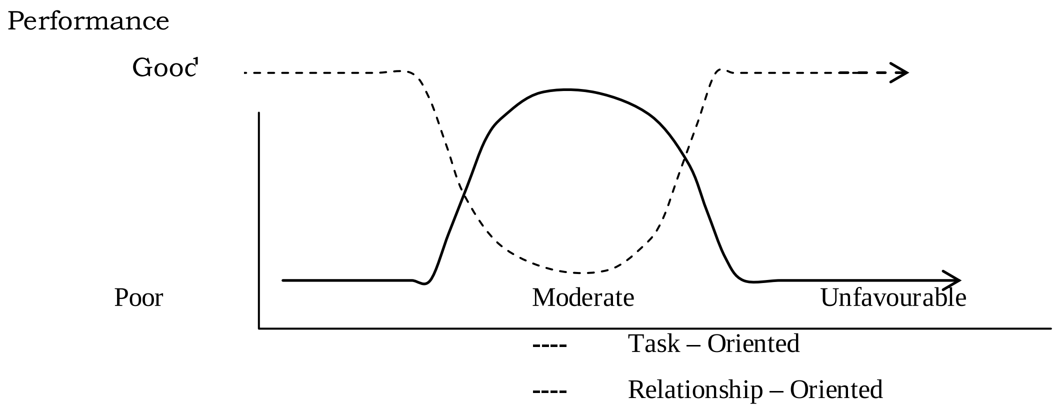
- Leader – Member Relations- This has to do with the degree of confidence, trust and respect subordinates have in their leaders
- Task Structure – this involves the extent to which the work of the group is clearly defined and specified such that members have very clear idea of what they are expected to do.
- Position Power – This include the official power and authority of the leader like the power to hire, firm discipline, promote and give salary increases.

Fiedler explained that leader – member relation could be either good or poor; task structure could be either high or low and that position power could be either strong or weak. This therefore explains the correlation between these variables and the level of control the leader has. That is, if the leader – member relations is better, the task is highly structure and the leader position power is stronger, definitely the leader control will be high and effective and vice versa. For instance, in a situation where the leader has a great deal of control and good command of respect; where the activities to be done are clear and specific; and where the job provides considerable freedom for the leader to reward and punish, the tendency for the leader to succeed is very high. By matching the three contingency variables, eight different situations in which leaders could find themselves are potentially possible.

Fiedler then concludes that task – oriented leader tend to perform most effectively in situations which were either very favourable or very unfavourable. On the other hand, relationship-oriented teachers tend to perform most effectively in situations that are intermediate in terms of favouraleness. See figure two.

This model has been criticized on the ground that it is too methodology – bound and limiting in the number of leadership styles and situational variables it covers. The instrument used in measuring/identifying types of leaders has also been considered weak. The contingency variables are complex and difficult for practitioners to assess. It is often difficult in practice to determine how good the leader – member relations are, how structured the task is and how much power position the leader has.

Figure: 2: Fiedler contingency model



Category		i	ii	iii	iv	v	vi	vii	viii
Leader-member relation	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor	
Task structure		High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	
		Source:	Robins	(2004)					

Heresy and Blanchard's Situational Theory

The Hersey-Blanchard Leadership Model also takes a situational perspective of leadership. This model posits that the developmental levels of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. Their theory is based on the amount of direction (task behaviour) and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the "level of maturity" of the followers.

- **Task behaviour** is the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behaviour the leader engages in one-way communication.

- **Relationship behaviour** is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours. In relationship behaviour the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support.
- **Maturity** is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his or her own behaviour. People tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task, function, or objective that a leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.

4.0. Conclusion

The various theories explained so far show the different perspective in which leadership can be explained. Equally from these perspectives one can understand that leaders can be borne as well as be made. The argument for trait theory is that leaders who are ambitious, have high energy, a desire to lead, self – confidence, intelligence and hold job-relevant knowledge, are more likely to succeed as leaders than those who are not borne with these traits. The behavioural theory opposed this belief and proposes that even though a leader may not be borne with all those traits, he could be trained. The contingency theory in its own case opposed the trait and behavioural theories on the ground that no single trait or behaviour is universally acceptable because situation are bound to change from time to time. This shows that situation is the most important factors in leadership issues.

5.0. Summary

This module examines the various leadership theories. It started by defining the concepts of leadership and administration, after which the various theories like – trait theories, behavioural theories and contingency theories were clearly examined.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Explain clearly the position of the following theories:
   a. Trait
   b. Behavioural.
2. Justify with reference to a particular theory the assertion that a leader is better than a boss.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Why would you prefer contingency theory of leadership to behavioural theories?
2. What are the short comings of trait theories of leadership?

7.0. References/Further Readings

Adesina, S. (1993). Education Law and Politics. In Yoloye, E. A. (ed). *Education and the Law in Nigeria.* Ibadan: Claverianum Press.

Ajayi, K. (1997). Educational Leadership and the Decision – Making Process in a Depressed Economy. In Olatunji, S. A. and Olagboye, A. A. (eds). *Managing Schools in a Depressed Economy.* Lagos: B. Malthouse Press Limited.

Mischel, W. (1973). Towards a Cognitive Social Leaning Reconceptualization of Personality. *Psychological Review.* pp. 252 – 283.

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UNIT 3: LEADERSHIP STYLES

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

In the present ever dynamic organizational climate, the major determinant of organizational success (that is, ability to achieve the organizational goals and objectives) is undoubtedly leadership. Leadership in every organization no doubt does make a difference. This accounts for the reason why Ejiogu (2000) worries why some companies thrives in spite of economic hardship while others fold up shortly after their commissioning and why one would prefer one air line to the other. Since leadership in every organization is the bedrock of success, it therefore follows that any intending leader must have knowledge of the various styles that can be used at any point in time since report has it that no one style is all-in-all. The ability of a leader to harmonize the emotional dividends of workers and the organizational goals in such a way that enhanced performance will be achieved, will go a long way in aiding the success and continual existence of the organization. It is in this context that this module looks at the various kinds of leader and leadership style.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. mention and explain at least five kinds of leader;
2. identify five styles of leadership; and

2.0. Main contents

2.1. Kinds of Leader

Five principal kinds or types of leader have been identified based on the qualities through which they attained their leadership positions, they are:

- Charismatic Leaders
- Traditional Leaders
- Formal or Situational Leaders
- Appointed Leaders
- Functional Leaders

Each type of leader is discussed briefly hereafter.

Charismatic Leaders

The charismatic or transformational leader is one whose influence arises from some compelling mixture of exceptional personal characteristics such as extremely high levels of self-confidence, dominance, forceful eloquence, ambition, humility, patience, dependability, consistency, etc. Through personal vision and energy, charismatic leaders such as Napoleon, Hitler, Churchill, Murtala Mohammed, Nelson Mandela and others, were able to inspire their followers and to have exceptional impact on their countries.

The concept of the charismatic leader stems from the trait theory of leadership which, as will be discussed later in the module, posits that people with certain natural personality traits or qualities naturally become leaders. Such leaders were considered to be "born" or natural" great men. One of the problems with the concept of the born leader is that only a negligible number out of the billions of human beings in the world ever possess the exceptional qualities required to convert everyone around them into consenting followers. The other problem is that personal traits or qualities of leadership cannot be acquired by training, though training can modify them for the better.

Traditional Leaders

The traditional leader is one whose position is assured by birth, deriving their influence from the accident of being born into royal families, traditional leaders such as kings, queen and other tribal or ethnic chieftains automatically assume their positions after birth.

However, the problem with the traditional leadership position is that very few can aspire to it. With the exception of some small family enterprises, opportunities for traditional positions in the workplace rarely exits.

Formal or Situation leaders

Many authors lump traditional leaders with what they refer to as formal or situation leaders by equating the traditional leader to the formal leader who becomes a leader by qualifications considered essential for the culture of the group. Thus, the individual *conferred* with a *non-inheritable* chieftaincy title by an *Oba* or *Emir*, who is himself a *traditional leader*, can only become a *formal or situational* leader. In other words, the formal leader, irrespective of birth, attains his position by qualification on the basis of criteria which may be cultural, economic, traditional, political academic or a combination of these.

The position of the formal leader is regarded as situational because the criteria for its attainment is essentially situational. In other words, the criteria for the position in one group situation may very in another group situation.

Appointed Leaders

The appointed leader is one whose influence springs directly from his position. This kind of leader attains his position by way of promotion or by selection from a pool of his colleagues or contemporaries on the basis of qualification, cognate experience and seniority. Most positions in the public and civil services in which legitimate power depends on the nature and scope of each position in the hierarchy belong to this category.

Most of the professional leadership positions are occupied by appointed leaders. Among these leaders are vice chancellors and their deputies, rectors and provosts, executive secretaries (e.g., of the National Universities commission, the Joint Admission for Colleges of Education, etc.) who are appointed by way of selection from among their peers. Other positions such as those of the directorate cadre of the ministries of education and their parastatals, principals, vice principals headmasters, etc. are achieved through promotion in the vast majority of cases.

An important problem inherent in the position of the appointed leader is that though the *powers* of the position may be well specified and defined, the position holder may be unable to exercise them either because of a weak personality or because he lacks adequate training and/or experience.

Functional Leaders

The functional leader attains his leadership position by virtue of *what* he *does* rather than by *what* he is. In other words, this type of leader achieve his position on the basis of the possession of some technical, social, political or economic *competencies* which are regarded as essential to the existence or even survival of a group, or necessary for the achievement of the goals of an organization. For this reason, this type of leader would most likely be *nominated, appointed,* selected or accredited from among equals. In essence therefore, an individual could be both an appointed and a functional leader at the same time.

2.2. Styles of Leadership

The style theories of leadership which assert that what makes a leader effective is his *behaviour or style* of leadership in the workplace, began to emerge to supplant the Trait Theories which emphasized the qualities or traits required for effective leadership around 1950. There was thus a shift in emphasis from the *kinds* of leader to the *style or behaviour* of the leader.

Over time, style theories of leadership led to the identification of a number of *leadership styles*, defined as the various patterns of behavior which leaders adopt in the process of guiding the efforts of their subordinates towards the attainment of organizational goals. The following are the usual nomenclature used in designating major leadership styles identified by theories.

- Democratic Leader
- Autocratic
- Pseudo-democratic
- Laissez-faire
- Transactional

We shall discuss each style in turn

a. Democratic Leadership Style

The following patterns of behaviour of a leader towards members of his group or organization characterize the democratic leadership style:

i. every member of the group is accorded due respect;
ii. welfare of group members is given adequate attention;
iii. leadership responsibilities are shared with or delegated to group members;
iv. group members are frequently involved in decision making;
v. individual and group initiatives and creativity are encouraged;
vi. facilitation of participatory management through assumption of coordinating and organizing roles by the leader; etc.

The democratic leadership style is rooted in Douglas McGregor's Theory Y which posits that people in the workplace are capable of being responsible and mature; they consequently require no coercion or excessive control by behavior of a leader who strives to do what inspires and motivates the majority of this subordinates or followers:

b. Autocratic Leadership Style

The following patterns of leadership behaviour are characteristics of the autocratic or dictatorial leadership style:

i. group members are denied due respect;

ii. little or no consideration is accorded group member's welfare as task performance is emphasized over every other thing;

iii. group members are rarely involved in decision making; instead, decisions are made exclusively by the leader and imposed on subordinates or followers;

iv. leadership responsibilities are never shared or delegated, rather task are imposed on group members;

v. individual and group initiatives and creativity are discouraged as the leader always gives orders and commands he expects to be carried out automatically;

vi. group members are distrusted and under constant suspicious by the leader; etc.

The autocratic leadership style, as described above, is the direct opposite of the democratic leadership style. As such, it is predicated on Douglas McGregor's Theory X which holds that people are naturally lazy, they regard work only as necessary for earning a living and therefore will avoid it as far as possible. For these reasons, they require to be coerced and strictly controlled by their leaders in order to get them to give of their best in the workplace. Thus, the autocratic leadership style connotes the behavior of a leader who tells subordinates what to do and who demands and expects to be obeyed without question.

c. *Pseudo-democratic Leadership Style*

The pseudo-democratic leadership style, as the name implies (pseudo means false or counterfeit), is a leadership style that appears on the surface to be democratic but which in reality, is an autocratic style of leadership. This type of leadership style is characterized by the following patterns of behaviour from the leader toward his group members:

i. group members are *purportedly* accorded due respect but in reality, such respect is *nominal*;

ii. the leader only pretends to emphasize group members' welfare;

iii. the leader pretends to share or delegate, leadership responsibilities while reserving for himself the *authority and power* for the discharge of such responsibilities;

iv. group members are often involved in purported participatory decision making in which the leaders' predetermined decisions always prevail over all other suggestions from members;

v. the leader *subtly* and *craftily* discourages individual and group initiatives and *craftily* discourages creativity while openly pretending to encourage same, and so on.

d. *Laissez-faire leadership style*

The laissez-faire style of leadership is one in which the leader's patterns or behaviour are distinctly marked by what Ajayi (1997:58) described as '*indecision, vacillation and indifference*' toward his group members and their activities as well as to the goal setting and goal achievement of the group or organization. In more specific terms, the leader's behaviour is typified by the following scenarios:

i. group members are granted complete freedom to do as they wish and to go and come as they like;

ii. group members are left alone to set and pursue their own goals;

iii. the group members' activities rarely receive comments of any sort from the leader;

iv. the group leader rarely participates in the group's activities except perhaps on invitation;

v. the leader has neither a clear vision of the goals of his group or organization nor does he develop policies for it;

vi. the group leader's primary role seems to be to supply resources, and so on.

It is doubtful if any meaningful progress or change can be made in a ministry of education, educational parastatal, agency or institution where this kind of leadership style is in practice. The style can only lead to a state of organizational anarchy where everything goes.

e. Transactional Leadership Style

The transactional leadership style is one which is at once task-oriented and follower-oriented. In other words, the leader with this style recognizes and gives consideration to both the needs of the organization and the needs of the individuals. This style has thus been described as the process whereby the task and the human dimensions of an organization are reconciled and integrated.

The distinguishing behaviour of this leadership style is that the leader alternates between concern for getting the job done and concern for the development and growth of group members; and between encouraging and motivating group members to perform tasks, and directing and closely supervising them to ensure that tasks are performed to his satisfaction, etc.

4.0. Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion, it is obvious that for any leader to succeed in the act of leading, he/she must match the appropriate style with the prevailing situation. This will enable him to align the management of people with the goals of the organization. The crucial role of leadership in this challenge is to create a management environment that will not only generate a profound sense of ownership of their jobs in the entire workforce but also create the necessary spark to awaken the potential of each worker to take the initiative in performing leader-like acts (Gardner, 1988). Bello-Imam, Osionebo and Ojeifo (2007) concluded that if all these intricacies are duly considered, the expected outcome would not only be higher performance but the attainment of aggregate results that are constantly better than those of the competitors.

5.0. Summary

This module examines the various kinds of leader and the types of leadership styles that are available to leaders are also explained. The conclusion drawn was that leaders should be vast in the various styles in order to match the style with the situation for the organizational goals to be achieved.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Mention any five kinds of leader you know.
2. A boss and a leader, which of these two would you describe as democratic and why?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. List five kinds of leader.
2. Explain with examples any three of the five kinds.
3. State clearly the characteristics of any five leadership styles.

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Unit 4: Influence of Leadership Styles on Educational Administrators

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

This unit introduces the majour factors that can influence the behaviour of a leader. It equally presents how a leader can achieve the goals of the organisation with a right combination of the appropriate styles.

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. explain the three important factors thst can influence leadership behaviour.
b. Summarize the influence of the various leadership styles on educational administrator

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Factors Influencing Leadership Behaviour

A thorough understanding of the activities of educational administrators would imply that no one leadership style can be sufficiently enough for a particular action. This is because when the continuum of leadership is x-rayed one would see that it ranges from highly boss-centred to highly subordinate-centred. This suggests to us that a leader should before choosing a leadership style, consider the following three factors or forces:

1. Forces in the leader: These forces among others include the kind of belief, value system, social clan, nature and total personality make-up of the leader. It is equally reasonable to say that the way a leader acts or reacts is determined by who he/she is.
2. Force in the subordinates: One should not quickly forget the fact that all employees particularly the subordinates are from different background, which are capable to work. They all have varied values, idiosyncrasies, beliefs, thoughts and ideal in degrees that can not be considered equal.

3. Forces in the situation: It is a correct thing to observe that in every situation are forces which can either make or mar such situation. These forces among others include the organization's preferred style, size, complexity, structure, climate, nature of the work, pressure of time and specific group work.

Having said this, the cardinal purpose of leadership which is the attainment of organizational or group goals can not be left out. Hence, the effectiveness of an educational administrator is determined and evaluated chiefly on the degree to which the goals of his group are being achieved. By implication, educational administrators must not loose focus and as such they should strive to learn the arts and principles of leading through their ability to manage people.

In a similar vein, Olagboye (2004) warns that educational leaders must realize that their effectiveness could not be evaluated solely on their personal qualities (since no known physical characteristic significantly correlates with leadership) to the exclusion of observable capabilities and effective discharge of their functions. This therefore makes it important for would-be administrators to acquire the requisite training in management.

The influence of situation on the performance of a leader cannot be overemphasized. This is evident in Fiedler's suggestion that an appropriate match of the leader's style and the situation results in effective performance. For instance, in a situation where institutional resources are inadequate, staffing is poor and morale is low, the relationship-oriented leadership style may work better than the task-motivated style. On the other hand, if the resources are available, staffing is good and moral is high, a task-oriented style may work better. Leaders then need to consider the situation before adopting any style for effective performance.

4.0. Conclusion

You must have learnt in this unit that Leaders need to consider the situation before adopting any style for effective performance. This is evident in Fiedler's suggestion that an appropriate match of the leader's style and the situation results in effective performance.

5.0. Summary

What you have learnt in this unit concerns the various factors that can influence leadership behaviour. By now you should have realised that no single style is all in all. It was concluded therefore that leaders need to consider the situation before adopting any style for effective performance.

5.1.Self-Assessment Exercise

a. explain the three important factors thst can influence leadership behaviour.
b. Summarize the influence of the various leadership styles on educational administrator

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assessment

a. A leader and a boss, which of these two would you describe as democractic and why?

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UNIT 5: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

This unit discusses the meaning of leadership, leadership behaviour and the factors affecting leadership behaviour in public institutions. It also highlights the majorconstraints on leadership behaviour.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. explain the concept of leadership;
2. explain the concept of leadership behaviour;
3. mention at least five constraints on leadership behaviour; and
4. explain the major factors affecting leadership behaviour in public institutions.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Meaning of Leadership

Since every organization is concerned with achieving an objective or objectives through the coordinated effort of a group of persons, it is clear that groups must be led. Coercion, frequently applied as a means of obtaining coordination, is now recognized as the least efficient way of getting things done. True leadership implies a willingness on the part of members of a group to follow, to permit themselves to be guided by persuasion, example, or some other means.

Leadership by nature involves the activity of persuading people to cooperate in the achievement of a common objective, which is accomplished in a triangular set of circumstances. All leaders are necessarily concerned with the enterprise objective, the goals of the followers, and the achievement of their own satisfactions. A high order of leadership is required to solve these equations simultaneously.

The purpose of group activity are to accomplish such objectives as:

1. Those beyond the power of any individual.
2. Those which the group itself considers desirable,
3. Those which individuals in the group see as their best means of maximizing their personal satisfaction.

It is important to understand that the objectives of leaders and individuals in the group are not necessarily identical with the objective of the enterprise. Group action may have as its purpose maximization of profit, relief of the wretched, expansion of knowledge, world peace, and so on. The actual achievement of these objectives, nevertheless, might be only distantly related to the total satisfactions obtained by the individuals or leaders concerned.

The goals of non leaders in group activities are intensely personal and are measured in terms of living standards, appreciation by others, leisure time, pleasant interpersonal relationships, personal influence on current and future events, and a sense of ethical achievements.

Leadership has been a long standing topic of concern which has attracted much attention from various writers in social and political institutions, organizations and systems, hence, there has not been a universally accepted definition of the concept. However, one common concept has been identified and that is leadership as an influence.

Leadership is the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of group goals (Subair, 2006). Ideally, people should be encouraged to develop not only willingness to work with zeal and confidence. Zeal is ardor, and intensity in the execution of work while confidence reflects experience and technical ability. According to Koontz and O'donnell (1955), leadership can also be considered in two basic ways as (i) Organisational position and (ii) As an influence process. As an organizational position, leadership refers to an individual who has been placed in a leadership or decision-making role. Going by this view, all managers are leaders. As an influence process suggests that dynamics of leadership is influencing others towards the achievement of organizational goals. Considering these views, organizations have individuals who are managers but who do not possess the capacity or ability for leadership. Moreover, in organizations are people who can inspire and influence others but by the virtue of their position, they are not managers.

Leadership therefore consists of the sum total of the persuasive factors brought to bear upon prospective followers in order to motivate them. The skill of this accomplishment, given certain environmental factors that may be called advantageous or otherwise, is the measure of the quality of leadership. Thus, leaders will emphasize different motivating factors, depending upon their psychological insight.

3.2. Behaviour

The individual in any organizational setting, whether he/she is a manager, leader or a subordinate, is a complex organism. He or she brings with him or her, his or her own complex internal environment derived from both the genetic inheritance and the totality of past experiences (Glen, 1975 in Ejiogu, Achumba and Asika, 1995). From the above, behaviour becomes an attribute of living organisms particularly animals and human beings. The Longman modern English Dictionary 1976 edition in Ejiogu, Achumba and Asika (1995) defines it as manners; deportment, moral conduct; the way in which an organism works with respect to its efficiency; the way in which something reacts to environment.

In general, the concept behaviour is synonymous with conduct, practice, deportment, praxis, goings-on, and procedures. From time tot time, a leader comes under the influence of social pressures from both within and outside the world of work; some of these are capable of being controlled while some others may not. Whichever way, the leader's actions, reactions and even inaction have the potential of either facilitating or inhibiting the organizational processes or activities. Since individual behaviours are unarguably important in influencing the achievement of organizational goals and objectives one way or another, effects must be made to understand the nature of leadership behaviour.

