# NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

## SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
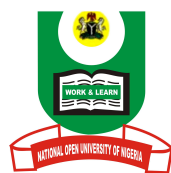
**COURSE CODE: PED410**

**COURSE TILE MANAGEMENT OF CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS**

**COURSE GUIDE**

**PED410
MANAGEMENT OF CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS**

Course Team          Dr. (Mrs.) F. N. Okeke (Developer/Writer) - ISU
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## Introduction

Welcome to PED410: Management of Childhood Institutions which is a two-credit unit course offered in the first semester to 400 level students of the undergraduate degree programme specialising in primary education. There are 14 study units in this course. There are no prerequisite for studying this course. It has been developed with appropriate local examples suitable for the Nigerian audience.

This course guide is for distance learners enrolled in B.Ed Primary Education Programme of the National Open University of Nigeria. This guide is one of the several resource tools available to help you successfully complete this course and ultimately your programme.

In this guide, you will find very useful information about this course: aims, objectives, what the course is about, what course materials you will be using; available services to support your learning; information on assignments and examination. It also offers time for study; the amount of time you are likely to spend on each study unit; your tutor-marked assignments.

I strongly recommend that you go through this course guide and complete the feedback form at the end before your study of the course. The feedback form must be submitted to your facilitator along with your first assignment. This guide also provides answers to several of your questions. However, do not hesitate to contact your study centre if you have further questions.

I wish you all the best in your learning experience and successful completion of this course.

## Course Aims

The aim of this course is to expose you to the rudiments in the management of childhood institutions.

## Course Objectives

There are objectives to be achieved in each study unit of the course. You should read them before studying each unit. On completion of this course you should be able to:

- explain major concepts in management of childhood institutions.
- identify and discuss theories of educational management and their evolution.

- apply theoretical framework in the management of childhood institutions as a social organisation
- discuss power, authority and leadership in primary education
- identify role of primary school system as an organisation
- describe motivation and communication and their relevance in effective management of childhood institutions.
- acquire the knowledge and skill in establishing childhood institutions
- apply relevant management laws in childhood institutions.

## Course Summary

Module 1 introduces you to the basic concepts of management of childhood institutions, theories and functions of education management.

Module 2 examines power, authority and leadership in childhood institutions, bases of leadership, role of primary school system as an organisation, and discipline and punishment in childhood schools.

Module 3 deals with motivation, communication, establishment of childhood institutions and management laws.

There are 14 study units in this course. Each study unit consists of one week's work and should take you about three hours to complete. It includes specific objectives, guidance for study, reading material, and self assessment exercises. Together with tutor-marked assignments, these exercises will assist you in achieving the stated learning objectives of the individual study units and of the course.

## Study Units

**Module 1**      **Introduction and Basic Concepts of Management of Childhood Institutions**

Unit 1        Basic Concept
Unit 2        Management of Childhood/Primary Institution
Unit 3        The Concept and Types of Organisation
Unit 4        Theories of Organisation
Unit 5        The School as a Social Organization

**Module 2**      **Power, Authority and Leadership in Primary Education**

Unit 1        Bases of Leader Power
Unit 2        Authority
Unit 3        Leadership

Unit 4       Role of Primary School System as an Organisation
Unit 5       Discipline and Punishment in Childhood Schools

**Module 3    Motivation, Communication and other Issues in Childhood Institutions and Management**

Unit 1       Motivation
Unit 2       Communication in Childhood Institution
Unit 3       Establishment of Childhood Institutions and Management
Unit 4       Management Laws in Childhood Institutions

**Textbooks and References**

Your course material is the main text for this course. However, you are encouraged to consult other sources as provided for you in the list references and further reading.