Onyene (2000) opines that group effect demands that leadership should take a process of social influencing in which, individuals or the group willingly or voluntarily accept the direction and control of another person or a delegated group who act on their behalf at any given situation to achieve the group objectives. The most important thing to keep in mind when considering leadership behaviour is to have a holistic approach or view on the relationship between the leader's behaviour and that of other individuals (followers) as they work to attain positive organizational

outcomes. From our understanding of leadership behaviour, three implications stand out:
Firstly, that leadership involves other people whom may be subordinates or colleagues but are described as followers. Group members help define the leader's status by their willingness to accept direction from him/her.

Secondly, that leadership involves an equal distribution of power between leaders and group members since as members they are not powerless, they can still shape group activities in a number of ways with the leader still exerting his/her superior power (authority).

Thirdly, that leadership consists of ardent ability to use influence on follower's behaviour towards a desired direction.

3.3. Constraints on Leadership Behaviour

Taking into account the fact that behaviour of subordinates has a causal influence upon the behaviour of the leader and vice versa, it shows that leaders are far from being totally free – Arnold and Feldman (ii) in Onyene (2000) identified a variety of factors that tend to exert impact upon leader behaviour. These include:

i. **The Subordinate Behaviour**: This is a crucial factor within an organization. This is based on the fact that if leadership truly is a mutual influence process, then the performance of subordinates means much to what a leader does and shapes how the leader behaves toward them (followers).

ii. **The Characteristics of Subordinates**: No doubt that every individual member of any organization is unique, this accounts for individual differences in attributes. These in addition to what subordinates do and how they perform influence the leader behaviour.

iii. **The Characteristics of the Leaders:** The leader's personal attributes-traits and personality; ability-expertise, relevant knowledge and skill have in no small measure influence his/her behaviour toward subordinates. Simply put, the leader is an individual also with different back group, experiences, knowledge, values, interests and needs with many constraining influences externally affecting the work environment and work demands.

iv. **The Leader's Superiors:** How leaders treat their subordinates is strongly influenced by how the leaders themselves are treated by their immediate superiors. Any leader who is treated by his/her own boss humanely will in no doubt be kind toward his subordinates and vice-versa.

v. **The Leader's Peers:** The effect of peer influence cannot be neglected in leadership functions. Leaders can equally copy their corporate peers who occupy almost equal position in the hierarchy in dealing with their staff. Peer pressure is found to have a potent homogenizing impact upon leadership in all organizations. This in turn affects work climate as well as goal achievement.

vi. **The Nature of Subordinate Tasks:** A vague and ambiguous task is bound to elicit different types of leadership behaviour than a highly structured and routine task. It is expected of a leader to have a well structured tasks for his/her followers as this makes leading an easy tasks for him/her. But in a situation where the tasks are not well programmed or scheduled, it bounces back on the leader thereby causing him to behave possibly irrationally toward the subordinates.

3.4. Factors Affecting Leadership Behaviour in Public Institutions

a. Absence of Periodic Assessment

Organizational effectiveness is calculated in terms of quality and quantity of work produced, while productivity is a ratio between input and output calculated as a measure of efficiency. There have been many perspectives on the major determinants of organizational success calculated in terms of effective production function. One of such perspective is productivity audit. Thus there is need for periodic work load and performance analysis in order to know the extent of wastage, utilization, overwork, etc in the institution. In other case, such audit calculates output, cost, and performance ratios of both leaders and staff.

b. Managerial Capacity

Darren (1968) postulates that one major reasons for sustained increase in productivity of the fast growing affluent organizations, (the school not excluded) is management and executive capacity. This is the capacity of managers to develop organizational systems that respond adequately to the changing conditions of the society. The reason here is to meet the recent years of more complex administrative systems through challenging and motivating the employees (academic and non-academic), towards better teamwork. Did Peter Drucker not argue that managers are the basic and scarcest resource for any business or service enterprise, hence many new establishments go out of operation soon after their emergence for lack of effective management. In the educational system they soon face the problem of the so-called **fallen standard** used in describing system inertia by the public.

c. Ownership Impact

In order to reach optimum productivity, ownership remains a factor that determines leadership effectiveness to a greater percentage. No wonder the organized private sector tends to have three times the average net income than a privately own firm irrespective of the wealth of the owner. It is the significant equity position of workers that does the magic. Public schools are often faced with the danger of poor maintenance of structure, lack of facilities, delayed decision making, lost of time, inadequacy of staff, political situations and in fact an amalgam of socio-economic problems. There is also a general feeling that workers can do a little extra not just to save their jobs, but to make it better for themselves if they only have decision making powers (not purely ownership interest) in the organization. Thus, for large federal public schools with distant control, the feeling is "they are making the money, why should I overwork myself", or the Nigerian expression and attitude of "Na my papa work? It therefore follows that like in typical industry, teachers will act like owners, increase their services and sustain increased input where they are allowed large participation. Thus leaders have to use a style that aims at good personal contact to help workers develop a sense of belonging.

d. Social Change

Having investigated the values and assumptions of contemporary society, Charles Hardy claimed that it is only through "the looking glass" of organizations (i.e., via monitoring) that change can be watched and controlled if staff input is to remain appreciable. This is because societies have entered a period of discontinuous change where assumptions of today are no longer necessarily true nor can they solve tomorrow's problem. These assumptions and societies therefore require emerging leader's who are willing to take enormous risks and cope with improved ways. Over the years teachers do not know that management of institutions and instructions can be better applying principles developed in the management sciences. Such failing assumptions about organizational efficiency include, according to Hard:

- that concentration and specialty is equal to efficiency;
- that labour (whether that of the school teacher or the accounting manager) is a cost; and
- that hierarchy is natural.

4.0. Conclusion

From our understanding of leadership behaviour, three implications stand out: firstly, that leadership involves other people who may be subordinates or colleagues but are described as followers. Group members help define the leader's status by their willingness to accept direction from him/her.

Secondly, that leadership involves an equal distribution of power between leaders and group members since as members they are not powerless they can still shapen group activities in a number of ways with the leader still exerting his/her superior power (authority).

Thirdly, that leadership consists of ardent ability to use influence on follower's behaviour towards a desired direction.

5.0. Summary

You have learnt from this unit that for any organisation to achieve its goals, the activities of its members must be controlled and coordinated. This can only be done through the efforts of a leader. The effort of a leader at times is hindered by some constraints, the ability of a leader to suceed irrespective of these constriants largely depends on his leadership accumen which is a function of his training and experience.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercise

1. What is leadership behvaiour?
2. What major factors do you think can affect leadership behaviour in public institutions?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Define leadership behaviour
2. Explain at least five constraints of leaddership behaviour
3. Explain any four factors you think can affect leadership behaviour in public institutions.

7.0. References/Further Readings

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MODULE TWO

BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOLS AS BUREAUCRATIC INSTITUTIONS

Unit 1: The Meaning of Bureaucracy

Table of contents

1.0. Introduction

"Bureaucracy is the structure and set of regulations in place to control activity, usually in large organizations and government. As opposed to adhocracy, it is represented by standardized procedure (rule following) that dictates the execution of most of all processes within the body, formal division of power, hierarchy and relationships, intended to anticipate needs and improve efficiency" (Wikipedia encyclopedia, 2009). It continued to note that bureaucracy is a concept in sociology and political science referring to the way that the administrative execution and enforcement of legal rules are socially organized. Four structural concepts are central to any definition of bureaucracy namely:

1. a well-defined division of administrative labour among persons and offices.
2. a personnel system with consistent patterns of recruitment and stable linear careers.
3. a hierarchy among offices, such that the authority and status are differentially distributed among actors and

4. formal and informal networks that connect organizational actors to one another through flows of information and patterns of cooperation.

Example of every day bureaucracy include government, armed forces, corporations, non-governmental organizations (NGOS) intergovernmental organizations (IGOS), hospitals, courts, ministries, social clubs, sports leagues, professional associations and academic institutions.

Bureaucracy in French is bureaucratic, coined from "bureau" (office) and "crate" (rule). Consequently, bureaucracy means 'office rule'. Further more, bureaucracy has been defined in the following ways:

1. Administrative system; an administrative system in a government that divides work into specific categories carried out by special department of non elected officials.
2. Officials collectively; the non elected officials of an organization or department.
3. State of organization; a state government operated by a hierarchy of paid officials.
4. Frustrating complex rules and regulations applied rigidly, (Msn Encarta Dictionary, 2009).

A bureaucracy is a large organization composed of appointed officials in whom authority is divided among several managers, it is also defined as:

1. (a) Body of non elective government officials (b) an administrative policy making group.
2. Government characterized by specialization of functions, adherence to fixed rules and hierarchy of authority.
3. A system of administration marked by officialism, red tape and proliferation, (Marriam, Webster online-dictionary, 2009).

Bureaucracy is a professional corps of officials organized in a pyramidal hierarchy and functioning under impersonal uniform rules and procedures. In the social sciences, the term usually does not carry the pejorative associations of popular usage (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2009).

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. define bureaucracy;
2. explain the major principles of bureaucracy according to Max Weber; and
3. explain how Weber's bureaucratic principles can be adopted in educational institutions.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Origin of Bureaucracy

While the concept as such existed at least from the early form of nationhood in ancient time, the word, bureaucracy itself stems from the word 'bureau' used from early 18th century in Western Europe not just to refer to a writing desk, but to an office, i.e. a work place where officials worked. The original French meaning of the word bureau, was 'baize' used to cover desks. The term bureaucracy came into use shortly before the French Revolution of 1789 and from there rapidly spread to other countries. The Greek suffix "kratia" or "kratos" means "power" or "rule".

Bureaucracy is a formal organization with defined objectives, a hierarchy of specialized roles and systematic processes of direction and administration. According to Max Weber, Bureaucracy is:

1. A group of workers (for example, civil service employees of the U.S government), is referred to as, the bureaucracy. An example, Tne threat of Gramm-Rudman Rollings cuts" has the bureaucracy in Washington deeply concerned.
2. Bureaucracy is the name of an organizational term used by sociologists and organizational design professionals.
3. Bureaucracy has an informal usage, as in "there's too much bureaucracy where I work". The informal usage describes a set of characteristics or attributes such as "red tape or inflexibility" that frustrate people who deal with or who work for organizations they perceive as bureaucratic".

3.2. Max Weber's Six Major Principles of Bureaucracy

1. A formal hierarchical structure: Each level controls the level below and is controlled by the level above. A formal hierarchy is the basis of central planning and centralized decision making.
2. Management by rules: Controlling by rules allows decisions made at high levels to be executed consistently by all lower levels.
3. Organization by functional specialty: Work is to be done by specialists, and people are organized into units based on the type of work they do or skills they have.
4. An "up focused" or "in-focused" mission: If the mission is described as, up-focused then the organizations purpose is to serve the stockholders, the board, or whatever agency empowered it. If the mission is to serve the organization itself, and those within it e.g. to produce high profit, to gain market share, or to produce a cash stream, then the mission is described as in focused".

Purposely Impersonal: The idea is to treat all employees equally and customers equally and not be influenced by individuals differences.
Employment based on technical qualifications: (There may also be protection from arbitrary dismissal). The bureaucratic form, according to Parkinson, has another attribute.

Predisposition to grow in staff "above the line": Weber failed to notice this, but C. Northcote Parkinson's found it so common that he made it the basis of his humorous "Parkinson's Law". Parkinson demonstrate that the management and professional staff tends to grow at predictable rates, almost without regard to what the line organization is doing.
Most people blame the ugly side effects of bureaucracy on management founders and owners, without awareness that the real cause is the organizing form (Max Weber, 2009). Maximillian Carl Weber, who lived from 21st April 1864 to 14th June, 1920 was one of the most profoundly influential thinkers of the 20th century. Born in Germany, Weber became a lawyer, politician, scholar political

economists, and sociologist. He was indefatigable and talked about "The ideal bureaucracy". He believed bureaucracy is superior to any other form in precision, in stability etc. He says that almost every organization has something to do with the bureaucratic framework.

3.3. Characteristics of Bureaucracy

Max Weber outlines key characteristics of bureaucracy as:

1. Specification of job with detailed rights, obligations responsibilities, scope of authority.
2. System of supervision and subordination.
3. Unity of command.
4. Extensive use of written documents.
5. Training in job requirements and skills.
6. Application of consistent and complete rules (company manuals).
7. Assign work and hire personnel based on competences and experience.

Today, bureaucracy is seen as inefficient, slow and generally bad. During Weber's time, it was quiet efficient and reliably accomplished their goals. It is worthy to note that bureaucracy is not well suited for industries with constant changing technology. It is better for some tasks involving routines that can be well specified in writing.

Further characteristics of bureaucracy include:

1. They are flexible.
2. They have rules and procedures.
3. They aim at fulfilling set objectives.

4.0. Conclusion

It is important to note here that a very essential characteristics of bureaucracy is "the principles of office hierarchy, levels of graded authority and a firmly ordered system of super ordination and subordination". Those factors are however inimical to democracy and to high performance. Today, high performance accrues from team-based collaborations that successfully spread authority and responsibility throughout the organization, getting and harmonizing teams' collective intelligence.

5.0. Summary

Bureaucratic control is the use of rules, hierarchy of authority, written documentation, standardization and other bureaucratic control in the management of an organisation. The primary purpose of bureaucratic rules and procedures is to standardize and control employee behavior. Within a large organization, thousands of work behaviours and information exchanges take place both vertically and horizontally. Rules and policies evolve through a process of trial and error to regulate these behaviours. Some degree of bureaucratic control is used in vertically every organization. Rules, regulations and directives contain information about a range of behaviours. To make bureaucratic control work, managers must have the authority to maintain control over the organisation. Weber argued that legitimate, rational authority granted to managers was preferred over other types of control (i.e. favoritism or payoffs) as the basis for organizational decisions and activities.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercises

1. Define bureaucracy.
2. Explain the major principles of bureaucracy according to Max Weber
3. Explain how Weber's bureaucratic principles can be adopted in educational institutions.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What is bureaucracy?
2. Explain the major principles of bureaucracy according to Max Weber

7.0. References/Further Readings

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Unit 2: Bureaucracy in Schools

Table of contents

1.0. Introduction

This unit presents a story on bureaucracy and how it operates in the school system. Although bureaucratic principles are inevitablein the school system, there are some shortcomings that school administrators must bear in mind. These sre presented in this unit.

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. explain how bureaucracy works in schools.
b. identify at least five advantages of bureaucracy in schools
c. identify at least five disadvantages of bureaucracy in schools

3.0. Main Content

3.1. A Story on Bureaucracy

Once upon a time, in the suburbs of a great town in the western Nigeria, exist a very popular secondary school. This school was popular for many things namely; elegant students, gifted and intelligent teachers (the best in the state), best performance in external examinations, outstanding sports performance in inter-school competitions, gigantic and modern school structures, strict and disciplinarian principals and off-course well organized, with strict adherence to rules and regulations.

Class members with issues must first report to class prefect who reports to school deputy prefect who informs the school senior prefect. The school senior prefect reports to the head of department, who in turn goes to the deputy principal and finally to the principal. Alternatively, a student with a case reports to the class prefect who reports to the class teacher, who in turn meets with the head of department who goes to the vice principal, and finally the principals.
In this renowned school, it was a taboo to jump the queue, it was an abomination. One peaceful morning, the science students were left in the lab to try out their hands on practical chemistry. Unfortunately, things went wrong, as wrong chemical mixtures sparked of fire. The laboratories were engulfed in fire as students ran helter skelter trying to prefer solution. A big block somehow housed these laboratories. One smart boy ran speedily to the principal's office to report the urgent situation but was cut shut, shouted down and tortured for breaking rules of bureaucracy. He was not allowed to speak. Minutes later, the teachers saw the smoke and fire and got the principal involved but before they could do anything, some students were already trapped in the laboratory and the entire block was razed down by the inferno. Lamentations and regrets took over. Yes they should have allowed the boy to speak.

3.2. Bureaucracy in Schools

Nancy Mitchell reports "Kristin waters (principal) and teachers at Bruce Randolph School in North Denver are asking to be freed of school district policies and union contract rules. Kristin waters gave these examples of how her school could better serve students if bureaucracy is made flexible, she asks for:

- The ability to recruit earlier for better teachers instead of waiting for the district staffing cycle.
- Control over hiring when they deem fit.
- Flexibility in spending-Kristin Waters says she isn't asking for more money from school directors but only asks for more control over the money and flexibility in spending (Nancy Mitchell, 2007).

"A Bureaucracy doesn't voluntarily reduce itself, so the legislature and citizens need to act". Stoops in C.J. Staff says while lamenting on disadvantages of bureaucracy. He emphasized, "Bureaucracy burdens schools and law makers needs to change school funding policies. (C.J Staff, 2006). Our school organizations are bureaucracies. Bureaucracy may be tagged a rational, efficient way of completing tasks and rewarding individuals based on their contributions. Bureaucracy has its weaknesses (the hierarchy, rules and regulations of a bureaucracy sicken school system).

3.3. Advantages of Bureaucracy

Some advantages of bureaucracy are:

1. Clear division of work with boundaries to responsibilities.
2. Formal (written) rules and procedures resulting in predictability and reutilization.
3. A well-defined hierarchy of authority
4. Appointments to posts based on technical competence.
5. Formal (written) documentation of actions and decisions.
6. Bureaucracies help school administrators in recruitment, performance appraisal, and other systems.

7. A bureaucratic system brings to the overall running and efficiency of a business and its employees. In a bureaucracy each employee of the organization knows precisely what their duties are within the organization, and therefore many tasks will be performed a lot quicker and more efficiently.

3.4. Disadvantages of Bureaucracy

The disadvantages of bureaucracy:

1. Emphasis on control can prompt rigidity of behavior and defensive routines
2. Division of task and responsibility can elevate departmental goals above whole system , resulting in sub-optmizing behaviour.
3. Minimal acceptable standards can become transformed into targets and behavioral norms . That is, rules and procedures can become ends in themselves

4.0. Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion, it is obvious that there is bureaucracy in every organisation, be it political, social, economic or educational. While the benefits are enomous, it is not without drawbacks. An administrator will only succeed in the act of management if he/she is aware of the potential benefits and dangers of bureaucracy. It is by so doing that the goals of the organisation would be realized.

5.0. Summary

The merits and demerits of bureaucracy are summarized:

Merits of bureaucracy

- Clear and explicit rules outlining exactly how employees should perform tasks.

- Clear cut division of labour.
- High level of specialization.
- Clearly defined hierarchy.
- Is a highly influential template for designing and managing organizations.
- Quicker performance or task due division of labour.
- Efficiency in work due to specialization.

Demerits of bureaucracy

- Multiplication of administrative functions.
- Vertical structure.
- Many level of management.
- Much paper work, routine and 'red tape'.
- Impersonal officials working to a fixed routine without necessarily exercising intelligent judgement.
- Unnecessary delays and routines.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

a. Creating a scenario or a story line, highlight the merits and demerits of bureaucracy.

6.0. Tutor-Marked assignment

1. Explain how bureaucracy works in schools.
2. Identify at least five advantages of bureaucracy in schools

7.0. References/Further Reading

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UNIT 3: Meaning and Types of Decision

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1.0. Introduction

Decision-making is a central responsibility of the educational administrator. It is a fundamental process that takes place in organizations. According to Gregg (1957) decision-making involves choice and entails cost. It is a means of achieving organizational goals and objectives and not an end in itself. Decision-making is organizational response to problems.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. explain the concept of decision making; and
2. explain the types of decision that are commonly made in schools.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Concept of Decision-Making

Decision-making is the process of choosing one alternative from among a set of alternatives. When managers make decisions, therefore, they identify a number of potentially feasible alternatives and choose what they believe to be single best alternative for their situation.

In our definition of decision-making, a number of assertions made by specialists in administration are worthy of consideration:

> *The essential process of adaptation in organizations is decision, whereby the physical, biological, personal and social factors of the situation are selected for specific combination by volitional action (Barnard, 1938).*

> *The central function of administration is directing and controlling the decision-making process. It is not only central in the sense that it is more important than other functions, as some writers have indicated, but it is central in that all other functions of administration can best be interpreted in terms of decision-making process (Griffiths, 1959).*

> *The task of 'deciding' pervades the entire administrative organization quite as much as the task of 'doing' (Simon, 1957).*

> *I shall find it convenient to take mild liberties with the English language by using 'decision-making' as though it were synonymous with managing (Simon, 1960).*

> *The executive is a decider and not a doer (Miller & Starr, 1960).*

A decision involves more than the simple choice among well-defined alternative solutions to a well-defined problem. Decision-making covers several stages, from the discovery and definition of problems and the search for alternatives to choose among, through commitment, to the implementation of the choice and the evaluation of results. The ***agenda-building*** phase (which Simon has called "intelligence" activity) covers the time administrators spend defining goals and tasks and assigning priorities for their completion. The search phase (Simon's "design" activity) encompasses efforts to find or invent alternative courses of action and to find information that can be used to evaluate them. The ***commitment phase*** (Simon's "choice" activity) involves testing proposed alternative to choose one for adoption or, as is often appropriate, to postpone making the choice. The ***implementation*** phase includes clarifying the meaning of a commitment for those who are to help carry it out, elaborating the new tasks or decision problems that the commitment leads to and motivating people to help put the commitment into effect. The ***evaluation*** phase involves examining the results of previous commitments and actions in order to find new tasks for the agenda and to help the organization learn how to make decisions more effectively. These phases, performed at different levels in interlocking sequences of decisions, cover the range of administrative activity.

3.2. Types of Decisions

Decisions, especially at the school levels, can be categorized in terms of major administrative functions or tasks of the school head e.g. ***instruction, finance, personnel,*** and the like. It is also useful to analyze the content of decisions in terms of origin of the decision as follows: ***intermediary, appellate*** and ***creative*** decisions. Intermediary decisions derive from above the person in the administrative hierarchy. These decisions arise whenever orders, commands, or policies are handed down by superiors to subordinates. Intermediary decisions are said to have been made whenever school administrators (head teachers or principals) respond to requests or directives from the School Board on matters for which the Board may have established a policy. Appellate decisions derive from below. They are decisions referred to the administrator by his subordinates for a number of reasons. For example, the school head may request the State Primary Education Board to provide his school with criteria to be used in determining whether or not a group of class six pupils who have beaten up an Assistant Headmaster should be allowed to write the final examination they have duly registered for before their misbehaviour. Alternatively, it could take the form of the school reporting the case to the Board and requesting it to advise the school on what appropriate action(s) to take against the pupils concerned. Creative decision-maker makes a decision which breaks with the established policy. This type of decision calls for new policy, for a change in the thinking and activities of members of the organization. These decisions are concerned with significantly improving some aspects of education such as curricular programmes and admission policies. Such decisions, as Gordon (1980) rightly points out, require insight, imagination, vision, initiation and courage on the part of the administrator.

Recent theories have suggested yet a different typology for the analysis of decision-making, particularly in group situations. This typology includes ***routine decision making, heuristic or creative decision-making,*** and ***compromise or negotiated decision-making***. Routine decision-making, in Simon's terms, is a 'programmed' type of decision in the sense that the organization has established the requisite goals, roles, procedures, and technologies for dealing with the decision. For example, in a school setting there are laid-down processes for meting out punishments to students in such offences as lateness, absenteeism, insubordination, stealing, and others. In routine decision-making, the situation is usually structured hierarchically (e.g. the principal and the teachers), role behaviour is characterized by specialized yet coordinated effort, and the processes utilized are largely formal. In heuristic decision-making, there is lack of emphasis on hierarchical structure; role behaviour is characterized by freedom of each individual to explore all ideas bearing on the problematic state and the processes utilized are characterized by free, full and open problem definition and alternative generation. Some principals as observed by Simon, experience difficulty in deciding whether a particular problem should be treated in a routinized or heuristic fashion, while others, particularly energetic, decisive, or action-oriented principals, are hard put to use the heuristic mode, even when occasion calls for it. Still others attempt to resolve an issue by vacillating between the modes, as in the case of the principal who calls his staff together and says, ***"We have a very serious matter here about which I need your help. Now here's how I think we should handle this…"*** In compromise decision-making, the principal is concerned with a strategy for dealing with conflict that may occur because of differences in cultural values, role expectations, or vested interests of individuals. In such situations, one individual or group may stand in opposition to another individual or group concerning means or ends or both (e.g. in teacher negotiations). Decisions made in resolving conflicts between teachers and board, between parents and teachers, between one community group and another are examples of compromise type of decision. In such cases the principal establishes a compromise decision structure and serves as the impartial mediator in the decision-making process.

4.0. Conclusion

This unit looked at the concept of decision making in educational institutions and types of decision that are made in school. You might have learnt that decision making is a central responsibility of the educational administrator and as such it involves choice and costs.

5.0. Summary

In this unit various definitions of decision making have been given. The definitions clearly pointed out that the executive is a decider and not a doer. There are different ways of classifying decision, namely: decisions based on administrative functions, that is, instructional decision, finance decision and personnel decision. Decision can also be classified based on origin, in this case we have: intermidiary appellate and creative decisions. A different typology also gives the following: routine, heuristic and compromised or negotiated decision. All these are made regularly by school administrators.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercise

1. What is decision making?
2. Explain the types of decision that are commonly made in schools.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Decision-making is at the very centre of administration. Discuss

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UNIT 4: Decision Making Procedures in Educational Institutions

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1.0. Introduction

In the educational system, organizational and basic decisions are often made by the educational experts or executives but according to functions. Those in a particular aspect of education like planning, curriculum, financing, students personal work, teacher negotiation, academic, examination and school administration are expected to make decisions affecting their area of specialization. Thus, it might be right to conclude that much of the decision-making in schools is based on functions rather than structure. This is the major focus of this unit.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. identify the persons that make decision in school
2. explain the conditions under which teachers can make decision in schools

3.1. Main Content

3.2. Who Makes Decisions in Schools?

In the educational system, especially primary and secondary levels, the routine (programmed) and compromise decision-making procedures are used to solve administrative problems. They are obviously the easiest because there are written and unwritten policies that can easily be referred to rather than to think afresh on how to deal with or handle certain problems. The principal or headmaster and teacher's role behaviour is characterized by specialized, yet coordinated efforts and the processes involved are largely formal. In compromise decision-making, the headmaster deals directly with his staff. He is concerned with his strategy for dealing with conflicts that may occur because of differences in cultural values, role expectations or vested interest of individuals or groups. For example, decisions made in resolving conflicts between teachers, the Nigerian Union of Teachers and Ministry of Education, teachers and State Primary Education Board or Schools Board, parents and teachers, one tribal group and another, even the community and school are compromise decisions. In such cases, the principal or headmaster establishes a compromise decision structure and serves as the impartial mediator in the decision-making process.

However, some principals as observed by (Simon 1957) experience difficulty in deciding whether a problem should be treated in a routinized or heuristic action-oriented ones are hard put to use the heuristic modes even when the occasions call for it; still others attempt to solve an issue by facilitating between the modes. Yet, other principals employ pseudo-democratic procedure. He asks for suggestions and opinions of members of staff but never utilize them. The participation of the group in decision-making is to support the principal's pre-decision and point of view.

3.3. Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Process

Problem-solving occurs when a manager is faced with an unfamiliar situation for which there are no established procedures that specify how to handle the problem. Managers may receive information from their boss, their subordinates, their customers, or some other source that indicates that something is not going as planned. Usually, the manager is aware of only some symptoms of the problem and must do some research, data gathering, or fact-finding to uncover the true cause of the problem. It takes great skill on the part of the manager to diagnose the situation and quite often this skill is affected by the way managers prefer to gather and evaluate information which they receive from the organization or the environment. This preference for how information is gathered and evaluated is called a ***problem-solving style.*** In a nutshell, whenever managers are faced with situations with which they have little or no experience or knowledge, no decision rules, and little or no guidance as to what to do, problem-solving occurs.

Many times every day managers are faced with decisions that will enable them take advantage of new opportunities and solve problems. At each opportunity managers need to be prepared to make the best decision possible. Many managers seem to make decisions quite easily; while others seem to agonize over each and every one. Either way, managers must utilize their best skills to make the appropriate decision. The steps in the problem-solving and decision-making process include the following:

- recognizing and diagnosing the situation,
- generating alternatives,
- evaluating alternatives,
- selecting the best alternative,
- implementing the chosen alternative, and
- evaluating the results.

Problem-solving and decision-making often require that managers develop new ideas and approaches. A key ingredient in developing these new ideas and approaches is the creativity of the manager. ***Creativity*** is a way of thinking that results in the generation of new ideas or concepts. It is useful at every step of the decision-making process. For example, creativity can help managers see problems looming or opportunities in the future before specific symptoms are evident. Similarly, creativity can help in the generation, evaluation, and selection of alternatives. Creative people, for instance, are more likely to think of novel alternatives.

Awareness of a problematic state of a system is the first stage or step in the decision-making process. Such awareness may range from evident to intuitive, objective to subjective, cognitive to affective, ordered to random or specific to diffuse. Barnard was among the first to observe that the nature of a problem – its origin and urgency – is an important consideration in deciding whether one should or should not attempt to solve it. He indicated that there are three occasions when one should make decisions:

i. authoritative communication from superiors,
ii. cases referred by subordinates, and
iii. cases originating on the initiative of the individual concerned.

Information serves as the basis for decision-making and three points are worthy of note here. These include ***amount, form and flow of information***. The search for additional information logically constitutes a significant first step in the preparation for making a decision. Information must be more than a mere collection of random data; it must be organized if it is to be useful. Easterday (1969) observed that the form in which information is presented influences directly and systematically the behaviour of the decision-maker. Finally, information must be made available when it is needed, since all decisions are ultimately bound within a time frame.

3.4. Participation in Decision-Making

As observed by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) all teachers do not have a uniform desire to participate in decision-making process of the school nor do they wish to be involved in the same things. When the context of decision-making is of little or no concern to a teacher (that is, when it is in his or her zone of indifference of the 'zone of acceptance') the subordinate is ready to accept the decisions made to his/her supervisor and a more task-oriented approach from the superior would be appropriate (Simon, 1957; Sergiovanni, 1957). Teachers, for example are not likely to be quite interested in many of the purely administrative or technical aspects of operating a particular unit and would probably be pleased by an educational administrator who can regulate them in a dedicated but unobstructive way. In such circumstances, subordinates willingly implement directives. Teachers as Sergiovanni and Elliot (1975) observed often resent being involved in events and activities they consider with a particular issue decreases, however, their desire to be involved increases and this necessitates the use of consultative or participative decision-making style for decision-making implementation, to be effective. There has been a great deal of discussion about the role of different distributions or decision-making responsibilities in schools and colleges. There have been studies which show both teachers and student want more active role in decisions and there have been a few attempts to measure the effects of participative methods on the educational process (Gregg, 1957). In order to maximize the positive contributions of shared decision-making and to minimize the negative consequences, the administrator needs to answer the following questions:

1. Under what conditions should teachers be involved?
2. To what extent and how should teachers be involved?
3. How should the decision-making group be constituted?
4. What role is most effective for principal (Bridges, 1967).

4.0. Conclusion

You must have seen that many times every day managers are faced with decisions that will enable them take advantage of new opportunities and solve problems. At each opportunity managers need to be prepared to make the best decision possible. Many managers seem to make decisions quite easily; while others seem to agonize over each and every one. Either way, managers must utilize their best skills to make the appropriate decision.

5.0. Summary

Problem-solving occurs when a manager is faced with an unfamiliar situation for which there are no established procedures that specify how to handle the problem. While decision-making is the process of choosing one alternative from among a set of alternatives, the problem-solving and decision-making process involves size steps. The first step involves recognizing the need for a decision and defining its parameters. The second step calls for generating alternatives from which to choose. Next, the manager must evaluate, or judge the alternatives, the fourth step is selecting the best alternative from those available. Implementing the alternatives, or putting it into effect is the fifth step. The final step is evaluating the results of the process. Programmed decisions occur in situations that are routine in nature, have occurred in the past, and for which there exists a decision rule. Non programmed decisions are non routine decision situations that do not occur frequently.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Identify the persons that make decisions in school.
2. Explain the conditions under which teachers can make decision in schools.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Decision-making is at the very centre of administration. Discuss
2. Identify a recent situation in which you framed a decision in terms of a choice between losses. Did you eventually choose the riskier of the two alternatives? How would you have framed the decision differently so that your perspective of the choices might have been different?

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UNIT 5: Decision Making Models

Table of contents

1.0. Introduction

This unit presents the decision making models that are commonly used in any formal organisation, including the school system. This will certainly acquaint you with decision making procedures in educational institutions.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. identify the model of decision making that is most common.
b. explain clearly the system approach to decision making.

4.0. Main Content

3.1. Decision-Making Models

In practically any discussion of decision-making models, steps similar to the following are usually presented and described. They are referred to as a general mode of decision-making:

- recognize, define and limit the problem,

- analyze and evaluate the problem,
- establish criteria or standards by which a solution will be evaluated or judged acceptable and adequate to the need,
- collect data on the possible positive and negative sides of the proposed decision,
- formulate and select the preferred decision(s),
- test the preferred decision(s),
- implement the decision(s),
- continual evaluation of decision.

The eight steps will now be briefly discussed (See Figure 1). In the first step, the problem becomes known and the decision-maker goes through a process of defining and limiting the problem. He attempts to state the problem in terms of either his own goals or the goals of the enterprise. The danger here is that administrators tend to see problems in terms of their own goals and security. For example, the administrator who actually sees problems within his system that require decisions which may threaten his own position may refuse to see the problems or repress the perception of them by others in the system. On the other hand, the administration, in the interest of the system, may perceive the problem, accept the situation, and switch on the machinery for decision to deal with the problem. Research studies have pointed out that administrators who care to do the latter alternative have a personality structure which allows them to 'accept their own worth'.

Once the problem is recognized, defined and limited, there follows an analysis and evaluation. As in the preceding step, the value-system of the decision-maker counts most at this step. These values give significance to the problem and determine the degree and nature of the actions to be taken. At this stage, some administrators make use of relevant talents within the system, at this stage also, very often, 'the decision to make a decision is made'. If as a result of analysis and evaluation the administrator decides to go on further then the decision to make no decision is made.

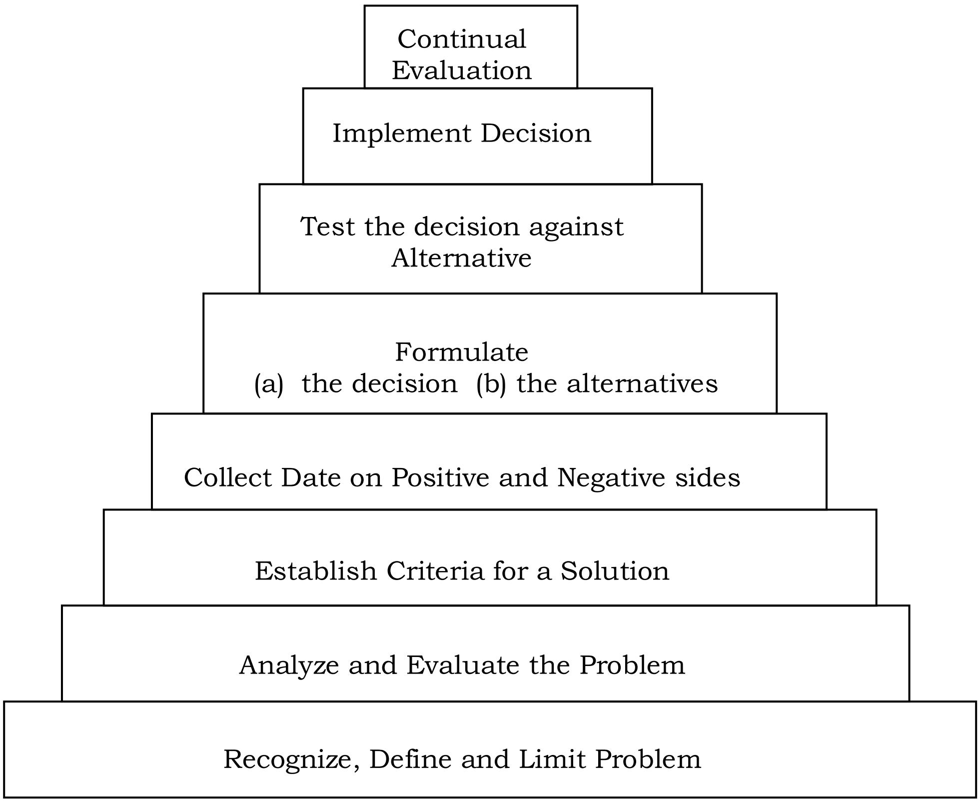


Fig 1: A general decision-making model
Source: (Adesina, 1988)

The next concern is with the criteria by which the proposed solutions to the problem will be evaluated. This is a crucial stage in the process because here is where the value system and the aspirations of the organization or individual are built into the process. Then, data are collected on the basis of which decision is to be made. More data that can be used are usually collected. Briefly, data should be relevant that is, either free from bias or with the bias clearly indicated. Data should also be reliable, that is, others using the same data will find them the same as does the decision-maker. The selection of the preferred solution is the point of decision. All that have gone before culminate in a decision. The present setup involves the selection of a single solution as the one most likely to succeed. The consequences of the selected solution are also weighed against those of alternative solutions. Once a decision has been made it must be implemented otherwise a mockery is made of all the efforts taken to make that decision. Even though a major decision is to be put into effect, this does not mean that the decision-making process ceases. In the implementation there are minor decisions which need to be made to facilitate or accelerate implementation.

Implicit in the development of a model of educational decision-making is the development of a process of evaluation. One of the major reasons why programme evaluation often flounders is that too little attention is being given to a very crucial element – that of criteria. Little consideration is given to criteria as a phenomenon or their role in evaluating decisions. It is quite possible that certain decisions set out the criteria and for future evaluation criteria can be biased or free from bias depending on who is making and judging them. An administrator may with a decision sponsored by him have the decision evaluated while he is in office. He may or may not control the process of evaluation. Objective or not, a typical evaluation will aim at appraising once more the process of the decision, review the needs, objectives and continuance of the decision in the light of experience or simply assess the actual outcomes or products of the decision.

A Three-Tier Model

What has been presented above is a decision-making model that is generally favoured. Certain writers prefer to contract the entire process into a three-tier model. The decision-making process is then divided into three interrelation phases:

- defining problems,
- choosing courses of action, and
- justifying the choices

Each of these phases is itself a process of struggle. Taken together, they become intertwined with the inevitable conflicts within the organization and between the organization and its environment.

The first step, that of defining the problem, resolves itself into four closely related questions; what is the blockage? The common source of mistakes in management decisions is the emphasis on finding the right answer rather than the right question. The second step involves the formation of alternatives. When many members of the organization participate in it, this process may be far more important than the act of choice. Authorities have suggested that the administrator may not have to originate or formulate alternatives; rather, his contribution is to foster a creative and innovative spirit in organization, and help break down a problem cluster into specifics that may be handled by different people.

At the final stage the administrator justifies or rationalizes his decision. Once the administrator makes his decision he can persuade himself that he had originally though and that the unattractive features of the chosen alternative are not really unattractive. The result of rationalization is often the fact that it is not confluent with many interests, drawing them together, embodying them, satisfying them, and engaging them jointly.

Not particularly different from the processing modes is John Dewey's model for decision-making. The different stages suggested by Dewey are summarized below:

- There must be a situation calling for a decision (felt need).
- The problem should be further analyzed by gathering data pertinent to (problem location and clarification).
- The problem should be further analyzed by gathering data pertinent to it (further clarification).
- Alternative courses of action must be generated or preferred solutions formulated (suggestions for possible solutions).

- Each alternative course of action should be appraised, preferably through the use of a model which portrays the essential properties of the phenomenon under study (hypothesizing).
- Consequences, such as cost-benefit analysis, of each possible choice must be examined (mental elaboration).
- After the choice is rendered and the decision is put into effect the decision should be evaluated (experimental corroboration).

The Systems Approach

Many authors who write on this subject do not attempt to give an adequate definite statement of what it is, which adds to the aura of mystery surrounding it. As one author remarks: 'using the system approach is easier than defining it'. Quade and Boncher in an attempt to define it suggest that 'it is a strategy, a perspective on the proper use of available tools, a philosophy put into practice of how best to aid the decision-maker in arriving at solutions to complex problems; since systems analysis takes its character largely from the problem under consideration, the techniques used differ from situation to situation. In every case, however, the procedures employed include a collection of data, careful analysis of data, and decisions based upon these analyses.

For the educational decision-maker, four key words are noteworthy in the systems approach, namely, **context, input, process and product.** The context defines the environment where change is to occur, the unmet needs problems underlying these needs, and is used to establish programme goals and objectives. Decision based on input evaluation usually result in the specification of procedures, schedule, staff requirements and budget. Once a designed course of action had been approved and implementation has begun, the process of evaluation is needed to provide periodic feedback to those responsible for continuous control and refinement of plans and procedures. The major objective here is to detect or predict during the implementation. The product or the 'ends served' involves an evaluation used to determine the effectiveness of the decision or programme after it has run full circle. On the other hand, evaluation as a measure of effectiveness may occur at each stage of the entire process. One final word on the systems approach, the approach allows recognition that constraints of a financial, political, and social nature sometimes cause administrators to make decisions that 'satisfy' rather than optimize the attainment of objectives. The emphasis is on programme results to output rather than input viewing the budget in terms of carefully conceived programmes, their objectives, goals, process and procedures for attaining them (see figure 2).

A Non-Rational Model

There is the tendency for social scientists to classify decisions as rational and non-rational. The models we have already discussed will come under 'rational' because they are based on accepted principles and, more than this, they are prescriptive. Non-rational models rest on more controversial, descriptive, and usually non-measurable qualities. They stress the intangibles, the unknowns, the guess work and human frailties. They discount the likelihood that the social and behavioural sciences can break out of the laboratory and make their theories relevant to the 'real' life situation in which administration is practised. They stress the importance of a 'practical approach' to successful administration and rely heavily on simple trial and error. In short, they emphasize the 'politics' or administration rather than its science.

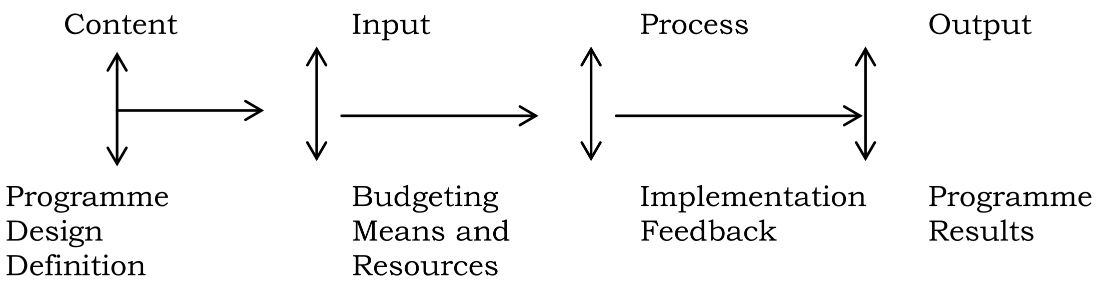


Fig 2: System analysis approach

Source: (Adesina, 1988)

Five major steps can be identified in a typical non-rational model (see figure 3). Briefly the areas: initiation, formulation, approval, implementation and evaluation. The emphasis all through is lobby power coupled with the drive and personality of decision-makers. Simon has identified eight procedures, which the educational administrator operating on a non-rational model can utilize. These are:

- establishing organizational goals which are appealing to the members of the system;
- capitalizing upon the personalities and leadership skills (or the lack of these) of all persons involved;
- assuring that satisfactory personal experiences result from association in the system;
- providing information to all members who can make use of it;
- developing organizational loyalties;
- giving helpful suggestions and advice;
- promoting the in-service growth and the development of members; and
- delegating responsibilities generally.