**Course Overview**

This table is a presentation of the course and how long it should take you to complete each study unit and accompanying assignments.

| Unit | Title of Study Unit | Weeks/ Activity | Assignment |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Course Guide | 1 | Course guide form |
| **Module 1      Introduction and Basic Concepts of Management of Childhood Institutions** | | | |
| 1 | Basic Concept | 2 | Assignment |
| 2 | Management of Childhood/Primary Institution | 3 | Assignment |
| 3 | The Concept and Types of Organisation | 4 | Assignment |
| 4 | Theories of Organisation | 5 | Assignment |
| 5 | The School as a Social Organisation | 6 | TMA 1 to be submitted |
| **Module 2      Power, Authority and Leadership in Primary Education** | | | |
| 1 | Bases of Leader Power | 7 | Assignment |
| 2 | Authority | 8 | Assignment |
| 3 | Leadership | 9 | TMA 2 to be submitted |
| 4 | Role of Primary School System as an Organisation | 10 | Assignment |
| 5 | Discipline and Punishment in Childhood Schools | 10 | TMA 3 to be submitted |

| Module 3 | | Motivation, Communication and other Issues in Childhood Institutions and Management | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Motivation | | 12 | Assignment |
| 2 | Communication in Childhood Institution | | 13 | Assignment |
| 3 | Establishment of Childhood Institutions and Management | | 14 | Assignment |
| 4 | Management Laws in Childhood Institutions | | 15 | TMA 4 to be submitted |
| | Revision | | 16 | |
| | Examination | | 17 | |
| | **Total** | | **17** | |

Study this overview and use it to plan your own timetable.

## How to Get the most from this Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecturer. The advantage is that you can read and work through the course materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suits you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to a lecturer. Just as a lecturer might give you in-class exercise, your study units provide exercises for you to do at appropriate times.

Each of the study units has common features which are designed to aid your learning. The first feature is an introduction to subject matter of the unit and how a particular unit is integrated with other units and the course as a whole. Next is a set of learning objectives. These objectives would let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the unit. You should use these objectives to guide your study.

When you have finished the unit, you should go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. Self assessment exercises are interspersed throughout each study unit and answers are given at the end of the course.

These exercises are designed to help you recall what you studied and to evaluate your learning by yourself. You should do each self assessment exercise as you come to it in the study unit. The summary at the end of each unit also helps you to recall all the main topics discussed in the main content of each unit. There are also tutor-marked questions at the end of each unit. Working on these questions will help you to achieve the objectives of the unit and prepare you for the assignments which you will submit at the final examination.

It should take you about three hours to complete a study unit, the exercises and assignments. When you have completed the first study unit, take note of how long it took you and use this information to draw up a timetable to guide your study for the rest of your course. The wide margins on the left and right side of the pages of your course book are meant for you to make notes of main ideas or key points at which you can use when revising the course. If you make use of all these features, you will significantly increase your chances of passing the course.

## Course Delivery

Courses taken by the distance learning delivery mode are characterised by provision of tutorial sessions, facilitation, and counselling support services.

## Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorial

In open and distance learning, tutorial sessions are designed to give you opportunity to have face-to-face contact with your teacher and with your peers.

There are 14 hours of tutorials provided in support of this course. You will be notified of the dates, time and location of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your facilitator, as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group. Your facilitator will mark and comment on your assignment, keep close watch on your progress on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You must mail your tutor-marked assignments to your facilitator well before the due date (at least two working days required). They will be marked by your facilitator and returned to you as soon as possible. Tutorial sessions are optional but you are seriously encouraged to participate in the sessions to minimise the effects of isolation.

Do not hesitate to contact your facilitator by telephone, email, or discussion board if you need help. The following might be circumstances in which you would find help necessary.

## Contact your facilitator if:

- You do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings.
- You have difficulty with the self-test or exercise.
- You have a question or problem with an assignment with your facilitator's comment on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment.

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face to face contact with your facilitator and to ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating in discussions actively.

## Summary

PED410 intends to introduce the concepts and theories of management of childhood institutions. Upon completion of this course, you will be equipped with the basic knowledge of the importance of management of childhood institutions. You will be able to answer these kinds of questions:

- What is management and education management?
- Identify childhood institutions?
- How do we explain the theories of management?
- How would you define childhood institution?
- How do we discuss the national policy on education in relation to early childhood institution?
- What are the strategies for effective management of childhood/primary institutions?
- How can we explain in details what the manager is expected to do in (i) Planning (ii) Organising
- What is an organisation?
- State the types of organisation?
- What are the theories of organisation?
- How do you distinguish between authority and power?
- What is leadership?
- What are theories of leadership?
- How can you apply leadership styles?
- What are the roles of primary school system as an organisation?
- How can we maintain discipline in childhood institutions?
- What is your opinion about the application of punishment in childhood institutions?
- How can you motivate teachers in your school as an administrator?
- What is communication?
- What is Information Communication Technology (ICT)?
- What are the organisational theories of motivation?
- What are the barriers to effective communication?
- In what ways can the government and private individual collaborate in the establishment of childhood institutions?