It must be stressed that a rational model does not ignore these strategies entirely. It only does not place too much emphasis on them as a scientific process of decision-making. Similarly, it does not follow that a non-rational model is bound to fail. That it is non-rational does not simply mean that it is 'irrational'. All it means is that decisions have been reached from uncertain, non-factual and intangible premises and that its strategies are not easily measurably scientifically.

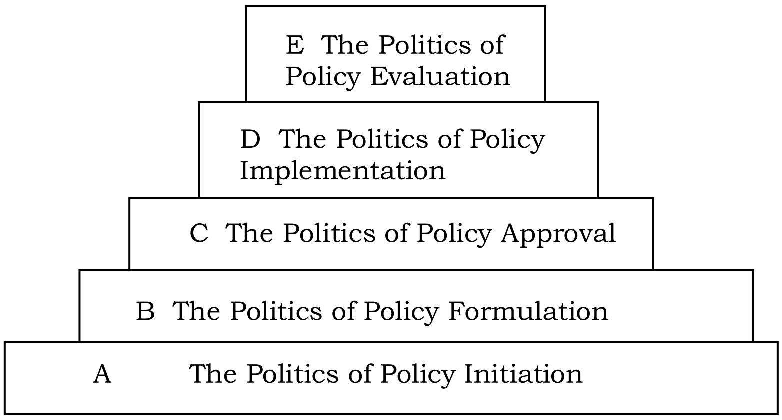
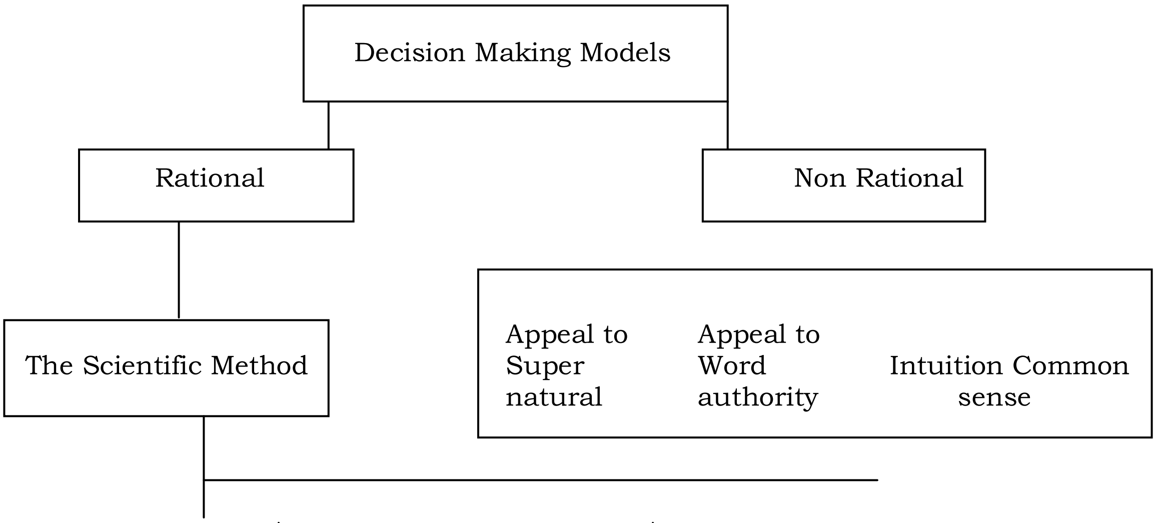


Fig. 3: A typical non-rational model
Source: (Adesina, 1988)

Model-building for decision-making is a central concept in educational administration. More often than not models are representative constructs and symbols of the essential elements of a problem situation. A synthesis of the model discussed in this article is present in figure 4.



Creative Process	**Scientific Method**	**Mathematical and Operations Research Method**
Orientation: pointing out the problem **Preparation:** gathering pertinent data **Analysis:** breaking down the relevant material **Hypothesis:** compiling alternatives and ideas **Incubation:** giving time for illumination **Synthesis:** putting the pieces together **Verification:** Judging the ideas.	Define the problem State objectives Formulate hypotheses Collect data (empirical observation and verification). Classify, analyze and interpret. Draw conclusions. Generalize, restate or develop new hypotheses	Formulate the problem Construct a mathematical model to represent the system under study Derive a solution from the model. Test the model and the solution derived. Establish controls over the solution. Put the solution to work.

Figure 4: Contrasting methods of problem-solving and decision-making
Source: Adesina, 1988.

The real test of educational leadership will depend, in the first analysis, upon the administrator's grasp of the various decision-making models, his understanding of their conceptual framework, his mastery of the underlying purposes inherent in these models, and his ability to apply his knowledge of them on the job. In no instance should a particular pattern be regarded as a recipe for formula to be followed blindly. The emphasis throughout is on values to be applied and the realities to be taken into account rather than on a particular method to be used in dealing with a given situation. Although method may be preferred, the benefits of other methods should be taken into account. Moreover, the fact must be recognized that since no two situations are precisely alike, and since a given situation is always changing, every decision-making situation is in the last unique.

4.0. Conclusion

This unit looked at the decision making models in schools and various approches that are commonly used in making decision. The unit emphasised that the system approach involves context, input,process and product while a three tier model involves defining the problems, choosing courses of action and justifying the choices.

5.0. Summary

Decisions are made under three conditions: certainty, risk, and uncertainty. There are two approaches to decision-making, the rational model and the behavioural model. The rational model assumes perfect information, an exhaustive list of alternatives, managers who are capable of systematically and logically assessing these alternatives, and managers who will always work in the best interest of the organization. The behavioural model is a modification of this approach and assumes imperfect information, an incomplete list of alternatives, bounded rationality and satisfying behaviour.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercises

1. Explain clearly the system approach to decision making.
2. Explain any three decision making models that can be used in educational institutions.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Decision-making is at the very centre of administration. Discuss
2. Which model of decision making do you think is most common? Is a school headmaster most likely to follow one of the models exclusively or will he go back and forward between models? Why?

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MODULE THREE
ADMINISTRATION OF STAFF AND STUDENTS IN SCHOOLS

Unit 1: Personnel Administration in Schools

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

A sound system of staff administration is important to an organization because it helps ensure that staff of the right quality are employed, enhance management credibility and staff morale, and minimize opportunities for abuse. The basic mal-administration prevention principles in staff administration are openness and fairness in staff recruitment, adequate motivation, periodic in-service training, effective performance appraisal and promotion, clear accountability and impartial enforcement of rules and regulations. Since staff/personnel (human resources) are the essential in all organizations, especially the educational sector, the effective administration of staff no doubt has a great influence on school productivity.

2.0. Objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. explain the concept of staff/personnel administration in the school system.
2. identify various personnel administration practices in the school system.
3. explain the importance of an orderly recruitment programs on staff performance and organizational productivity.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Meaning of Administration

Nwankwo (1987) considers administration as the careful and systematic arrangements and use of resources (human and material), situations and opportunities for the achievement of the specific objectives of a given organization.

Sergiovanni et al (1980) point out that administration is generally defined as the process of working with and through others to efficiently accomplish organizational goals. It is the art and science of getting things done efficiently. According to Heyel (1973), administration is concerned with building individuals into organizations and with managing and directing those organizations.

To Breach (1987), administration is that part of management which is concerned with the installation and carrying out of the procedures by which programmes, plans and targets are laid down and communicated, and the progress of activities regulated and checked against them. In more specific terms, administration is concerned with 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 (Peretomode, 1991).

3.2. Staff/Personnel Administration

This can be defined according to Miner and Miner (1973) as involving the development, application and evaluation of policies, procedures, methods and programs relating to the individual organization in terms of their employees. Personnel administration revolved around activities such as recruitment and selection, training, wage and salary administration, establishing staffing ratios, benefit planning and productivity.

Other term used interchangeably with staff administration is Human Resource Management (HRM). In general terms, Human Resource Management refers to those activities involved in acquiring, developing and maintaining a creative and productive effort in organizations (Castetter, 1971). As the Institute of Personnel Management in UK says, it aims at bringing closely together all the men and women who make up the organization and ensuring that each of them makes his or her best contribution to the successful achievement of the organization's objectives. Therefore, a successful HRM programmes is that which can contribute "materially to the willingness of people to work so that both individual and organizational expectations will be realized" (Castetter, 1971: 14).

Staff administration programmes therefore will be meaningful to the extent it establishes a healthy person-organization fit, that is, creating a healthy corporate body so that both the organizational objectives as well as its personnel needs are satisfactorily realized. That is what Albanese means by defining management as "the task of creating and maintaining environments n which people can accomplish goals efficiently and effectively (Albanese, 1978: 4).

According to International Labour Organization (IL) (1997: 95), staff administration can be seen from two perspectives. The "hard" HRM model which stresses such aspects as just-in-time production, flexibility, strong management control, individualism and cost minimization, and the "soft" HRM model which regards employees as valued assets and as a source of competitive advantage. This includes a decentralized organizational structure, semi-autonomous work groups, enhanced communication between management and labour, employee motivation, a qualified and adaptable workforce, and a set of people-centred labour policies and practices.

3.3. Staff Administration Policies/Programmes

Recruitment of Staff

Within the context of the workplace, staffing is an umbrella term used to describe the following inter-connected activities: job analysis and description, human resource planning, recruitment, selection, placement, transfer and promotion. Although it is possible in theory to separate each of these activities from one another, in practice they are all inter-connected. The end result of one activity is the input into the next one.

According to Fajana (2002), recruitment is the set of activities and processes used to legally obtain a sufficient number of the right people at the right place and time so that the people and the organization can select each other in their own best interests both in the short and in the long run. Recruitment involves attracting a large pool of job candidates who have some probability of on-the-job success if employed.

Ejiogu (2000) opined that staffing as an activity has two dimensions to it. The first is recruitment (the development of a pool of job candidates in accordance with a laid down plan). The other is selection i.e. the mutual process whereby the organization decides whether or not to make a job offer and the candidate decides whether or not to accept it.

Ejiogu further reiterates that the possibilities of improving the quality of organizational behaviour and ultimate productivity are strongly influenced by the competence of the human services that such organizations employ. Thus appropriate policies must be designed to ensure that as far as possible, only the right people are selected to work. Efforts must be directed towards the formulation of clearly defined staff recruitment and selection policy.

The primary stages of staff recruitment and selection are six-fold. These are job requisition; job analysis; job description; man (woman) specification, advertising and selection. When short-listed candidates are invited for the selection stage, the recruitment is now over. The next stage is interviewing. Most selection for appointments is by interviewing. The objectives of an interview are both manifest and latent. Ideally, interviews according to Ejiogu (2000) ensure that:

i. the most suitable candidate is appointed;
ii. candidates must have been given an accurate picture of the post or position;
iii. candidates have a fair hearing; and
iv. candidates are selected on the basis of performance.

Basically, the purposes of staff recruitment are to:

1. determine the present and future recruitment needs of the organization in conjunction with the human resource planning activity and the job analysis activity;
2. increase the pool of job applicants with minimum cost;
3. help increase the success rate of the selection process by reducing the number of obviously unqualified or overqualified job applicants;
4. help reduce the probability that job applicants once recruited and selected will leave the organization after short period of time;
5. meet the organization's responsibility for affirmative action programmes and other legal and social obligations regarding the composition of its workforce;

6. start identifying and preparing potential job applicants who will be appropriate candidates;
7. increase organizational and individual effectiveness in the short and long terms; and
8. evaluate the effectiveness of various techniques and locations of recruiting for all types of job applicants.

Tips for Effective Recruitment of Staff in School

- Job vacancies should be widely advertised in population newspapers and/or other channels.
- The advertisement should set out clear job descriptions and requirements, and other essential information such as the application deadline and the contact point for enquiries.
- All applications received should be systematically recorded.
- Short-listing and selection of candidates should be based on predetermined criteria approved by the school management, and should involve more than one person as far as possible.
- A recruitment panel should be formed to conduct selection interviews and skill tests as necessary.
- Assessment of candidates and recommendations of panel members should be properly documented.
- The approval authority should be clearly defined.
- In approving the appointments, the approval authority should ensure that the recruitment exercise has adhered to the laid down procedures, and that any deviations are justified.

4.0. Conclusion

This chapter focused on various numbers of tasks a school administrator/management performs in relation to staff (teaching and non-teaching) and students' administration in schools. The tasks identified include staff motivation, recruitment, promotion, training and development and performance appraisal. Also, issues involved in students' administration are highlighted. The bottom lines of these administrative tasks are that when well administered, it increases staff morale and performance, and attainment of school goals.

5.0. Summary

Organization's human resource policies and practices, otherwise referred to in this paper as staff/personnel administration practices represent important task for shaping employee behaviour and attitudes. In this chapter, we specifically focused staff and students' administrative practices such as selection practices, motivation, training and development programs and the performance appraisal systems.

Organization (school) selection/recruitment practices will determine who gets hired. If properly developed they will identify competent candidates and accurately match them to the goals of the organization. Motivation of staff with right compensation and benefits will improve their morale and job productivity. Relatedly, training programs can affect staff work behaviour in two ways. The most obvious is by directly improving the skills necessary for the employee to successfully complete his or her job. The second benefit from training is that it increases an employee's self-efficacy. In the area of staff performance appraisal, it is obvious from the chapter that the major goal of performance appraisal is to assess accurately an individual's performance contribution as a basis for making reward allocation, promotion and training programs decisions, among others.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Explain any five strategies for effective recruitment of staff in schools
2. What are the major purposes for staff recruitment?
3. Identify and discuss the six stages of staff recruitment and selection.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What is job analysis? How is it related to staff recruitment?
2. Contrast formal and informal training.
3. Explain the major purpose of interview

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Unit 2: Personnel Motivation in Schools

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

Motivation is not completely a new term. What is interesting about it is that it is commonly assumed to be a good thing that goes in influencing individual's behaviour and performance at work. This among other issues are discussed in this unit.

2.0. Objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. describe lucidly the role of motivation, training and development programmes on staff behaviour and general productivity.
2. identify the major administrative practices relating to students' administration.

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Motivation of Staff

According to Edigin (2000), motivation is a management function that stimulates individuals to accomplish laid down institutional goals. To Oluchukwu (2000), it is a purposive, designated and goal-oriented behaviour which involves certain forces acting on or within the individual in order to imitate, sustain and direct behaviour.

Berelson and Steiner (1964) defined motivation as "all those inner striving conditions described as wishes, desires, urges etc". It is therefore an inner state that stimulates and triggers behaviour. Robbin (1989) describes motivation as the willingness to exert high levels of efforts towards organizational goals conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual needs.

Teacher motivation could therefore be referred to as those factors that operate within the school system which is not made available would hamper performance, cause stress, discontent and frustration all of which subsequently affect school's effectiveness. Thus, motivation of school staff is a strong administrative process in school. Also, as opined by Ejiogu (2000), the teachers regardless of their variations in age, sex, and qualifications placed the highest valuation on economic returns.

Motivation of teachers revolves around compensation and welfare packages. Compensation is the totality of the financial and non-financial rewards that the employee gets in return for working for the organization (Onyene, 2001; Oduwaye, 2000). Compensation is a major issue in staff personnel management and the effect on productivity is important. Since compensation is a reward for service to the organization and also a source of recognition and livelihood for employees.

On the basis of the foregoing, Chruden and Sherman (1976) assert that:

> the money employees receive for their service is important to them not only financially for what it will buy but also psychologically for what it will provide them in terms of status and recognition within and outside the organization. Since money represents a quantifiable measure of their worth, employees are quite sensitive about the amount of pay they receive in return for their contributions on the job…

Management has used a number of approaches to improve employee motivation. Also, there are different theories of motivation that could be adopted in motivating staff in schools.

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, at least two of the needs identified (physiological and esteem) are directly related to the level of compensation for workers. These, according to him, are among the factors motivating people to work. Scientific movement led by Fredrick Taylor had conceived money as the most important factor in motivating workers to higher productivity. Taylor therefore advocated the use of incentive wage to stimulate workers in higher performance.

Adams (1972) in his version of the equity theory espoused the idea that the feeling of a worker that he is being adequately rewarded for his labour and services can motivate him. Central to this theory is the role of perceptions in motivation and the fact that individuals make comparisons between compensation levels. Equity theory states that if the individual feels that his compensation is the same with another individual who possesses the same job inputs and their productivity is roughly the same, he will perceive the situation to be inequitable.

Other theory that has been suggested for the basis of motivating staff is the two-factor theory. The two-factor theory (sometimes also called motivation-hygiene theory) was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Intrinsic factors such as advancement, recognition, responsibility and achievement seem to be related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, dissatisfaction tends to have extrinsic factors such as supervision, pay, company policies and working conditions. Thus, Herzberg emphasized that to motivate workers, more emphasis should be placed on intrinsic factors.

Other motivation theory that is handy for staff motivation in schools is expectancy theory developed by Vroom (1964). The theory states that an individual's motivation to perform is dependent on the expectancies that individuals have concerning the beneficial outcomes of achieving a particular target, and what value is placed on that outcome. The theory posits that the amount of effort or energy expended by an employee is determined by two key factors: the value or attractiveness of reward; the degree to which the employee believes that increased effort will lead to the attainment of this reward. It is generally believed that the level of compensation paid to employees must reflect their contributions or their level of productivity within the organization.

Promotion

Motivation of staff in a school system does not end with increase in salaries or wages. Promotion is another way to motivate staff for productivity. Recognition and status are among employees' needs which they hope to achieve in their places of work. Promotion is the advancement of an employee to a higher position or level. This may be in terms of greater responsibilities, more prestige or status, greater skill and especially increased rate of pay. A sure means of convincing an employee that his performances are recognized and ascribing worth, dignity and status to him or her is by promoting him or her when he or she merits it.

Promotion brings with it personal advancement which is indeed one of the best motivators that can keep any employee within a particular job or organization.

Training and Development Programmes for Staff

Competent employees do not remain competent forever. Skills deteriorate and can become obsolete. That is why organizations spend billions of dollars each year on formal training.

According to Miles (1965), people do not only have to feel good in their jobs, they also have a genuine sense of learning, growing and developing as persons in the process of making their organizational contribution. Fajana (2002) describes training as a process that involves developing skills and learning concepts, rules or attitudes in order to increase effectiveness on a particular job.

Also, in this modern world, updating is ideally a continual, lifelong process that addresses such goals as the acquisition of new and up-to-date information, the development of skills and techniques and the elevation of one's personal esteem. This would include the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences throughout a person's career from initial training to retirement (Ogundele, 2001).

Public servants and most especially teachers need constant personnel development activities which are designed to convey knowledge or information about new ideas and any intended or planned change; to develop relevant competencies; and to enhance commitment or a positive attitude to the job and to the work-place through interaction, involvement, participation, identification and support.

Also, training and development programmes are used to directly increase the job skills of an individual or a group of individuals by teaching them how to perform their tasks more effectively. Teachers and other non-teaching staff may go for refresher courses, seminars and workshops. It is clear that training contributes primarily to the productivity goal. It helps employees to be up-to-date and meet with modern methods of teaching. Training develops an individual while the paying organization also benefits from higher productivity.

For training to operate efficiently as an input-output mediator, it must be focused on the individual and situations as the need arises. When determining training needs, two questions need to be answered. These are that: is there a problem in terms of the level or type of performance? Can training be of any value in correcting such a situation? In terms of training needs, a problem is usually most pronounced among individuals just starting out on a new job i.e. employees newly employed and employees shifted into new positions. Employees (school staff) can be retrained because the role prescriptions for a position have been changed.

Numerous programmes have emerged over the years in response to the demand for staff improvement in the management of educational staff. These include conferences, consultant services, correspondence course, demonstration teaching, outreach programme, experimentation, inter-visitation, workshops, teacher oriented programmes, radio or television programmes among others. All these could be grouped as follows:

- programmes that aim at correcting certain deficiencies which were known at the time of appointment;
- programmes which enable the teaching staff to face the challenges resulting from innovation in the school curriculum;
- programmes which enable staff to acquire higher qualifications for greater responsibilities and status with the school system; and
- programmes that make professional of non-professional teachers.

It is obvious that current training and development efforts are likely to be invigorated in the future on account of the profuse introduction of technology, and drop in the quality of products from the educational sector. Also, the training and development programmes are however constrained by the failure to determine training needs reliably and relevantly.

3.2. Issues Relating to Students' Administration in Schools

The school administrator performs a number of tasks and responsibilities for students. Based on a synthesis of several studies concerned with identifying the major activities of the school administrator, Gorton (1983) has identified seven broad categories of administrative task-areas of the school administrator. In the area of student administration, the following functions are performed:

- provide guidance and counselling services
- institute procedures for the orientation of students
- establish school attendance policy and procedures and maintain a system of child accounting
- establish policy and procedures for dealing with students' irregularities (conduct problems)
- establish policy and procedures in regard to pupil safety in the building and in the school premises
- develop and coordinate the extracurricular programmes
- handle disciplinary cases
- arrange systematic procedures for the continual assessment and reporting of pupils' performances
- provide health services
- provide for individual inventory services
- develop and maintain a coordinate record keeping services.

5.0. Conclusion

This chapter focused on various ways by which staff in organisations can be motivated. It identified promotion, training and development as the major ways of motivating staff. Also, issues involved in students' administration are highlighted. The bottom lines of these administrative tasks are that when well administered, it increases staff morale and performance, and attainment of school goals.

6.0. Summary

Motivation of staff with right compensation and benefits will improve their morale and job productivity. Relatedly, training programmes can affect staff work behaviour in two ways. The most obvious is by directly improving the skills necessary for the employee to successfully complete his or her job. The second benefit from training is that it increases an employee's self-efficacy.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercises

1. What are the various ways by which teachers can be motivated for effective job performance?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. From the various motivational theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg two-factor theory, discuss the best approach to motivate Nigerian school staff.
2. Describe lucidly the role of motivation, training and development programmes on staff behaviour and general productivity.
3. Identify the major administrative practices relating to students' administration.