- In what additional ways can the school manager face the challenges of the future?

Be it known to you that the list of questions that you can answer is not limited to the above list. To gain the most from this course you should try to apply the concepts to your everyday life and practice of administration in your schools or organisations.

We hope you will enjoy your programme with the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). 100 per cent success awaits you.

Course Code         PED410
Course Title         Management of Childhood Institutions


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## MODULE 1 INTRODUCTION AND BASIC CONCEPT OF MANAGEMENT OF CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS

## UNIT 1     BASIC CONCEPTS

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0   INTRODUCTION

Education is the key, education is the pillar, and education is the cornerstone. It starts from the cradle and that is where the tap root is formed. Without effective education at the childhood level, the future is bleak.

Functional education in every human endeavour cannot be overlooked because it is seen as the cornerstone of every development. It forms the basis for literacy, skill acquisition, technological advancement as well as

the ability to harness the natural resources of the country for optimum productivity.

Educational institutions should be properly managed because according to Nwankwo in Emenike (2003) Management in Education aims at using both human and material resources available to educational system for the realisation of educational objectives. It is only when the objectives of education are realised that the gains of education will manifest. It is always maintained that for full development of an individual, education is the answer. In this unit the concept of management, childhood institutions, educational management versus educational administration, theories of management, principles, scope of school management as well as characteristics of a manager will be discussed for one to appreciate that management is not merely handling, but a way of life that needs in-depth coordination.

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- define management and educational management
- differentiate between educational management and educational administration
- identify childhood institutions
- discuss theories of management.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Meaning/Concept of Management, Educational Management and Childhood Institutions

### a.    Management

The term management in general usage implies the process by which a cooperative group directs actions towards common goals. Management viewed as a process is designed to ensure the cooperation, participation, intervention and involvement in the effective achievement of a given objective (Emenike, 2003). In its classical sense, management is being in charge or being in control (Babalola, 2006).

Management is the effective organisation and utilisation of the human and material resources in a particular system for the achievement of identified objectives. It has also been defined by (UNESCO, 1979 in Ogunu, 2000:1) as "a social process which is designed to ensure cooperation, participation, intervention and involvement of others in the effective achievement of given predetermined objectives".

According to Nte (2005) the word management developed from the classical verb having two seemingly distinct senses: to help, assist, or serve. The second usage means, to manage, direct or govern. Management is an all encompassing occupation existing since human beings first banded together in prehistoric times. The task of defining management is not easy. But in all, management influences results to be achieved. Management is the act of handling the affairs of an organisation like the school. In management, the manager gives assistance to teachers, pupils, students for effective achievement of school objectives. In order words, management is the coordination of school activities in order to achieve efficiency.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Can you identify some common features associated with management?

**b.     Educational Management**

Since management is being in charge or being in control, educational management is therefore being able to handle (carefully and not wastefully) what goes on in the process of educating people so that nothing goes out of hand (Babalola, 2006). Educational management is a concept that goes along with the quest to put formal education system under control, regulation or supervision. This is an attempt to use carefully, to manage or economise available scarce resources through cooperative efforts when establishing institutions of learning.

In addition, it involves enrolling learners, attracting good staff, conducting teaching/learning and research, as well as graduating learners at all levels of education in an effective and efficient manner. Educational management involves some planning down to evaluation, to ensure that things are under control,

Educational management is more than supervising. The word 'supervisor' comes from 'super' (over) and 'visor' (seer). This implies that a supervisor of education or an inspector of schools is an overseer. The job is to oversee or inspect and monitor one or more of educational standards, workloads, equipment, money, material, people (especially staff and students), educational technology and time, but a manager has a wider coverage. While the supervisor is mainly concerned with the present, the manager is often concerned with the past, present and the future. Amos (1996) maintained that "not only do the managers inspect and monitor things now; it is also usually their job to make predictions, to plan ahead, and to decide how things will change and develop. Educational management is all embracing and is synonymous with strategising, planning, organisation, running, governance, and

supervision of the entire process of teaching and learning that takes place at all levels of the formal education system.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

What does the concept educational management mean to you?

**c.**        **Childhood Institutions**

Kalu (1982) defined childhood as a state of being of a child, the time in which persons are children; the condition or time from infancy to puberty. ExcoCrew (2004-2008) also defined childhood as the state of a child between infancy and adolescence. According to Piagetian categorisation, childhood falls into the following stages of human growth and development.

- Pre-natal, 0 -Birth
- Infancy, birth – 2years
- Early childhood,  2 -5 years
- Middle childhood,  6 - 8years
- Late childhood, 9- 11years
- Adolescence, 12 - 18years

Two major institutions for socialisation are (i) the family and (2) the school. Here, an institution is defined as an established or organised society or corporation. It is an establishment consisting of a building or complex buildings where an organisation for the promotion of some cause is situated.

In another instance, ExoCrew (2008) viewed institution as an established or organised society or corporation. It is an established or organised society or corporation; an establishment, especially of a public character, or affecting a community; a foundation; a literary institution, a charitable institution; also a building or the buildings occupied or used by such organisation; as, the Smithsonian Institution. An organisation founded and united for a specific purpose.

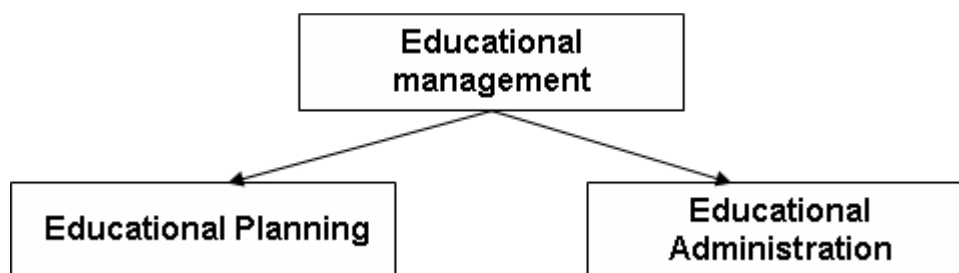## 3.2    Educational         Management         versus         Educational Administration

The terms educational administration and management have variously been used by authors either synonymously or distinctively. However, whereas it appears easier to define administration and management with appreciable distinction in education either of the terms invariably connotes more or less of the other (Oku, Emelalo & Okeke: 2008).

Suffice it to note that educational management as seen by Babalola (2006) is synonymous with strategising, planning and organising, running governance and supervision of the entire process of teaching and learning that takes place at all levels of the formal education system. It involves some planning, organising, staffing, directing, controlling, coordinating and budgeting. Therefore "the job of education manager is to plan, design, and implement an efficient and effective learning system, responsive to the need of the learner and the society" (Kaufman, 1972).

While noting the difficulty and risk of providing an all encompassing definition of concept, Okunamiri (2008) and Nte (2007) admitted that educational administration and educational management are terms used interchangeably. They therefore defined educational administration as "concerned with the bringing of human and material resources together for effective and functional teaching and learning in schools" and focusing on "procuring resources, articulated fragmented human efforts, optimising and maximising performance for the purposes of achieving educational goals.

Thus defined, Okunamiri (1998) maintained that the educational administrator whether in the ministry of education, the school board (system administration) or in the institution or school (institutional administration) is essentially an organiser and implementer of the plans, policies and programmes meant for specific educational objectives.

While attempting to distinguish between educational management and educational administration, Okeke (2008), states that educational management to an extent encompasses educational administration and planning. Thus put mathematically, educational administration + planning = educational management.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Analyse the dichotomy between educational management and educational administration.

### 3.2.1  Function of Educational Administration

As has been earlier stated, the function of school administration is basically that of implementation. Okunamiri, (2008) further stressed that if we generalise the term administration to include insiders (headmasters, assistant headmasters, principals, vice principals, heads of subjects) and outsiders (school administrators, director general/permanent secretaries, inspectors, supervisors), the functions of school administrators would include to a greater or lesser extent the following:

- Resource and programme planning and policy making
- Provision and maintenance of funds and facilities
- Obtaining and development of personnel
- Improvement of instructional programmes
- Student personal services and
- Maintenance of effective inter-relationships within the community and external agencies.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

From what you have read so far, what other functions can you include as the responsibilities of the education manager?