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Unit 3: Performance Appraisal

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

In organizations (school inclusive), a process is instituted to review how far the set objectives have been achieved, what attributes have characterized the job performance, and what potentials for the future of the individual employee in meeting the goals and objectives of the organization. The process is known as employee or performance appraisal. Performance appraisal is a very important process in staff administration in schools. Tis unit expantiates on the meaning and various ways by which staff can be appraisedin organisation.

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. define performance appraisal;

b. give reasons why staff are appraised; and

c. explain at least five approaches to performance appraisal

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Performance Appraisal

According to Goodge (1959: 209), appraisal or evaluation is the consideration of evidence in the light of the value standard and in terms of the particular situation in which the group or individual is striving to attain. Therefore, staff evaluation or appraisal may be defined as a conscious formal evaluation of the performance of members of staff. It is, as summarized by Hackett (1979: 98) a form of regular formalized and recorded review of the way in which an individual is performing his or her job. The individual in this case could be a teaching or non-teaching staff.

Fajana (2002) sees staff performance appraisal as an exercise in applied communication. It focuses on the discussion of the extent to which an individual is carrying out assigned duties, as well as joint actions that can be taken by both the supervisor and the subordinate to manage observed variances between set standards and actual performance.

Two categories of staff appraisal can be identified. These are:

1. **Informed appraisal –** here supervisors assess their subordinates' performance continually in the normal course of work, advise and counsel them as a by-product of their day-to-day relationship.
2. **Formal appraisal –** this is more orderly, systematic, planned and periodical. In this, separate documents exist for the exercise and this is usually recorded.

3.2. What Do We Appraise?

In order to be able to decide on what to appraise, the assessor must be able to determine what constitutes the employees' success or effectiveness in the organization. In other words, what are the criteria of employee effectiveness? It is thus against such criteria that the employee should be judged. The basic effectiveness model suggests two components namely, the employee's personal characteristics and performance effectiveness (Morrison and Mclytyre, 1973: 14). Under characteristics are the workers' general ability, his/her personal traits, attitude and interests.

Ejiogu (2000) opined that, whereas some of the criteria can be assessed objectively, some others like sociability, ability and personal adjustments may be very difficult to measure. A good starting point might be to use the existing job description which is itself a statement of the job's overall purpose and what every employee in the organization is supposed to be doing. Usually, a job description contains such information as the job title, main purpose of the job, duties, desired standards of performance, constraints on the job and the working conditions.

However, in these days of emphasis on Total Quality Management (TQM), issues like communication, customer/client relations, team work, innovativeness, judgement, and goal-achievement have to be considered, for they constitute corporate excellence.

3.3. Approaches to Performance Appraisal

There are many methods by which the staff in schools can be appraised. As Castetter (1971: 245) says "regardless of the method used to observe the performance of personnel, it should result in the collection and documentation of facts and judgements specifically related to the extent to which the individual is meeting the performance standards against which he or she is being appraised". The approaches include the following among others:

- **Free Written Report –** this is also known as "blank sheet approach". Raters a just required to use their own words to describe the strong and weak points of the rate; performance level, potential, leadership ability, technical effectiveness and work behaviours.
- **Controlled Written Report –** this is similar to free written report. The difference is in the fact that evaluation is based on specific guidelines provided. The purpose is to obtain more specific judgement from raters.
- **Grading or Forced Choice Rating –** in this, there is usually a set of phrase or adjective against each factor being assessed relating to job performance or personal attributes e.g. outstanding, satisfactory, unsatisfactory etc.
- **Critical Incident –** here the assessor is asked to observe and record specific important incidents of good and poor performance on the part of the subordinate during the period under review.
- **Self Rating –** as the name implies, it is self-appraisal when an employee rates himself on certain criteria either on performance or personal characteristics.
- **Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS) –** here, the appraiser rates the employees based on items along a continuum, but the points are examples of actual behaviour on the given job rather than general descriptions or traits.

3.4. Purposes of Performance Appraisal

Cascio (1998) asserts that performance appraisal serves the following purposes in organizations.

- management uses appraisal for human resource decisions;
- appraisal provides input and important decisions such as promotions, transfers and terminations;
- appraisal identifies training and development needs;

- performance appraisal can be used as a criterion against which selection and staff development programs are validated;
- effectiveness of training and development programs can be determined by assessing how ell employees who participated do on their performance appraisal;
- appraisal also fulfills the purpose of providing feedback to employees on how the organization views their performance;

Furthermore, performance appraisals are used as the basis for reward allocations. Decisions as to who gets merit pay increases and other rewards are frequently determined by performance appraisal.

3.5. Tips for Effective Staff Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal systems should be transparent and well administered. The following is a checklist of the essentials of an effective system:

- purpose-designed performance appraisal forms should be used;
- the standards of performance required and assessment criteria should be made known to all staff;
- levels of staff responsible for reporting, counter-reports should be defined;
- where practicable, a review panel could be formed to moderate appraisal reports of staff of the same grade;
- a channel for appeal should be established for aggrieved staff; and
- any disciplinary action such as warnings taken against poor performance should be properly recorded.

4.0. Conclusion

From this unit you might have seen the definition, the approaches, the purposes and the tips for effective performance appraisal. It was also emphasised that for a good perform appraisal, a good starting point might be to use the existing job description which is itself a statement of the job's overall purpose and what every employee in the organization is supposed to be doing. The main reason for this is to ensure that rewards allocated judiciously.

5.0. Summary

In the area of staff performance appraisal, it is obvious from the chapter that the major goal of performance appraisal is to assess accurately an individual's performance contribution as a basis for making reward allocation, promotion and training programs decisions, among others.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

a. Define performance appraisal.
b. Give reasons why staff are appraised.
c. Explain at least five approaches to performance appraisal.

7.0. Tutor-Marked Assessment

a. How would you define performance appraisal?
b. Why do school need to evaluate employees?
c. How can management effectively evaluate individuals when when they work as part of a team?

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UNIT 4: Formal and Informal Organisations

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1.0. Introduction

The term organisation connotes two concepts as: an entity, a group and a process. Organisation as an entity refers to establishment such as schools, industries, clubs, government ministries, e.t.c. They are made up of people, they have a definite purpose or purposes respectively to achieve, and they have some type of structure that delimits and defines the behaviour of their members. As an entity, an organisation is defined as a group of people bound together in a formed relationship to attain the organisational goals.

In another way, organisation could be a process of executive functions aimed at ensuring the co-ordination of resources, activities and authority relationships in such a way that pre-determined goals are achieved.

Therefore, organisation can be seen as a purposeful, social unit and its composition include functions, personnel and physical factors. Organisation is a tool or device for managing economic, political and social function.

From the above perspective, organisations are primarily systems of getting work done, for applying techniques to their problem of altering materials, people, symbols or things. This implies that organisation can be viewed as a system process or procedure. As a system, organisations are made up of interrelated parts. According to Peretomode (1991), organization depicts a conscious combination and a systematic arrangement of various economic resources or inputs in terms of men, money, machines, materials and management caliber for the production of goods and services. Consequently, organisation exists when a group of people work together effectively for the attainment of specific goals and objectives.

Therefore, organisation can generally be defined as a collection of people with a relatively identifiable boundary and establishment system of communication, a hierarchy of authority and normative order and a group of individuals who are willing to work towards the attainment of stated goals. According to Oyedeji, the various types of organization specifically include the line organization, the line and staff organisation, functional organisation and committee type of organization. But generally, organisation can be grouped into two: formal and informal organisations.

2.0. Objectives

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

1. define formal organisation and explain its characteristics;
2. define informal organisation and explain its characteristics; and
3. defferentiate between formal and informal organisation.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. The Formal Organisations

Formal organisations are the organisations deliberately formed to attain specific goals. They are often defined in terms of their task, position and authority relationships.

Formal organisations demand planning and working out outline of things that should be done and methods of doing them in order to attain the goals. They also entail a clarification of authority and a statement of responsibility and job specializations.

3.2. Characteristics of Formal Organisations

1. Well defined relationship in terms of position, authority and communication flow in the form of a chart e.g from principal to vice principal to Heads of Department and to Teachers.
2. Formal organisations tend to be fairly permanent over time.
3. Organisations grow and become more complex, therefore it involves the idea of division of labour and the application of authority, accountability, responsibility and powers.

4. Arbitrary structure
5. Determined objectives and policies
6. Status symbol
7. Limitation on the activities of the individual
8. Strict observance of the principle of co-ordination
9. Messages are communicated through scalar chain

3.3. Benefits of Formal Organisation

1. It facilitates the accomplishment of the goals of the organization: In a formal organization the work is delegated to each individual of the

organization. He/She works towards the attainment of definite goals, which are in compliance with the goals of the organisation.

2. It facilitates the co-ordination of various activities: The authority, responsibility and accountability of individuals in the organization is very well defined. Hence, facilitating the co-ordination of various activities of the organisation very effectively.
3. It aids the establishment of logical authority relationship: The responsibilities of the individuals in the organisation are well defined. They have a definite place in the organisation due to a well defined hierarchical structure which is inherent in any formal organisation.
4. Permit the application of the concept of specialization and division of Labour, division of work amongst individuals according to their capabilities helps in greater specializations and division of work.
5. Create more group cohesiveness

3.4. Informal Organisations

Informal organisations are found within the formal organisations but while the formal organisations are characterised by structure, organisational goals and relationship prescribed by management the informal organisation is not well organised. It is flexible and ill-defined in terms of membership and the agreed goals. People in informal organisation associate unofficially without authorized relationships. This spontaneous and unauthorized gathering is referred to as informal organisation.

3.5. Some Characteristics of Informal Organisations

1. **Standard of Behaviour**: Informal organisations have their own laws and beliefs and the members tend to think alike. Some of such standards can of course help to promote the activities of formal organisations e.g where emphasis is on high productivity in terms

of quantity or quality or the promotion of good workmanship. However in most cases their standards are against the formal organisation.

2. **Pressure to conform**: Members of the informal group are pressurised to conform to existing values otherwise they will be punished by ostracism e.g a student who over reads in order to get above the average mark will lead to the members rejecting him and calling him all sort of names.
3. **Informal Leadership**: Leaders of informal group emerge from the situation i.e people with expertise relative to the existing situation emerge as the leader for various groups e.g. playing, drinking group e.t.c

3.6. Benefits of the Informal Organization

Although informal organizations create unique challenges and potential problems for management, they also provide a number of benefits for the formal organization.

Blend with formal system

Formal plans. policies, procedures, and standards cannot solve every problem in a dynamic organization; therefore, informal systems must blend with formal ones to get work done. Informal relations in the organization serve to preserve the organization from the self-destruction that would result from literal obedience to the formal policies, rules, regulations, and procedures. No college or university could function merely by everyone following the "letter of the law" with respect to written policies and procedures. Faculty, staff, and student informal groups must cooperate in fulfilling the spirit of the law" to effectuate an organized, sensibly run enterprise.

Lighten management workload

Managers are less inclined to check up on workers when they know the informal organization is cooperating with them. This encourages delegation, decentralization, and greater worker support of the manager, which suggests a probable improvement in performance and overall productivity. When a professor perceives that students are conscientiously working on their term papers and group projects, there are likely to be fewer "pap tests" or impromptu progress reports. This eases the professors load and that of the students and promotes a better relationship between both parties.

Fill gaps in management abilities

For instance, if a manager is weak in financial planning and analysis, a subordinate may informally assist in preparing reports through either suggestions or direct involvement. ' Act as a safety valve. Employees experience frustration, tension, and emotional problems with management and other employees. The informal group provides a means for relieving these emotional and psychological pressures by allowing a person to discuss them among friends openly and candidly. In faculty lounge conversations, frustrations with the dean, department head, or students are "blown off" among empathetic colleagues.

Encourage improved management practice

Perhaps a subtle benefit of informal groups is that they encourage managers to prepare, plan, organize, and control in a more professional fashion. Managers who comprehend the power of the informal organization recognize that it is a "check and balance" on their use of authority. Changes and projects are introduced with more careful thought and consideration, knowing that the informal organization can easily kill a poorly planned project.

3.7. Disadvantages of informal groups

Informal organizations also possess the following potential disadvantages and problems that require astute and careful management attention.

Resistance to change.

Perpetuation of values and lifestyle causes informal groups to become overly protective of their "culture" and therefore resist change. For example, if restriction of output was the norm in an autocratic management group, it must continue to be so, even though management changes have brought about a more participative administration. A minority female student may have a tough time being fully accepted on a project team composed of three white, prejudiced young men-regardless of her academic competency.

Role conflict.

The quest for informal group satisfaction may lead members away from formal organizational objectives. What is good for and desired by informal group members is not always good for the organization. Doubling the number of coffee breaks and the length of the lunch period may be desirable for group members but costly and unprofitable for the firm. Employees' desire to fulfill the requirements and services of both the informal group and management results in role conflict. Role conflict can be reduced by carefully attempting to integrate interests, goals, methods, and evaluation systems of both the informal and formal organizations, resulting in greater productivity and satisfaction on everyone's behalf.

Rumor

The grapevine dispenses truth and rumor with equal vengeance. Ill-informed employees communicate unverified and untrue information that can create a devastating effect on employees. This can undermine morale, establish bad attitudes, and often result in deviant or, even violent behavior. For example, a student who flunks an exam can start a rumor that a professor is making sexually harassing advances toward one of the students in class. This can create all sorts of ill feelings toward the professor and even result in vengeful acts like "egging" the residence or knocking over the mail box.

Conformity

Social control promotes and encourages conformity among informal group members, thereby making them reluctant to act too aggressively or perform at too high a level. This can harm the formal organization by stifling initiative, creativity, and diversity of performance. In some British factories, if a group member gets "out of line”, tools may be hidden, air may be let out of tires, and other group members may refuse to talk to the deviant for days or weeks. Obviously, these types of actions can force a good worker to leave the organization.

4.0. Conclusion

From this unit, you must have learnt that an organization can be an entity or a process. There are two types of organization, namely formal and informal organization. At the formal level, there are some needs to be met like-financial and material. A manager must therefore be conscious of these needs in order for the organizational goals to be achieved.

5.0. Summary

This unit clearly explain the two types of organisation, that is formal and informal organisation. Organisations contain formal groups which have been put into place by the organisational management to perform specific tasks in order to further the aims of the organisation. In addition to the formal groups, there are informal groups which can assume an existence in organisations as a result of the mutually shared interests of the individuals who are a part of the organisation. Informal groups exist purely because of mutual interests and have no formal mandate from the organisation. The membership of the informal groups seeks to satisfy some needs by belonging to these groups. These needs may include needs for security, knowledge acquisition, informal attempts to shape organisational policy, family,social interaction etc.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercises

1. Differentiate between formal and informal organization.
2. Define formal organisation and explain its characteristics.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What are the major characteristics of informal organisation? Are these also feasible in a formal organisational setting?
2. What are the benefits and dangers of informal organisation?

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UNIT 5: Organizational and Human Needs

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1.0. Introduction

This unit presents financian and material needs in organisation. The need of any organisation can be discussed as what are required to achieve its goals. As a result, we shall be looking at the basic resources as needs of organizations such as financial, material and human resources.

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. define organisational needs;
b. explain the financial and material needsin organisation; and
c. differentiate between physiological and psychological needs of humans in organisations.

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Resources in the Organisation

Financial Resources

Financial resources are the monetary inputs available for and expended on organisational activities. These are usually referred to as cost of and expenditure of the organisation.

Material Resources

Every organisation that is worth its name requires material resources. These are physical facilities and /or items. Generally, they could be put in three different categories.

The first category comprises the basic physical structures, fixtures and fittings to make the structures useable. Items under this group include, auditoriums, typing pools, administrative block, laboratories, workshops, special rooms e.g staff quarters, kitchen, cafeteria or refectory, lavatory, toilet, and other plant facilities. All buildings in which organisational activities are to take place should be spacious, and must in addition, be aesthetically pleasing.

Equally important are furniture items for each of the building. Those used mainly are: desks and benches which could be individual or dual units in the staff room, chairs and tables, book shelves, file cabinets, cupboards, sorting trays, while in their official residences, there should be furniture sets in the living and dinning rooms, wardrobe and bed in the bedroom and cupboards in the kitchen. While planning and making provision for the furniture items, there is the need to give adequate consideration to the age and sense of responsibility of the potential users. Other fixtures and fittings include window, curtains, electrical wiring and fittings, bulbs and fans.

The major category of the material resources consists of paper supplies and writing materials such as biro, ink, ink-bottle or ink pot, notebooks, pencil, ruler, workbooks e.t.c. In determining which of the materials are to be used, there is the need to give consideration to the type of work as well as grade, interest, and age or level of maturity. And apart from the resource items already mentioned above, an organisation in the present modern times, needs vehicle(s) for the movement of all members of the staff, typewriter(s), photocopier(s), and the necessary software to make all the hardware useful secretarial duties; as well as computer(s) essentially for storage of vital information. The availability and adequacy in quantity and quality of the material facilities make possible organisation's smooth operation.

3.2. Human Resources in Organisations

Organisations whether small or big, simple or complex, operate through and with people. These people who constitute human resources in the organization are the personnel, supporting staff including bursar, typists, attendants, clerks, messengers/mail- runners, gate-keepers, gardeners and cooks as well as managers and administrators. True to proponents of human capital theory, the accumulation of the physical capital alone makes little or no sense except if there are human begins with the necessary skills to make use of the money and machinery. All the big complexes will be of no value if there are no people to use them.

3.3. Maslow Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow developed a theory of personality that has influenced a number of different fields, including education. This wide influence is due in part to the high level of practicality of Maslow's theory. This theory accurately describes many realities of personal experiences. Many people find they can understand what Maslow says. They can recognize some features of their experience or behavior which is true and identifiable but which they have never put into words.

Maslow has set up a hierarchic theory of needs. All of his basic needs are instinctoid, equivalent of instincts in animals. Humans start with a very weak disposition that is then fashioned fully as the person grows. If the environment is right, people will grow straight and beautiful, actualizing the potentials they have inherited. If the environment is not "right" (and mostly it is not) they will not grow tall and straight and beautiful.

Maslow has set up a hierarchy of five levels of basic needs. Beyond these needs, higher levels of needs exist. These include needs for understanding, esthetic appreciation and purely spiritual needs. In the levels of the five basic needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied, nor the third until the second has been satisfied, and so on. Maslow's basic needs are as follows:

Physiological Needs

Man’s needs are organised in a series of levels – a hierarchy of importance. At the lowest level, but pre- eminent in importance when they are thwarted, are his physiological needs.

Man lives for bread alone, when there is no bread. Unless the circumstances are unusual, his needs for love, for status, for recognition are inoperative when his stomach has been empty for a while. But when he eats regularly and adequately, hunger ceases to be an important motivation. The same is true of the other physiological needs of man- for rest, exercise, shelter, protection from the elements.

Safety Needs

When the physiological needs are reasonably satisfied, needs at the next higher level begin to dominate man’s behaviour- to motivate him. These are called safety needs. They are need for protection against danger, threat, and deprivation. Some people mistakenly refer to these needs for security. However unless man is in a dependent relationship where he fears arbitrary deprivation, he does not demand security. The need is for the ‘fairest possible break’. When he is confident of this, he is more than willing to take risks. But when he feels threatened or dependent, his greatest need is for guarantees, for protection, for security.

Social Needs

When man’s physiological needs are satisfied and is no longer fearful about his physical welfare, his social needs become important motivator of his behaviour- needs for belonging, for association, for acceptance by his fellows, for giving and receiving friendship and love.

Management knows today of the existence of these needs but it often assumes quite wrongly that they represent a threat to the organisation. Many studies have demonstrated that the tightly knits, cohesive work group may, under proper conditions, be far more effective than an equal number separate individuals in achieving organisational goals.

Ego Needs

Above the social needs- in the sense that they do not become motivators until lower needs are reasonable satisfied- are the needs of greatest significance to management and to man himself. They are the egoistic needs and they are of two kinds:

1. Those needs that relates to ones self esteem- needs for self confidence- for independence, for achievement, for competence, for knowledge.
2. Those needs that relates to ones reputation- needs for status, for recognition, for appreciation, for the deserved respect for ones fellows.

Unlike the lower needs, these are rarely satisfied; man seeks indefinitely for more satisfaction of these needs once they become important to him.

But they do not appear in any significant way until psychological, safety, and social needs are all reasonably satisfied.

Self-Fulfillment Needs

Finally- a capstone, as it were, on the hierarchy of man's needs- there are what we may call the needs for self-fulfillment. These are the needs for realizing one's own potentialities, for continued self-development, for being creative in the broadest sense of that term.

It is clear that the condition of modern life give only limited opportunities for these relatively weak needs to obtain expression. The deprivation most people experience with respect to other-lower level divert their energies into the struggle to satisfy those needs, and the needs for self-fulfillment remain dormant.

4.0. Conclusion

There is a growing realization that the employee today is, indeed, a new breed. He appears to have different values, different needs, and different motivations than his predecessors. He is better educated, he is a product of the knowledge explosion, he is more aware politically, socially and economically, he is more demanding, he is less easily managed by traditional controls, also he is generally more sophisticated.

Managing the "new man" has become an increasingly difficult job. The once-proven incentives don't seem quite so effective. At least, they don't result in the spark of creativity and dedication to the job that management wants. One may say this behaviour is not a consequence of man's inherent nature only, but a consequence rather of the nature of industrial organisations, of management philosophy, policy and practice.

Man is a wanting animal – as soon as one of his needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is unending because it continues from birth to death.

5.0. Summary

An organization consists of three basic elements; this is men, money and materials (the three Ms). While the men is the anchor, the facilitator and the catalyst, the materials can be in various forms like the physical structures, the furniture and even the consumables. In order to acquire all these for effective organizational growth, financial resources is a needed. Therefore, the ability of a manager to effectively integrate the money and material needs to the organization together is what distinguishes one organization from the other.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercises

1. Explain the financial and material needs in organisations; and
2. Differentiate between physiological and psychological needs of humans in organisations.

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.. How do you think a manager can satisfy the various needs of his/her employees without compromising the goals of the organisation?

7.0. References/Further Readings

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MODULE FOUR
SCHOOL CLIMATE

Unit 1: The Concept of School Climate

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1.0. Introduction

Educators have recognized the importance of school for a hundred years. However, it was not until the 1950s that educators began to systematically study school climate. However, over the last two decades, there has been a growing appreciation that school climate, the quality and character of school life, fosters or undermines children's development, learning and achievement. It is difficult to provide a concise definition for school climate, as most researchers agree that it is a multidimensional construct. Thus, its definition has been viewed from many perspectives.

2.0. Objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. explain comprehensively the meaning of school climate;
2. identify the major characteristics/variables contained in the concept of school climate;
3. list and discuss with lucid examples, determinants of school climate;
4. justify why a school administrator must have a knowledge of school climate as a concept before being successful; and
5. enumerate the strategies that can be adopted to improve school climate.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Concept of School Climate

A number of different definitions that can be adduced for school climate are as follows:

1. National School Climate Council (NSCC) (2007) asserts that school environment vary greatly. Whereas some schools feel friendly, inviting, and supportive, others feel exclusionary, unwelcoming, and even unsafe. The feelings and attitudes that are elicited by a school's environment are referred to as school climate.
2. NSCC stresses further that, most researchers agree that school climate includes physical, social and academic dimensions.

   The physical dimensions include:

   - appearance of the school building and its classrooms;
   - school size and ratio of students to teachers in the classroom;
   - order and organization of classrooms in the school;
   - availability of resources; and
   - safety and comfort.

The social dimension includes:

- quality of interpersonal relationships between and among students, teachers and staff;
- equitable and fair treatment of students by teachers and staff;
- degree of competition and social comparison between students; and
- degree to which students, teachers and staff contribute to decision-making at the school.

The academic dimension includes:

- quality of instruction
- teachers' expectations for student achievement; and
- monitoring students' progress and promptly reporting results to students and parents.

3. To Litwin and Stringer (1968), school climate is the perceived subjective effects of the formal system, the informal style of managers, and other important environmental factors that impact on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organization.
4. Spencer, Pelote and Seymour (1998) define school climate to be the atmosphere of the workplace (school), including a complex mixture of norms, values, expectations, policies and procedures that influence individual and group patterns of behaviour.
5. Ashby and Krug (1998) view school climate as the totality of the school environment associated with attitudinal and effective dimensions of the teacher that influences performance.
6. To Ghaith (2003), school climate refers to the quality and character of school life. It is based on patterns of school life experiences and reflects norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching, learning and leadership practices, and organizational structures.
7. Hoy and Miskel (1987) view organizational/school climate as "the set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from

another and influence the behaviour of the people". They further submit that school climate is the end product of the school groups-students, teachers administrators as they work to balance the organizational and individual aspects of a social system.

8. Halpin and Croft (1963) posit that, "personality is to the individual what climate is to the organization". Similarly, Nevankwo (1979) refers to climate as "the we-feeling, group sub-culture or the interactive life of the school".

9. Anderson (1982) conducted a comprehensive review of research studies in the area of school climate and provided a summary of the variables that appeared to be tied to climate. Her categories and associated variables are listed below:

i. **Ecology Variables –** these include physical material variables in the school that are external to participants, such as building characteristics (e.g. cleanliness, lighting, equipment), school size and classroom size.

ii. **Millieu Variables –** these variables represent characteristics of individuals in the school, such as teacher characteristics (qualifications, years of experience), satisfaction, teacher morale and student morale.

iii. **Social System Variables –** these are variables that concern patterns or rules (formal and informal) of operating and interacting in the school, such as teachers' shared decision-making, students' involvement in decision-making, collegiality, and teacher – student relationships.

iv. **Cultural Variables –** these are variables that reflect norms, belief systems, and values of various groups within the school such as teacher commitment, peer norms, consensus, clear goals and discipline in school.

10. Marshall (2007) asserts that the elements that comprise schools' climate are extensive and complex. As a result, researchers have identified the following factors that influence school climate:

- number and quality of interactions between adults and students (Kupermine, Leadbeater and Blatt, 2001);
- students' and teachers' perception of their school environment, or the school's personality (Johnson, Johnson and Zimmerman, 1996);
- environmental factors (such as the physical buildings and classrooms, and materials used for instruction);
- academic performance (Johnson and Johnson, 1993);
- feelings of safeness and school size (Freigberg, 1998); and
- feelings of trust and respect for students and teachers (Manning and Saddlemire, 1996).

11. Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) refer to school climate as a set of attributes that can be perceived about an organization and/or its units and may be described by the practices, process, and ways of dealing with members of the unit and its environment.
12. Chamberlin (1971) sees organizational climate as "a subtle spirit that exists in a school, both in the minds of the teachers and students and in every act, which may never be exactly described or analyzed, but which an inexperienced observer recognizes when he enters a school".
13. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) viewed school climate as the enduring characteristics which describe a particular school, distinguish it from other schools, and influence the behaviour of teachers and students, and on the other hand as the "feel" which teachers and students have of that school.
14. To Silver (1983), the tone, ambience or atmosphere of an organization – the sense that a place has a quality uniquely its own, has come to be called the climate of the organization called school.
15. Furthermore, school climate is a relatively enduring quality of the entire school that is experienced by members, describes their collective perceptions of routine behaviour and affects their attitudes and behaviours in the school (Hoy and Miskel cited in Hoy

and Feldman, 1999).

16. To Haynes, Emmons and Ben-Avie (1997), school climate refers to the quality and consistency on interpersonal interactions within the school community that influence children's cognitive, social and psychological development.

From the arrays of definitions provided on school climate, the following four principles are considered fundamental in the field of school climate. These are that:

- School climate is an essential element of successful schools to promote student achievement, preparation for democratic life and preparation to be successful in the 21st century workplace;
- Comprehensive school climate assessment provides data that should be used as a springboard for community-wide understanding, school improvement planning and implementation efforts as well as accountability;
- School personnel, whether they are aware or not, are school climate leaders. Students, parents and communities leaders naturally follow their lead; and
- School climate evaluations need to be carried out with tools that have been developed in a scientifically sound manner.

Also, school climate is subjective because it is based on perception. Being so, some differences in the perceived climate of a school may be attributable to the differences among individuals. Thus, a school climate, as Herriegel and Slocum (1976) have observed, could

- vary somewhat by virtue of the particular individual doing the perceiving.
- the perceptions being sought are primarily macro rather than micro. The emphasis is on a department or an organization as a whole;
- the perceived attributes being sought are primarily those of the

organization or department rather than specific individuals; and

- differences in perceived organizational climates could have varying consequences for individual motivation, productivity, organizational innovation or change and the like.

3.2. Why is School Climate Important?

Research shows that school climate can affect many areas and people within schools. For example, a positive school climate has been associated with fewer behavioural and emotional problems for students (Kupermine et al, 1997). Additionally, specific research on school climate in high-risk urban environments indicates that a positive, supportive, and culturally conscious school climate can significantly shape the degree of academic success experienced by urban students (Haynes and Comer, 1993).

Furthermore, researches have found that positive school climate perceptions are protective factors for boys and may supply high-risk students with a supportive learning environment yielding healthy development, as well as preventing antisocial behaviour (Haynes, 1998; Kupermine et al, 1997).

School climate research suggests that positive interpersonal relationships and optimal learning opportunities for students in all demographic environments can increase achievement levels and reduce maladaptive behaviour (McEvoy and Welker, 2000).

Regarding the roles of teachers and administrators, Taylor and Tashakkor (1995) found that a positive school climate is associated with increased job satisfaction for school personnel. Also, providing a positive and supportive school climate for students is important for a smooth and easy transition to a new school (Freiberg, 1998).

In addition, school climate can play a significant role in providing a healthy and positive school atmosphere. Freiberg (1998) notes “the interaction of various schools and classroom climate factors can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels”.

It has been found that a positive school climate can yield positive educational and psychological outcomes for students and school personnel; similarly, a negative climate can prevent optimal learning and development (Kuperminc et al 2001; Kuperminc et al 1997).

Manning and Saddlemire (1996) assert that aspects of school climate, including “trust, respect, mutual obligation, and concern for other’s welfare can have powerful effects on educators’ and learners’ interpersonal relationships as well as learners’ academic achievement and overall school progress”. What children learn about themselves in school through interactions is equally important as the academic knowledge they receive. School climate, if positive, can provide an enriching environment, both for personal growth and academic success.

Increasingly, research is showing that perceptions of school climate also influence students’ behaviour and emotional problems. Behavioural problems are characterized by acting-out behaviours such as fighting, lying, and cheating. Unlike behavioural problems, which tend to be external and observable, emotional problems are more difficult to identify because of their internal nature but include anxiety, sadness, loneliness, hopelessness and worthlessness (Loukas, 2007).

One of the mechanisms that may explain how school climate affects individual outcomes is school connectedness. School connectedness is defined as students’ perceptions of belonging and closeness with others at the school. High quality school climates cultivate a connection to the school and in this way protects youths from negative outcomes. That is, quality of school climate impacts students' feelings of connectedness to the school, and in turn, the level of connectedness is directly predictive of how students behave and feel.

A sustainable, positive school climate fosters youth development and learning necessary for a productive, contributing and satisfying life in a democratic society. This climate includes norms, values and expectations that support peoples' feelings socially, emotionally and physically safe. People are engaged and respected. Students, families and educators work together to develop, live and contribute to a shared school vision.

In a similar vein, school climate promotes – or complicates – students' ability to learn and achieve academically. To the extent that students feel safe, cared for, appropriately supported and lovingly "pushed" to learn. Positive school climate is directly related to academic achievement (Brookover, et al, 1977).

A growing body of research attests to the profound impact features of school climate have on individual experience. Two aspects of school climate (commitment to school and positive feedback from teachers) have been shown to affect students' self-esteem (Hoge, et al, 1990).

School climate has a profound bearing on teacher education and retention. One of the most powerful statements on the connection between school climate and issues affecting teacher education is the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future's Induction into Learning Communities. This monograph defines school climate in terms of a learning community and correctly argues that induction, to be effective, must be induction into a healthy school climate.

In sum, there is a compelling body of research that underscores the importance of school climate. Positive school climate promotes student's learning, academic achievement, school success and healthy development, as well as effective risk prevention, positive youth development and increased teacher retention (Campbell, 2006).

3.3. Determinants of School Climate

There are several factors that can determine or influence the climate of an organization, such as the school. A number of these determinants highlighted by Peretomode (1991) include the following among others. These are:

1. The size and structure of the organization. An organization characterized by mechanistic structure i.e. one organized into strictly divided functional departments, with clear ranking of employees by title, may develop a climate characterized by rigidity, traditionalism, and an emphasis by the book procedure. Conversely, less mechanistic structures may result in flexible, innovative and informal climate;
2. The leadership pattern or style employed by the managers or educational administrators i.e. managers' attitudes and approaches to their subordinates;
3. The communication networks used to convey messages;
4. The goals or nature of the organization. We will expect naturally to find a different climate in a school from that in a funeral home or disco studio;
5. The complexity of the entire system;
6. Decision-making practices. Are subordinates involved in the decision-making process?
7. Concern for employees;
8. Technological adequacy. Are equipment and other resources available? Are they well managed and improved methods quickly adopted?

9. Motivation. Do employees of the organization work hard for both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and are they encouraged to do so by the organization?
10. The economic conditions of the organization. When the economic conditions are favourable, organizations 'relax' ad a general feeling of confidence is experienced by the employees. When economic conditions worsen, budgets become tighter and caution replaces confidence;
11. Organizational policy, whether written or implied, creates impressions and perceptions of the organization over a period of time;
12. Values. The values of the organization's managers' will, overtime, greatly affect organizational climate. As Gibson, et al (1977) point out, an organization that places a high value on the welfare of its employees, for example, will probably have higher-than-average pension, hospitalization and recreational facilities. Such an organization may develop a much warmer, friendlier climate than an organization which values these items less;
13. The characteristics of members, such as the average age of each, the proportion of female managers, the prevalent clothing style etc.;
14. Life stage of the organization. Younger organizations tend to have a less formal climate than their matured counterparts;

Following an extensive study of a public school as organization, Halpin and Croft (1963) identified eight climate factors:

a. the consideration management had for the personnel as people;
b. the emphasis that was placed on getting work done;
c. the emotional distance that existed between manager and subordinate;
d. the perception people had that their social needs were being satisfied;
e. the enjoyment they received from social relationships in the

organization;

f. the desire management showed, through task-oriented behaviour, to motivate the work force;

g. the perception people had regarding whether they were singly going through motions to complete a task; and

h. the feeling they had of being burdened with busy work (quoted in Hodgetts and Altman, 1979, p. 344).

3.4. Strategies for Improving School Climate

The following can be gleaned from the various ideas on school climate discussed in this chapter.

- School climate is grounded in peoples' experience of school life – socially, emotionally, ethically and civically as well as academically.
- Meaningful ongoing social, emotional, ethical and civic as well as cognitive learning by school administrators, teachers and other staff is foundational to effective and sustained school climate improvement efforts.
- Due to the complex nature of school climate problems that need to be addressed, school, home, community partnerships and educator mental health professional partnerships are essential.
- Effective school climate needs to be a central characteristic of school accountability and assessment systems.
- Relevant educational agencies have a responsibility to provide leadership for schools to understand the principles and characteristics of effective school climate.
- School climate needs to be an integral component of quality education system, practices and professional development, thus ensuring sustainability and leadership.
- Effective school climate does not happen in a vacuum, isolated from the community climate and support.

Furthermore, educators and parents have multiple options to enhance school climate and students' overall educational experience. The following is a list of possible interventions to improve school climate:

- increased parent and community involvement;
- implementation of character education or the promotion of fundamental moral values in children;
- use of violence-prevention and conflict-resolution curricula;
- peer mediation;
- prevention of acts of bullying (Peterson and Skiba, 2001).
- teachers and principals treat students fairly, equally and with respect;
- provide a safe environment for staff and students (Harris and Lowery, 2002); and
- personalization through adopt-a-kid program, honouring most-improved students, and block scheduling (Shore, 1995).

4.0. Conclusion

The term school climate is a multidimensional concept, and it is a complex and difficult term to have a single acceptable definition. The difficulty in having a consensus meaning is due to the fact that there are often a number of climate within an organization and that the climate of a school is a matter of impression. Notwithstanding these variations in definitions, the uncontestable fact is that the climate of any school poses a strong influence on the behaviour and performance of students, staff and school management. Thus, it is imperative to engender, maintain and sustain positive climates in schools if the goals set are to be realized maximally.

5.0. Summary

This chapter examined the concept school climate. It is seen that school climate connotes a set of physical and non-physical attributes that can be perceived about an organization and/or its units and may be described by the practices, processes and ways of dealing with members of the unit and its environment. It is also a set of properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the employees who work in the environment; and is assumed to be a major force influencing job behaviour. Determinants of school climate includes the leadership pattern, the communication networks, decision-making practices, technological adequacy, motivational incentives available and school policies, among others.

School climate is thus very important because it can affect the academic, emotional and psychological development of students, impact on the morale, behaviour and performance of staff and to a large extent determine the success or otherwise of any school.

To improve school climate, therefore, there is the need to increase parent and community involvement, use violence-prevention and conflict-resolution curricula, provide a safe environment and motivate staff, among others.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. How would you define school climate?
2. Why do you think the knowledge of school climate is important to a school administrator?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. What do you understand by the concept of school climate?
2. Why is it necessary for an educational administrator to have a knowledge of school climate?
3. Identify and discuss in details factors that determine school

climate.

4. Suggest, with vivid example how to improve school climate.
5. The prevailing school climate in Nigeria is nothing to write home about. Do you agree? Discuss.

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Unit 2: Measuring the School Climate

Table of contents

1.0. Introduction

A number of assessment instruments are available for examining student perceptions of school climate, they are: the Elementary and Middle School Climate Survey (Haynes, Emmons, and Comer, 1993), the Quality of School Life Scale (Epstein and Mc Partland, 1976) and the Elementary School Environment Scale (Sinclair, 1970). Schools may use these instruments they are, but may also modify them to create their own. It is important to note that no instrument assesses every aspect of school climate.

2.0. Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. describe the various instruments that can be used to measure school climate.

3.1. Assessing School Climate

How students, teachers and staff feel about their school climate underlies individual attitudes, behaviours and group norms. Schools that feel safe, for instance, foster high-quality relationships among students and teachers while decreasing the probability of violence. However, it is important to note that the climate of a school is not necessarily experienced in the same way by all of its members. Rather, there is variability in individual perceptions of a school's climate, and researchers propose that it is the subjective perception of the environment that influences individual student outcomes. Thus, if a student feels that a teacher does not care about him or her, this perception will impact the student's behaviour in the classroom. Moreover, individual characteristics may impact these perceptions so that students who are aggressive may perceive their school climate more negatively than those who are not.

Because of the importance of individual perceptions, schools often assess how students feel about their school. A number of assessment instruments are available for examining student perceptions of school climate, including the Elementary and Middle School Climate Survey (Haynes, Emmons, and Comer, 1993), the Quality of School Life Scale (Epstein and Mc Partland, 1976) and the Elementary School Environment Scale (Sinclair, 1970). Schools may use these instruments as is, but may also modify them to create their own. No instrument assesses every aspect of school climate.

Furthermore, some other researchers have developed measures of school climate. Examining these measures and the attributes specifically assessed provides further detail into the nature of school climate. Some of the instruments are:

3.2. The School Climate Survey

These assessments consider multiple factors and individuals within the school system using direct measures, such as surveys and interviews, and indirect measures, such as disciplinary and attendance records (Freiberg, 1998). The School Climate Survey contains seven dimensions of school climate and specifically assesses students' perceptions in the following areas:

- achievement motivation
- sharing of resources
- fairness
- student interpersonal relationships
- order and discipline
- student-teacher relationships
- parents' involvement (Haynes et al, 1993).

3.3. The Charles F. Kettering Ltd (CFK) School Climate Profile

This is also widely used to measure school climate. This survey is comprised of four sections and is given to teachers, administrators, and students. Part A, the General Climate Factors, is comprised of the following eight sub-scales:

- respect
- cohesiveness
- trust
- school renewal
- high morale
- caring
- opportunity for input

- continuous academic and social growth (Johnson et al, 1996; Johnson and Johnson, 1993, 1997).

3.4. Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) by Halpin and Croft

The technique developed by Halpin and Croft is probably the most popular and most widely used of the methods of measuring the organizational climate in schools. Halpin and Croft (1963) conceived of the social climate of an organization as a blend of two important dimensions of interpersonal interaction. In the light of this reasoning, they conceived of the social climate of school s a blend of (a) the principals' leadership; and (b) the teachers' interaction. The instrument which Halpin and Croft developed is referred to as the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ).

The instrument comprises eight subsets, four of which focus on teacher behaviour as perceived by the teachers and four on the behaviour of the principal, again as they are perceived by the teachers. Usually, the OCDQ is administered to all the teachers of each school, with each teacher asked to describe the extent to which every statement characterizes his or her school by ticking or circling one of the responses to each item scaled along a four-point Likert scale. Various combinations of emphasis on each of the subjects, as perceived by the teachers responding to the instrument, reveal for the school a climate similarity score which determines the relative position of the school on the open-to-close continuum.

3.5. School Climate as Organizational Health by Miles (1965)

Miles (1965) proposes the concept of organizational health as an approach to understanding the prevailing flavour, attitude, sentiment and orientation of a given school. This approach is similar to but is broader than that developed by Halpin and Croft. However, Miles identified ten dimensions which he believes, constitute the healthy school. These are:

- Good focus
- Communication adequacy
- Optimal power equalization
- Resource utilization
- Cohesiveness
- Morale
- Innovativeness
- Autonomy
- Adaptation
- Problem-solving adequacy

3.6. Stern School Climate: The Need Press Framework

Another important measure or instrument for assessing school climate is the need-press framework (the theory of climate as a social press) developed by Stern (1970, 1971). Stern's approach is an extension of earlier formulations in the field of psychology by psychologists such as Murray (1938) and Lewin (1935). Lewin developed a theory of human action in which he considered human behaviour as the dynamic interplay of two groups of forces those within the individual and those form the environment.

In his book "A Dynamic Theory of Personality" published in 1935, Lewin put forward his classic formulation that Behaviour (B) is a function (f) of the interaction between personality (P) and the environment. This idea is usually expressed by the following formula:

B = f (P x E), where B = Behaviour, F = Formulation, P = Personality and E = Environment.

According to Silver (1983), Murray (1938) interpreted the Lewinian concept of internal and external forces as needs and press respectively.

He identified a set of 300 basic psychological needs (internal forces) that individuals strive to achieve. To Murray, there are environmental counterparts (external forces) to the internalized needs. These external or social forces he called 'environment presses'. Murray postulated that behaviour in an organization is a function of the dynamic interplay between the psychological needs and the analogous dimensions of environmental press. He identified 30 forces. An understanding of the 30 needs-press definitions is vital because they provide the foundation of the framework on school climate by Stern and Steinhoff.

Stern (1958, 1962a) developed a psychological test (instrument) called the Activist Index which measures Murray's 30 individual or psychological needs. The instrument consists of 300 items representing 30 scales. Stern subsequently developed the "Organizational Climate Index" (OCI) to measure organizational press in public schools and other organizations. Teachers are expected to respond True or False to the items according to the conditions in their schools. The individual scores within each organization are then combined to yield average scale scores for each organization in the sample. These scores can be subjected to factor analysis in order to identify clusters of closely related scales. The factor analyses of scale scores of the OCI data from public schools have often yielded six-first order factors – intellectual climate, achievement standards, practicalness, supportiveness, orderliness and impulse control – each of which includes several scales from the 30-scale instrument.