### 3.3    Theories of Educational Management and its Evolution

The systematic recording and reporting of management practice started in the 20$^{th}$ century. These arose as a result of challenges of planning, organising leading and controlling functions which became more serious with the emergence of industrial revolution particularly in the United Kingdom in the mid-1700s. Manufacturing shifted from household setting to factory setting as a result of the industrial revolution.

Robert Owen (1771-1858), a Scottish factory owner emphasised good working conditions, cooperation and tolerance for differences in the capabilities of workers.

Andrew Ure (1778-1857), also recognised the importance of human resources, by providing tea for workers at break, medical treatment, and payment to sick workers. The first person to propose a rational and systematic science of management was Henry R. Towne (1844-1924) in

his capacity as president of Yale and town manufacturing company in the United States of America.

In recent times, evolution of management theory and practice is presented by most scholars into four epochs namely:

- The classical or traditional school of management thought (1900 – 1930)
- Human Relations Movement (1930-1950)
- Behavioural Science Approach (1950)
- The Integrated or Situation Theories.

## 3.3.1  Classical Management Approach

The effort to resolve the critical problem of how to increase the efficiency and productivity of the work force gave rise to the study of modern management in the 20$^{th}$ century. This tremendous effort was termed the classical approach.

The implication of this approach to the educational system is that works have to be routinised and standardised in the ministries. Administrators of schools and teachers must also know the goals of the schools and aim to achieve them.

Teachers, pupils and workers in the education ministry need to be provided with necessary and up-to-date equipment in order to promote their works. Adequately equipped laboratories, books, visual aids, classrooms, desks, chairs, tables, other educational facilities have to be provided, and the entire educational personnel need to be well taken care of.

This approach to management can be best understood by examining it from two perspectives namely:

- Scientific Management Theory
- Classical organisation Theory

## 3.3.1.1 Scientific Management Theory (Fredric Winslow Taylor (1856-1915)

The birth of scientific management was credited to Fredric Winslow Taylor and he is also known as the father of scientific management. Medical problem and the prevailing American labour situation forced him to accept employment as a labourer with the Midvale Steel Company.

Following a phenomenal series of promotions, he became Chief Engineer at the age of 31 (Babalola & Atanda, 2006). Since Taylor's focus was to apply science to answer questions about efficiency, cooperation and motivation, his ideas could be summarised within the following headings:

- Management's principal objective should be to secure maximum prosperity for the employees
- The elimination of conflict among employees to avoid obstruction of productivity
- Developing a science of management, the scientific selection and development of human resources, and personal cooperation between management and workers
- Maximum specialisation of labour to make one a specialist and master of specific tasks to ensure increased efficiency
- The key to harmony lies in discovering the one best way to do a job, determine the optimum work pace, train people to do the job properly and reward successful performance by using an incentive pay system
- Managers should know what is expected of them and see the positive benefits of achieving mutual expectations as means of ensuring cooperation
- Managers should take a more systematic approach in performing their coordination function.

Scientific management theory has been criticised principally because of its failure to understand fully the psychological and sociological aspects of work. Its assumptions that people are motivated to work primarily for monetary gain, is seen as too simplistic in the world of today.

### 3.3.1.2 Classical Organisation Theory

Peretomode (1991) maintained that in the early 20th century when scientific management movement was developing, another school of management thought developed concurrently. This school has been referred to by several names:

- Universal Principles Movement or Process or Functions' School
- Functional School of Thought
- Administrative Movement School – the most popular

Though there seems to be an overlap between the scientific management theory and classical organisation theory, there is also a distinction between them. While scientific management ideas, as represented in Taylor's work, focused primarily on the operative level (individuals at the workshop level) from bottom of the organisation hierarchy upwards and ignored the larger top level issues, the classical organisational theorists looked for common or universal principles that characterised successful management.