Further scales have been created assessing issues such as security maintenance, administration, guidance, student activities and teacher-principal interactions (Hanna, 1998). Additional measures include the Comprehensive Assessment of School Environments (Keefe and Kelley, 1990), the Organizational Climate Index (Hoy, Smith and Sweetland, 2002).

4.0. Conclusion

The various instruments discussed above can be used to measure the different variables that are associated with school climate. Although each of them measures different variables, they can be adapted to suit any need.

5.0. Summary

Determinants of school climate include the leadership pattern, the communication networks, decision-making practices, technological adequacy, motivational incentives available and school policies, among others. All these are embedded in the various instruments discussed in the unit.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Of all the instruments for measuring school climate, which one do you think is appropriate for the university system and why?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Identity various instruments designed to measure organizational climate and discuss in details those designed by Halpin & Croft, Miles and Stern.
2. Discuss the seven dimensions of school climate as highlighted by Haynes's School Climate Survey.

7.0. References/Further Readings

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Unit 3: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration (I)

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

Administration deals with mobilizing the efforts of people towards the achievement of a common goal. The real purpose of administration in any organization is that of coordinating and harmonizing the efforts of people towards the achievement and realization of the targeted goals. In the education systems, the organization is mainly school systems and ministries. Nevertheless, there exists several challenging problems and issues in school administration.

2.0. Objectives

The objective is to unravel the current problems and issues involved in school administration such as to empower the stakeholders with the knowledge which is power.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Authority and Responsibilities of School Heads

In school, the targeted goals are teaching and learning. This[1] means that all the activities of the administration should contribute to this end, whether the administrator is dealing with the staff (Teacher and other non-teaching staff), parents, school board, ministry of education staff or even the entire public. Every good school administrator has diverse responsibility towards academic excellence. These includes, students disciplines and welfare, enrolment of students, staff recruitment and discipline, training of teachers, curriculum and teaching, facilities and structure etc. The school administration job boarders on students, staff, curriculum, and infrastructures. Essentially for a school administrators to be efficient, some basic skills must have been acquired. Technical skills, human skills must have been acquired. Technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills have been identified as the basic skills for effective school administration (Kats, 1955). Technical skill refers to the proficiency or ability to use the tools, methods, processes, procedures and technique of a specialized field (such as education, accounting, engineering) to perform specific tasks. Human skill refers to interpersonal skills, it is the school administrator's ability to work effectively with, and through other people on a one-to-one basis and in a group setting. Understanding of one's self, group dynamics and motivational principles are essential. Lastly conceptual skills refer to knowledge, wealth of cognitive and organized information. It involves the mental ability to coordinate and integrate the entire interests and activities of the organization and more importantly the ability to apply information and concepts to practice. It is also the ability to understand and integrate the various parts of a school system into one whole (Victor F. Peretomode, 1992).

3.2. Functions of the School Administration

Harmonizing several studies on identifying the major activities of the school administrator, seven broad categories of administrative task areas of the school administrator have been identified (Gorton, 1983). These include:

1. **Pupil personnel:** There is need to provide health services, welfare services, guidance and counseling services, extracurricular programmes, handle disciplinary cases, ensure continuous assessment is conducted, institute procedures for orientation of pupils, establish pupils safety policies within school premises and even institute school attendance policies.

2. **Staff personnel: The school head has responsibility of partaking in formulation of staff personnel** policies recruitment of staff personnel, scheduling teachers assignments, communicating to all staff, observing and supervising teachers in the classroom, resolving teacher conflicts, diagnosing teacher strengths and weakness, evaluating and improving teacher performance, coordinating and motivating teachers, keeping staff records, disciplining staff, training staff, promoting staff and cultivating healthy relationships.

3. **Community-school relationship:** The administrator needs to confer with parent and community agencies, handle their complaints and participate in community development programs.

4. **Instruction and curriculum development:** They help to develop curriculum objective, curriculum content and its arrangement. School administrators also help to harmonize the curriculum with the available time, personnel, physical facilities and other resources. They ensure provision of material and equipments for instructions, and also ensure proper supervision of instruction.

5. **School finance and business management:** The school head prepares the budget, ensures an internal accounting system, administer school purchases, keep records of all monies generated and spent, account for school properties and ensures all sections of school system operates effectively.

6. **School Plant:** The head determines the plant needs of the community, develops comprehensive plan for orderly maintenance operation and improvement of school plant.

7. **General and sundry tasks:** The overall peaceful running of the school depends on the school heads administrative skills. He or she organizes and conducts meetings when relevant, solve delicate interpersonal issues, publicize the school, attends school functions (sports, competitions, quizzes, assemblies and parties), respond to correspondence, reports to local and district boards attend principals or school heads meetings, schedule school programs and keep all school records.

3.3. Problems and Issues in School Administration

Taking a colossal look at the various functions of the school administrator, one can simple decipher the commonest and inherent problems of school administration which cuts across their functions. Amongst these several problems are:

1. **Funding issues:** At a certain era in Nigerian history, education was fully funded at all levels by the government. Presently, the case has become tougher since government is steadily declining and forcing students to pay their education fees. University education is subsidized with government subsidy dwindling yearly. Secondary education is the sole responsibility of parents who has to pay the fees of their wards while government pays teachers' salaries. Primary education is applauded to be free yet pupils are constantly being levied for practical, books and even for admission. On a general note, the Nigerian government has never met up with the recommended minimum budget allocation of 26% of the entire budget to education as recommended by UNESCO. This results in minimal and insufficient resources being given to the school administrator to use and run numerous tasks awaiting them. Inadequate funding remains a re-current issue in the entire educational system.

2. **Student violence & disciplinary Problems:** "No matter where you are, parents want their student to be safe and secure...that might even precede a quality education., with drugs and guns on the rise in many communities, the threat of violence weighs heavily on most principals' minds these days...anyone who thinks they are not vulnerable is really naive" [principal Micheal Durso, spring book high school, as quoted in Washington magazine, September, 1997 as cited in national center for education statistics (NCES, 1998)]. Amongst the several current problems and issues relating to students personnel are; violence, riots, cultism, exam malpractice, drug abuse, and sex abuse and morality problems.

   On violence issues, John Adgren was arraigned as an adult on a change of first degree murder in the fatal stabbing of 15 years old James Alanson of Sudbury, an affluent town about 17 miles from Boston Moments after the stabling the murderer said to the police "I did it, I did it", is he okay? I don't want him to die" he told them. This is a result of a fight that broke out between the two boys in a school bathroom and spilled out into the hallway, where the stabling occurred (Framingham, Mass, 2007). Obviously, the administrator of school needs strength of character and a certain degree of professional skills to handle the assorted types of disciplinary cases arising in the schools. Adolescent girl of about 15 years was impregnated by adolescent boy of 17 years within their school. The parent of the said girl threatened and arrested both the principal, form teacher and the boy who impregnated the girl. The case was arraigned in court and later settled. The principal and form teacher were sacked for inability to "kill" the case at budding stage and for dragging the schools' good name to the mud.

3. **Teacher and Staffing Problems:** School heads most often carters for teacher and staff recruitment, job allocation and supervision, monitoring of attendance, training, retraining, punishing and sacking defaulters and ensuring teacher retention. All these are not problem-free. When staff is dissatisfied with the school policies it is the school administrator that bears the blunt. At times teacher attrition rate get high, the staff a times goes on strike or stages a protest. It is the school head that most find a way of harmonizing things to ensure smooth school running. Occasionally, cases of teachers forming gangs and factors to foment troubles occur. It is only a very skillful administrator that will stand tall in the face of any turbulence to weather the storms.

4. **Issue of modern technological development and updates:** This era of globalization is constantly introducing an endless inventions into the world, and consequently into every sector of the economy. In education sector, technologies such as T.V. Radio, multimedia, projectors, computer and internet facilities have tremendous effect on knowledge and information

irrespective of geographical considerations. This had led to knowledge explosion. Most schools are therefore forced constantly to adopt and adapt the endlessly emerging technologies. The school head must keep abreast of modern technologies, must acquire the latest skills so as to be able to lead properly. The challenge is the integration of these even recurrent technologies into the school system in the face of direct and indirect opposition and resistance which naturally accompanies issues of innovation acceptance.

1. **Enrolment and accommodation problem:** Due to the constant excess students' enrolments in the Nigerian educational institutions, the lecture rooms, classrooms, laboratories, libraries, recreation facilities and even hostels are usually over crowded and insufficient. Overcrowding of students also indirectly rubs off on the teacher who also has limited staff room and residential accommodation. This off course militates against meaningful and effective teaching and learning. Consequently, productivity is low and restlessness is high, all amounting to the enormous challenges confronting the school administrators.

2. **Unstable curriculum and subject syllabuses:** The ever changing societal needs and government various policies is compelling schools to constantly change curriculum and syllabus just to meet up, even with the requirements of diverse sorts of exam bodies. The school head is faced with this challenge of adapting to the ever changing curriculum.

3. **Constantly changing education policy:** The incessant and abrupt change in basic educational policies such as those bordering on admission, structure of school system, financing education, staff recruitments, school calendar and even curriculum consequently leads to certain level of chaos in

the school system. Currently is the issue of 6-3-3-4 and basic education. The administration is saddled with the onerous task of sorting it out.

4. **Lack of equipment:** Most new government policies require procurement of new equipment and facilities. To procure new and modern educational gadgets requires good funding. It require not just buying them, but installations, building adequate workshops to handle and manage them. Most Nigerian schools have neither workshops nor equipment. Even when these are available, there is no electricity to power gadgets. The school heads are faced with this challenge (Bello, 2003).

5. **Constant social changes:** The role of school system is to preserve, transmit and promote norms, belief and culture of a people. But the culture of a society is constantly being influenced by the inevitable societal changes, which consequently affect individual's role, expectations, values and operations in school system. For school to prove their ability to carter for their responsibilities, they have to display social relevance and adequacy. One fundamental problem of a school administrator therefore is to identify and select amongst the multi-faced-Nigerians culture, what to promote.

9. Reduction in school heads authority: Some recent policies tend to reduce the school heads authorities. For instance, abolition of entrance examination removes the principal's right to choose whom to admit, hence students are simply imposed on schools. The principal has no 'say' on whom to admit. Obviously the psychological effect on the principal might be hazardous and terrorizing. The principals and headmasters are soon becoming a more figure head, who has neither real authority nor power to effectively perform its task. Parents and even student has physically assaulted school head and teachers because they are mere figure heads.

4.0. Conclusion

'Knowledge' they say is 'power'. Having unraveled the diverse problems and issues facing school administration for, it is pertinent that school leaders be armed with administrative, leadership principles and skills so as to be able to tackle and surmount the numerous problems.

5.0. Summary

Schools heads should be well poised so as to surmount most of the problems and issues facing them during school administration. School effectiveness is ensured when these problems and issues are competently and tactfully harnessed.

5.1. Self-Assessment Exercises

1. Outline the major functions performed by a school administrator.
2. What are the problems confronting school administration in Nigeria?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Enumerate the functions of school administrator.
2. Explain the current problems and issues in school administration.

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Unit 4: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration: The Meneace Of Examination Malpractices

Table of Contents

1.0. Introduction

One serious unintended issue tangential and detrimental to certification process of qualitative education, is the hydra headed examination malpractice has been nurtured as an integral part of our educational system. This has led our educational system to stumble, wobble and tumble and all attempts at this point to combat the meneace has not yielded the intended result.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. define examination malpractices;
b. mention and explain the various forms of examination malpractices; and
c. suggest ways of combating the meneace.

3.0. Main Content

3.1. Meaning of Examination Malpractice

Examination malpractice has been variously defined in Nigeria, depending on one's experience and standpoint. One major reason for this is because examination malpractice is an evil practice of many colours, which can present itself in several highbred mutative appearances. For example, Imandojemu (2000) believes that the word examination malpractice is a moral disease, which manifest in attitude and therefore can be used interchangeably with the word dishonesty, which simply means destitution in integrity. This he asserts leads to activities constituting dishonest practices in public examinations which include any irregular behaviour exhibited by candidates or anybody charged with the conduct of examination in or outside the examination hall, before, during or after such examination. Other schools of thought see examination malpractice as an act or acts of wrong doing carried out by a candidate or group of candidates or any other persons with the intention to cheat or gain unfair advantage in an examination. From the foregoing, examination malpractice is a dishonest act used as a means to obtain in an examination a score or set of scores that is normally beyond the mental capability or the state of preparedness of a candidate for that examination. The unusual means may vary from subtle primordial, simple and unsophisticated from such as spying and giraffing in which those caught got instant sanctions imposed on them, to confrontational means e.g. when the invigilator or other examination officials are coerced into submission to compromise the integrity of an examination, knowing the danger of not cooperating. Despite concerted efforts by governments, administrators and managers of public examination to alleviated this social plague, it has continued to defy solutions. It is very difficult for any public examination to be conducted nowadays without cases of examination malpractices and this ugly trend has greatly embarrassed not only the examination bodies, but also governments in terms of unnecessary government spending to reduce or eliminate the problems associated with examination malpractices.

3.2. Forms of Examination Malpractice

Many authors and writers on the subject have attempted to discuss the different faces of examination malpractice or irregularities in Nigeria by using action verbs to describe the dishonest behaviours of candidates when carrying out malpractice while others have used categorization by period and time. For example, while some may prefer to use words like Tatoo, Bullet, String and Pull, girraffing etc, to describe the action of candidates while cheating, others categorized by using periods and time they occur. However, examination malpractice or irregularities can be categorized mainly into three in terms of: the period and time they occur, namely, pre-examination malpractice, during examination malpractices, post examination malpractices.

1. Pre-Examination Irregularities/Malpractice

(a) ***Leakages:*** This is considered to be the most deadly of all forms of irregularities or malpractice in terms of the irreparable damage it can cause to examination system. Leakages can be intentional through those connected with the printing of question papers, packaging of question papers, item writers, custodians, supervisors etc. they could also be unintentional through carelessness on the part of those officials responsible for the packaging of question papers, that is, packaging of one subject/paper inside the envelop meant for another.

(b) ***Deliberate falsification of Entry documents by candidates:*** Making additions to the list of subjects on the authenticated admission notice cards in order to sit for papers not registered for.

This is usually carried out by candidates and in some cases with the connivance of principals, class teachers invigilators etc.

(c) ***Multiple Registration:*** This occurs when the same candidate makes two or more different entries for the same examination simultaneously, that is, multiple registration for and attendance at examination in which two candidates write an examination and at the end only one of them, the apparently 'superior candidate' submits the answer booklet whereas the genuine candidate would usually do the examination haphazardly or may even turn in blank examination script. This is done mainly by candidates with the help of examination officials and principals.

2 Irregularities/Malpractice During Examination

These forms of malpractice can feature in the following ways:

(a) ***Impersonation:*** This happens when the legitimate candidate schemes himself or herself out of the examination for an apparently 'superior candidate' to write the examination on preciously agreed term. It may also involves the candidate having to change the photograph at the onset of completing the entry documents for the examination or outright failure to produce identification for the examination.

(b) ***Thuggery, hooliganism and physical assault:*** These constitute the confrontational means of perpetrating examination malpractice e.g. the use of guns, knives, and horse whips in the examination hall to intimidate examination personnel by causing stampede so as to create an enabling environment for examination malpractice.

(c) ***Use of Mercenaries and Delay in the commencement of examination:*** Intentional delay in the commencement of examination to allow 'mercenaries' work out answers to questions for some special candidates who may have conclude arrangement with the principal and /or the supervisor, to that effect.

(d) ***Spying or giraffing:*** Candidate(s) stretching beyond normal sitting space to copy from another candidate, a practice referred to as 'giraffing' because of the rubber necking involved.

(e) ***Bringing to the examination hall prohibited material:*** Such as computerized calculators, in which mathematical formular and short notes are stored, for use during examination. Some even indulge in illegal carrying of materials called 'missile' or 'chukuli' relevant to the examination into the examination hall.

(f) ***Illegal inter-group communications:*** e.g. exchange of question papers and/or relevant materials in the examination hall; organized unauthorized communications. E.g. used of signs, gesticulation, bell at intervals, whistles whispering, dictation, loud speakers, drums, mobile phone text, etc.

3. Post Examination Malpractices/Irregularities

Post examination malpractices or irregularities considered by the perpetrators to be the safest, surest and most reliable form of malpractices that are capable of achieving desired objectives. The agents commonly used here are examiners, computer operators, typist, subject officers, office clerks etc. it involves the use of various means-sex, gifts, money etc to buy over personnel of examination bodies as well as those connected with the marking and coordination of candidates' scripts and storing of scores etc.

This category of examination malpractice and irregularities include:

(a) Substituting a candidate's original scripts with a re-written one.

(b) Alteration of scores in favour of candidates. This can occur at various stages after examination:

(i) At marking centres when the examiners is transferring the score to the Examiners Mark Sheet (EMS).

(ii) At the marking centre or in the office by the subject officer.

(iii) By the computer operator before scanning.

(iv) Any other custodian of candidates' examination scores.

(d) ***Falsification of statement of Result/Certificate forgery:***

This can take the form of outright illegal printing of statement of result/certificate in which higher grades are now assigned or reflected through alteration of the original statement of result/certificate.

(d) ***Blocking:*** This is a relatively new vocabulary in the examination malpractice lexicon (the use of cash or kind or both by an examinee to influence an examiner to award an undeserved mark). This method is generally considered by candidates to be more convenient and less stressful as the possibilities of being caught in the act are far more remote than other methods. Occasional gifts, outright economics negotiation and dating are common modalities in blocking.

3.3. Agents/Sources of Examination Malpractice

Causes, sources and agents of public examination malpractices have been well researched by individuals and several examination bodies in Nigeria, including NABTEB, WAEC, NECO and JAMB. For example Imandojemu (2000) in his investigation and findings over the years revealed that the following are some of the causes of dishonesty:

1. Inadequate provision by government for the transition of candidates from one level to the next higher level of education, leading to bottle-neck screening and desperation of candidates.
2. The poor remuneration of teachers who comprise the bulk of

examination officials i.e. invigilators and supervisors of public examination making them more vulnerable to monetary and other forms of inducements.

3. Inadequate coverage of the syllabus content by candidates due to constant strike action by teachers arising from the poor condition of service particularly of science teachers.
4. Student's poor study habits and unpreparedness.
5. The fear of failure in the examination on the part of the candidates.
6. The craze for certificates, which can only be issued after passing the examinations.
7. The pressure on children by parents to pursue courses for which they have no aptitude.
8. The jobless and opportunist who take advantage of the situation to cash in on the students, through examination malpractice.
9. The temptations for some principals of schools to embrace examination malpractice in order to enhance the status or societal rating of their schools.
10. The policy of some State Ministries of Education which ties promotion of schools personnel to the success of their students in their final examination which trends to encourage, aid and abet malpractice.
11. The pressure on teachers who want to gain the favour of students.
12. The inordinate ambition of some people to get right quick.
13. The practice because of moral laxity in the society.
14. Over-crowded sitting arrangements in examination halls.
15. Poor government funding of schools.
16. Inadequate number of qualified teachers.
17. Extreme pressure on candidate due to the intensive competition for the few vacancies in job market.
18. The desire of parent even at any price to have their children in any choice universities, jobs or profession.
19. The infectious nature of malpractice particularly where they see

others do so and frequently get away with it.

20. Moral decadence in the society, resulting in giving honour to success irrespective of whether it was attained by fair or fowl means

3.4. How to Combat Examination Malpractices

Strategies toward curbing this widespread societal problem called "Examination Malpractice" include the following:

(a) ***Restructuring of Practical Questions that rewards actual learning:*** This involves restructuring the examinations ***in such a way that actual learning experiences are tested and rewarded especial for certification purposes***. The 50 percent weighting for practical work is an example. The practical questions can be sent to the candidates two or three weeks before the actual examination date. The would bring proficiency and performance, which will then reduce leakage and other malpractices.

(b) ***Highlighting individual performance:*** The use of criterion-referenced method of assessment, which highlights individual performance rather than relativity can go a long way in reducing examination malpractices. This in fact, encourages proficiency instead of unhealthy rivalry, which are usually associated with norm referenced practice or grading on the curve.

(c) ***Use of Aptitude test for selection:*** The use of Aptitude Test for the selection of students into different trades and professions to protect interest of candidates and guarantee success in chosen programme is another effective measure.

(d) ***Tripartite Monitoring:*** This can be carried out by governing council Members, officials of the State Ministries of Education and the officials of the various examination boards simultaneously. It is aimed at ensuring effective and efficient supervision, invigilation and custodianship in line with the prescribed rules and regulation.

(e) ***Introduction of Station Work:*** Effort should be made to introduce the use of station officers to compliment the efforts of the custodians in issuing question papers to receiving script from the supervisors. Experience has shown that bank officials are usually too busy and in most cases do not even crosscheck the question papers that the supervisors take away. This has made it possible for dishonest supervisors to go away with question papers that are not due for release.

(f) ***Sanctioning the affected schools and candidates:*** The full weight of the law and sanctions should be allowed to rest on offenders irrespective of whose ox is gored. This is because when shame, pain and imprisonment are meted out on the affected candidates or centres who aid and abet malpractice in public examinations, other bounds to be reformed. The sanctions may take the form of cancellation of the entire results of the school or of particular candidates depending on the nature of malpractices. Derecognition of schools/centres, blacklisting and sometimes court action have been used in the past.

(g) ***Appointment/Training of credible people as supervisors:*** To ensure the appointment of credible, reliable and trustworthy supervisors, the exercise should be collaboratively carried out by the various examination Board and State Ministries of Education, using civil servants mostly teachers and State Ministries of Education officials to form the bedrock of the Board's supervisors. Such teachers should be appointed based on the recommendation of their principal, the training of these officials should be done before the commencement of examinations, during which they are not only educated on the modified rules and regulations, but also on ways of detecting, combating, and preventing examination irregularities and malpractices. During this period, they should be properly briefed on the provisions of the 1999 examination malpractices decree which affects stakeholders in examination process when violated.

(h) ***Commendation*****:** This is positive combative strategy which can be introduced at various levels. The individuals, centres or schools seen as well-behaved and malpractice free should be commended and/or awarded prizes.

(i) ***Enlightenment Campaign:*** The various examination Boards should organize series of seminars and conferences where the consequences of examination malpractice on the individual, school centre, family and nation would be highlighted through the effective use of some renowned educationists in our society.

(j) ***Other Strategies:*** Other collaborative combative strategies with agencies and social partners against dishevelment include encouraging centres to establish guidance and counseling units to counsel their students on choice of career and study habits; improvement in the logistic of administering examinations, adequate publicity of rules and regulations to guide the conduct of the candidates during examinations; sound moral teaching and the sense of civil responsibility which should be inculcated into children at home, schools and the society at large; improvement on the condition of service for the educational sector to enhance greater dedication and commitment to duties which invariably will cause reduction of strike action by teachers; and setting an upper limit the school examination hall can accommodate which makes it difficult if not impossible for a centre to enroll candidates beyond this limit.

4.0. Conclusion

This paper comprehensively examines the meaning of examination malpractice, its forms, the incidence in NABTEB examinations, the perpetrators of the malpractice, the effect on educational system and concludes with combative strategies towards eradicating the monster. Whatever the case the struggle to reduce or eliminate this societal problem must continue sustainably and unabated.

5.0. Summary

In summary, various malpractices in public examinations have their roots in either one or a combination of the following:

(a) custodian of examination papers.

(b) supervisors and Invigilators at the centre.

(c) the printers of examination papers.

(d) wrong packages of examination papers.

(e) delay in commencing examinations.

(f) desperate candidate.

(g) the examiners who set and marks the papers

(h) others involved in administrative processes.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercise

How do you think the scourge of examination malpractices can be removed in Nigeria educational system?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assessment

a. Define examination malpractices;
b. Mention and explain the various forms of examination malpractices; and
c. Suggest ways of combating the meneace.

7.0. References/Further Reading

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Unit 5: Current Problems and Issues in School Administration: The Scourge of Brain Drain in the Nigerian Universities

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1.0. Introduction

In Nigeria Universities, the brain drain is already a scourge, a menace and a malady. It has become cancerous. Our talents have been pushed to foreign lands. Our intellectuals are enriching other nations, while our country is getting poorer by the day. Almost all the sectors are sickly and unproductive. The energy sector, the health and education sectors are worst hit. Brain drain scourge indeed is an emergent problem in Nigeria universities.

2.0. Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

a. define brain drain;
b. mention the two major classifications of brain drain;
c. explain at least 10 causes of brain drain; and
d. give practical ways by which the scourge of brain drain can be prevented.

3.0. Main Contents

3.1. Definitions of Brain Drain

The Chamber's Dictionary defines Brain drain as continuing loss of citizens of high intelligence and creativity through migration. The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary defines it as the movement of trained personnel from one country to another. Subsequent source defines it as the movement of large number of highly skilled professional people from countries where they were trained to other countries where they can earn more money. Mohammed (1997) defines brain drain as sudden and uncontrolled movements of highly trained, specialized university staff of our universities to foreign lands. More so, Myint (1968), says the term brain drain denotes the migration of scientist, academics, doctors, engineers and others with university training from one county to another. In the words of Adams (1968), brain drain is uncomplimentary and suggestive loss of vital resource, without compensation.

The inter-ministerial committee set up in the 70's defines brain drain as the loss to foreign countries (especially the developed countries of Western Europe, United Kingdom and United States of America) of Nigerians, be they technicians, executives, teachers, scholars scientist and professionals with middle and high level skills which are relevant to the process of development in Nigeria either now or in the future. Subsequently, the presidential committee on brain drain (1989), defines it as the departure of highly trained professionals, intellectuals, talents and specialists in any field of endeavor from a specific social context - be it in a country, an organization or an occupation as a result of frustration from poor or inadequate remuneration or from not having opportunities to fulfill professional aspirations in the given social context.

In a nutshell, brain drain is a world phenomenon, which means the flight of brains to other lands. It is the mass exodus of our skilled manpower from this country to other advanced countries with greener pastures. Nobel Laureate, Professor Wole Shoyinka defined brain drain as a fight of intellectual materials from the nation's shores. Brain drain can also be seen as the exodus of academic and highly skilled professionals from Nigerian Universities where academic is regarded unrewarding to a more rewarding job outside the country. Emeagwli (2003) said in the 19th century, which was an agricultural age, the U.S. economy needed strong hands to pick cotton, and the young and sturdy were forced into slavery. In the 21st century- the information age, brain drain is simply described as modern-day slavery. In other words, brain drain can be defined as a glorified and advanced form of slavery whereby the highly skilled and professionals are sifted, lured and enticed, with diverse forms of packages, from poor and developing nations to rich and developed nations.

3.2. Types of Brain Drain

Brain drain generally can be classified in two different ways namely:

1. Location- based classification; and
2. Time-based classification.

Classification Based On Location

Internal (Local):

This is the migration of professionals from a specific social context to another within the same country. A committee on brain drain in 1991 identified four different groups in the internal drain. They include: Nigerian Professionals who abandon their professions for more lucrative jobs in other sector or even for political appointments, totally unrelated to their trainings. Secondly, those who though are still physical in their field of training but are psychologically absent-minded. They expend much energy on other unrelated economic activities in order to augment their earning. Some lecturers combine teaching and research with business and political ventures. Thirdly, those young and talented Nigerians who due to prevalently low income and lack of employment prospect refused to be trained in specific professions such as nuclear physics and aeronautic engineering. Fourthly, those trained professionals who are not utilized or who are under–utilized due to the embargo on employment despite the need for their expertise.

External or International brain Drain:

This is the movement of highly trained personnel from under-developed nations to other developed nations where they obtain good satisfaction. The migration here is across the nations and not within a nation. The 1991 committee identified another four groups namely: Professional Personnel who were either trained in Nigeria or Abroad, and had been working in Nigeria, but later decide to leave for greener pasture in foreign countries. Secondly, the Nigerian-Foreign students who refuse to return after acquiring skills from foreign lands. Thirdly, the expatriate professionals who have been working in Nigeria but decide to return to their home countries and fourthly, the foreign-trained professionals who refuse to come to work in Nigeria no matter the fatness of the package.

Classification Based On Time

Temporal Brain Drain:

This has to do with Nigerians who prolonged their stay abroad beyond completion of their studies even when adequate award is given to acquire their needs.

Permanent brain drain: This refers to the set of Nigerians with permanent residence or adopted citizenship of host countries.

Professions Affected By Brain Drain

The presidential committee identified six fields of endavours mostly affected by intellectual brain drain. They include Medicine and related disciplines, Architectural Engineering, University and higher education teachers, Social sciences like economics, accounting and business administration, Natural science like physics, biology, mathematics and Athletics and sports.

3.3. Causes of Brain Drain in Nigerian Universities

An interplay of push and pull factors results in brain drain. The causes are quite numerous, they are explained as follow:

1. **Poor funding of education sector**

Table 1: Public spending on Education in Selected African Countries

Total Spending as a Percentage of Gross Nation Product (GNP)

Country	1980	1985	1990	1995	1996
Botswana	6.0	6.2	6.9	8.6	10.4
Ivory Coast	7.2	NA	7.7	5.2	5.0
Ghana	3.1	2.6	3.3	NA	NA
Kenya	6.8	6.4	7.1	6.8	6.6
Nigeria	6.4	1.2	1.0	0.9	NA
South Africa	6.0	6.5	6.8	7.9	NA

SOURCE: World Bank 1999, World Development Indicators

Table 1 indicates that educational spending in other African countries except Nigeria witnessed remarkable increase compared with the 1980 figures. Botswana increased their educational spending from 6.0 in 1980 to 10.4 in 1996; Ivory Coast from 72 in 1980 to 77 in 1990, Ghana from

31 in 1980 to 33 in 1995, Kenya from 6.0 in 1980 to 7.1 in 1995, South Africa from 6.0 in 1980 to 7.9 in 1995 while in Nigeria education spending rather nose-dive from 6.0 in 1980 to 1.2 in 1985 and, subsequently declined to a dismal 0.9 in 1995.

Table 2: Federal Budgetary Allocation to Education (1994 – 2001)

Year	Total Govt. Budget (₦bn)	Federal Allocation to Education	Allocation to Education as % of total budget
1994	110.0	8.655	7.83
1995	98.2	12.7229	12.96
1996	124.2	15.3	12.32
1997	188.0	21.8	11.59
1998	260.0	26.7	10.27
1999	249.0	27.710	11.12
2000	677.51	50.666	8.36
2001	894.2	626	7.00

Scource: ASUU (2004), The National Scholar p. 5

Table 2 shows that Federal allocation to education as a percentage of total budget fell down from 12.96 in 1995 (during the era of Abacha military rule) to 7.00 in 2001 (under the Obasanjo Civilian Administration). Note that the 2001 allocation to education represented only 19.5% of the 320 billion naira expended to purchase a presidential jet. This is far below the recommended 26% by UNESCO. (ASUU, 2004).

2. Vast Income Differentials and delay in Salary payments

The university dons are not well paid when compared with their counterparts in other sectors in Nigeria and worst still, when compared with other foreign countries. It is said that a doctor, lawyer, engineer architect or quantity surveyor can earn between $60,000 and $100,000 (N9million and N15million) per annum in foreign countries. Saudi Arabia and Kuwait pay as high as 800,000 pounds (N200million, using the rate of N250 per pound)

3. Lack of Job Security

The effects of low funding was stifling for university administrators, such that at university of Ibadan on December 10,1983, the university authority invited the staff unions to inform them of impending retrenchment of staff due purely to lack of funds. There was also the terrible incidence of ASUU strike that made a one-time military dictator to eject lecturers; this led to loss of job security by lecturers.

4. General Harsh Economic Climate

Inflation and other factors have so much devalued naira. A professional once lamented my take-home pack cannot even take me home. the interest rate is so high and discouraging. The average income earner in Nigeria cannot secure loans from banks due to lack of adequate collaterals being demanded by the banks.

5. Lack of Facilities, Equipment, and Materials for Work and Research

The nation's Ivory Towers house mundane equipment, outdated facilities, achaic laboratories, expired chemical and old books. There are no research facilities hence no job satisfaction.

6. Poor Employment Condition and Marginalization from Job Opportunities

It is obvious that Nigerians trained abroad, decide to settle there or are forced to do any type of job, rather than return to Nigeria to search endlessly for non-existenting jobs. Even when jobs are found, they hold no better conditions for future advancement. Partially, tribalism and marginalization is on the increase in Nigeria Labour Market. Foreign expatriates are preferred to Nigerian elites.

7. Political Instability

Since 1966, Nigeria has been known for incessant change of governments, some of which had been violent and inconclusive for steady economic growth. Nigerian economy is suffused with a very high rate of political instability. Most highly educated people prefer a quiet and peaceful life in an environment devoid of uncertainty.

8. Oil Recruitment and Repatriation Policy

Several Professionals trained abroad who would have ordinarily returned home have rather stayed back because our government agencies have not paid their home fares together with their family member and personal effects.

9. **Legal And administrative Constraints are More Relaxed in Advanced Countries than in Nigeria.**

The ease with which an individual (foreigner or Nigerian) is given legal and administrative support to be relocated in a new area for meaningful livelihood say in U.S.A is not the same in Nigeria. Some state government policies are very discriminating such that it can confine elite to his/her state of origin.

10. Lack of Security of Life and Property

There is a general threat to life and property. The crime rate is extremely high accruing from high unemployment rate. The hungry hoodlums and area boys must feed at all cost. They end up snatching from the rich. Injustice, inequity and intimidation pervade the Nigeria setting.

11. Adjustment Problem

This has forced a lot of Nigeria elites who manage to return home to rush back to foreign lands. At time, some of the returnees find it difficult to adjust into Nigerian setting. They may be unable to acquire a good house. At times even when they do, the general environment remains scaring to them.

12. Quest for Professionalism

The Nigerian climate and structure does not so much encourage and recognize professionalism as does the foreign nations.

13. Unfavorable and Substandard Organizational Structures

This is another frustrating factor that aids brain drain in Nigeria: The organisational structures are very poor, unrealistic, triballstic and unjust. In some cases, you see an illiterate bossing a skilled professional all in the name of favouritism and god-fatherism. This can be frustrating to a returnee.

14. Poor Leadership Style

This can directly and indirectly aid brain drain. The ideas of a leader are always reflected in the policies he makes. Some autocratic and Laisser-faire leaders frustrate and force people to run to genuine democratic regions. Leadership style is a correlate of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

15. Pursuit of Post Graduate Training Abroad

Generally, people have lost confidence in Nigerian educational system. People with postgraduate training abroad are offered the best employment while those equivalent or even higher training within Nigeria are left to play the second fiddle.

16. Poor Industrial Relations

This does drive millions of Nigerians to foreign countries. The relationship and level of interaction between the workers, union's managers and the society at large bears a direct effect on the feelings of the worker.

17. The Ivory Towers Itself

The vice chancellor, a government appointee, who is supposed to cushion the effect of government anomalies rather supports the course of government even when the lecturers are fighting a just course. The unhealthy cat and mouse relationship between the ASSU and government had been frustrating some intellectuals out of the country.

18. Bad Government Policies

Policies such as early retirement and poor pension package are known to have compelled some person to leave the shores of Nigeria. Several elites are retired at tender ages even when they are still vibrant, energetic and productive. They are compulsorily retired into frustration and idleness.

19. Unnecessary High Competition for Admission in the Ivory Towers.

Nigeria being a popular nation is yet unable to accommodate its entire eligible candidate in its ivory tower. Qualified candidates queue up for opportunity to upgrade their education. Some get frustrated and seek the same opportunity outside the shores.

20. The Wide Gap in Technology

Several emigrations were motivated by the large technological progress in the developed nations.

21. Excess Workload Assigned to the Academic Staff

There was a 100% increase in student intake between 1987 and 1991 without a commensurate expansion in other resources like teaching staff. This resulted in over laboring of the lecturers. They consequently get frustrated, abandon their post for a less tedious and higher pay jobs.

22. Constant Industrial Action

The incessant ASUU strike over government's indifference and stubborn refusal to execute their sealed agreement has frustrated several academicians into other fields of endeavour and into other foreign countries.

3.4. Effects of Brain Drain

These can either be positive or negative.

Positive Effects of Brain Drain

1. **Enhancement of Foreign Exchange Earnings for Economic growth:** The earning of foreign currencies like dollars and pound sterling by emigrants strengthens the Nigerian economy especially when they pay their hard earnings into home bank accounts. The irony of the matter though is that they prefer foreign bank accounts due to lack of confidence in Nigerian system. The emigrants remit the foreign exchange to relatives in the home country thereby strengthening the foreign exchange earning of the donor countries.

2. **Improvement of the standard of living:** Emigrants sojourns in a country where they earn high and enjoy improved standard of living and prolonged life span.

3. **Creation of employment opportunities:** Emigrants create opportunities for other qualified
Nigerians to serve their motherland.

4. **Technological transfers**: The emigrants are exposed to key and modern skills that will be beneficial to their home countries when they return. The irony is that most Nigerians refuse to return home due to poor and substandard quality of life in Nigeria.

5. **Improved Diplomatic relations:** Emigration of highly skilled personnel leads to a bilateral agreement between donor and receiver

countries. A friendship is established between the two countries that put each other in consideration during decision-making.

Negative Effects of Brain Drain

1. General decline in the numerical strength of high-level manpower is a resultant effect of brain drain.
2. Production of half-baked graduates due to the employment of unqualified persons to fill the vacuum created by the emigrants.
3. Wasteful expenses incurred by the government during the training periods of the emigrants
4. The few remnants in the university are seriously over utilized, over labored and stressed up.
5. The Nigerian resources are wasted on payment to the foreign expatriate employed in place of our highly skilled emigrants.
6. Reduction in the supply of needed professional skills within the country. It is a general knowledge that an individual emigrant takes with him his productivity and his earnings, from the moment he migrates.
7. The emigrant's level of patriotism and commitment to motherland automatically reduces.
8. The elites within Nigeria develop low motivation and cold feet towards work. They begin to compare themselves with their emigrant counterparts. They discover their improved life style and their morale to work is simply bastardized.
9. The technological development is in jeopardy because the high-level manpower needed to drive the engine of discoveries and technological know-how has been sold to foreign land.
10. Disruption of academic programmes, training of successive junior academic and professional personnel such as to make up for the vacuum being created.

11. Lots of psychological and social consequences occur when emigrants visit home, live ostentatious lifestyle due to exorbitant earnings. The non-migrants become jealous, develop inferiority complex and at times some vow to leave the shores of the nation such as to grab foreign currencies.
12. Brain drain cripples the nation's intellectual and cultural growth. It undermines their scientific advancement
13. Fall in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) due to the mass exodus of highly skilled manpower.
14. Reduction in the wealth of the nation since it is only human capital that can be converted into real wealth. The more the human capital deplete, the more the nation's financial capital also depletes.
16. The nation's leadership collapse further: Leadership is known to be a collective process. Brain drain reduces the collective brain power needed to fight corruption and mismanagement. This is why the Nigerian's Central Bank was robbed of $3billion dollars by a tyrannical president and yet the bank's governor neither went on hunger strike nor filed a lawsuit. The truth is that they lack the intellectual power to fight such enormous heap of corruption and theft.
17. Brain drain implies further loss of confidence in the Nigerian educational system since the best brains are working outside the country, the general notion is that the remnants are second class teachers.

3.5. Control of Brain Drain

The government, the private sectors, parents, other parastatals, and in fact everybody must join hands together to curb the evil menace of brain drain. Like cancer slowly eats up its victim and kills him, so does brain drain; it slowly kills and extincts a nation if uncontrolled. A nation eroded of its human capital cannot develop socially, financially, culturally, intellectually, technologically, religiously, emotionally, morally and otherwise. The control measures include:

1. Rehabilitation of broken down facilities and infrastructures for teaching-learning activities in our ivory towers. Government must rise up to the challenge.
2. Provision of adequate research facilities and incentives. Standard laboratories, libraries and books must be acquired.
3. Transformation of the Nigerian ethical and value system. The media must be involved here. The entire value system needs complete over hauling.
4. A comparative welfare package will attract the emigrant back home. the potential emigrant will have no reason to seek for greener pastures outside if the home country can offer him similar attraction.
5. Curbing down the rate of crime and violence will remove fear and anxiety from the returnees and give them sense of security.
6. Creating an enabling environment that will be conducive, warm and welcoming to all and sundry.
7. Adopting good leadership style that is not hostile and harsh to the populace.
8. Extensive creation of employment opportunities that can absorb all the graduates and even the returnees.
9. Political stability must be ensured. Genuine democracy must be pursued. People need to have confidence in the political structure of the nation for them to stay back at home.
10. Revitalization of the health sector is expedient such as to build faith into the people. They need to believe that Nigerian hospitals are capable of giving them a good health care.

11. Investment in technological system will be a boast. People will surely begin to rush back home when the technology gap is bridged.
12. Fairness and equity must be built into our legal system with immediate effect.
13. Government must get rid of all mundane policies and make such policies that will benefit the citizenry.
14. Government should endeavour to give 26% or at least minimum of 20% of its budgetary allocation to education, since that is UNESCO's recommendation.
15. The United Nations should impose 'migrant tax' on the receiving country. These taxes should be sent to the donor countries for development purposes.
16. There should be cordial and friendly relationship between the lecturers and the government.
17. Academic freedom and autonomy should be granted to the university.
18. International conferences, seminars and workshops to be sponsored by government, private bodies and even philanthropic organizations should be put in place to enlighten the citizens on various ways of improving their productivities.
19. Academics children education subsidies must be seriously improved upon.
20. There must be good roads, steady power supply and provision of human needs like good water, unpolluted water and food.
21. The banking sector must prove reliable such that people can have confidence in their ability to deliver. This will enable the emigrants to put their money in home banks.
22. Payment of education tax funds must be enforced such as to provide more funds for the upkeep of the universities.

23. Assorted means of internal fund generating schemes can be adopted by the university staff and parents. Merit awards should be created for outstanding performances like best teacher of the year and the best researcher of the year.
24. The academic staff should reduce strike actions since it makes people loose confidence in the federal universities. That is why parents either send their children abroad or to private schools. The lecturers should explore other means of making their grievances known.
25. Adequate challenges should be created for the intellectuals. Targets may be set, such that they work towards actualizing the target, thereby creating in them sense of fulfilment, achievement and actualisation.
26. Strategies for creating more opportunities for further studies must be created. Most times, people are denied the opportunity of furthering their education; they get frustrated and travel out.
27. There must be a court of human rights where the governed can challenge the government on its lapses. This will surely attract the intelligential back home.

4.0. Conclusion

On a general note, universities must be used as pivot research points. The Maslow's hierarchies of physiological, security, social, esteem and self-fulfillment needs must be met. When these fundamental issues are tackled, the brains will think twice before flying away. If a citizen realizes that his earning in his own country is just slightly less than what he would earn abroad, he would opt to stay at home. If he is happy and in touch with modern research and can apply new knowledge acquired through contacts made with his colleagues abroad and in collaboration with them, he would prefer his home environment to any foreign one into whose cultural and social settings he does not fit; Irrespective of the general notion that brain drain is on the decline, the truth is that the rate is still very high.

5.0. Summary

This unit examines the meaning of brain drain, its causes and the various ways by which the scourge can be reduced or prevented. The question is "must we always talk of reducing brain drain?" Can't we talk about reversing it? Nigerians must join forces together to reverse brain drain into brain gain. It is possible, and very expedient such as to eliminate brain drain syndrome from the list of emergent problems in Nigerian Universities.

5.1. Self Assessment Exercise

How do you think the scourge of brain drain can be prevented rather than reduced?

6.0. Tutor-Marked Assessment

a. How would you define brain drain?
b. Mention the two major classifications of brain drain and clearly explain their types.
c. Explain at least 10 causes of brain drain.
d. In what practical ways do you think the scourge of brain drain can be prevented.

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