Among prominent proponents of Universal Principles of Movements were:

- Henri Fayol (1841-1925)
- Luther Gulick (1892)
- Lyndall Urwick (1943)

**Henry Fayol (1841-1925)**

He was a French geologist and a mining engineer, an industrial executive and a teacher of administration. He is regarded as the father of modern operational management who began his working life at the age of 19. He spent his entire working life with the same company and rose to the rank of managing director at the age of 47. He retired after his 77th birthday. He was one of the most distinguished figures which Europe contributed to the management movement and he sought to systematise the whole of management. Fayol has been aptly referred to as the 'father' of what is called the 'Administrative Processes'. Fayol contradicted the pioneering work of Taylor that managers should never deal with workers in groups rather he believed that all industrial work could be divided into groups. In his work published in 1916, he argued that management is an indispensable element in the running of all business and non-business ventures. He asserted that principles of management are universal and thus felt that managers could benefit from his practical managerial experience using the principles of planning, forecasting and setting of appropriate structure for coordinating, controlling and leading. He also felt that a manager should have enough authority to discharge his duties, and contrary to Taylor's submission, that each worker should have only one boss to avoid conflicting demands on him. Fayol identified the six key activities of an industrial undertaking as:

- Technical activities e.g. production
- Commercial activities e.g. buying and selling
- Financial activities e.g. securing capital
- Security activities e.g. safeguarding property
- Accounting activities e.g. providing financial information

Managerial activities e.g. planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

These managerial activities are given explanation:

1.    **Planning:** Attempts to study or forecast the future and assist in the decision-making process and in the direction of the organisation.
2.    **Organising:** Establishing the organisation's structure of authority, responsibility, tasks and building up both human and material resources of the organisation.
3.    **Commanding:** Means directing of subordinates and making the staff do their work.
4.    **Coordinating:** All efforts need to unite, harmonise and correlate all activities of the organisation in order to achieve a common goal.
5.    **Controlling:** Ensuring that everything is done in accordance with established rules and expressed command.

This classification is still useful till today.

Henri Fayol was also among the first to formulate a universal list of good management principles as a guide to management actions. Henri Fayol introduced 14 principles and they are referred to as the classical principles of management. They include:

1.    Division of work based on specialisation
2.    Parity of authority and responsibility
3.    Discipline
4.    Unity of command
5.    Unity of direction
6.    Subordination of individual interest to common goal
7.    Remuneration
8.    Centralisation
9.    Scalar chain
10.   Order
11.   Equity
12.   Stability of personnel
13.   Initiative
14.   Espirit de corps

**Division of work according to specialization**

- Those jobs should be broken into smaller parts.
- Individuals are to work on only a limited number of parts.
- According to specialisation.

- The manager should give an employee a specialised, separate activity to carry out.

**Parity of authority and responsibility**

- Authority according to Fayol is the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience.
- That employee's responsibility should be commensurate with the authority.

**Discipline**

- This is an outward mark of respect in accordance with formal and informal agreements between a firm and its employees.
- Objectives, rules, regulations, policies and procedures must be obeyed by each member of the organisation.
- Discipline is important because no organisation can perform effectively or work smoothly without discipline, preferably self-discipline.
- There must be penalty for disobedience or indiscipline.

**Unity of Command**

- That an employee should receive orders/instructions from and in return be accountable to only one person.
- No one should have more than one boss to ensure and to avoid conflicting demands on him.
- One man and one system.
- The purpose is to avoid confusion, conflict and indiscipline.

**Unity of Direction**

- That people engaged in the same activities should be assigned identical objective.
- One head, one plan and one objective.
- All members of an organisation must work together to accomplish common objectives.

**Subordination of Individual Interests to the General Interest**

- That every worker in the organisation must uphold first the organisational goals before their personal goal.
- The interest of one employee or group of employees should not prevail over those of the organisation.

**Remuneration**

- Workers should be rewarded adequately to enhance their morale.
- "Productivity-Pay" should be fair to both the employee and the firm.
- Remuneration should be routinised so that unreasonable overpayments are avoided.
- The compensation of all workers for services rendered should be based on systematic attempt to reward good performance.

**Centralisation**

- There must be a good balance between centralisation and decentralisation of authority and power.
- Extreme centralisation and decentralisation must be avoided.
- Authority should be vested into very few hands.

**Scalar Chain**

- Scalar denotes steps.
- The chain of authority should be clear and unbroken from top to the bottom of the organisation.
- The hierarchy from top to bottom must be defined and the line of command and all communication flow must be practiced.

**Order**

- Materials and people should be in the right place at the right time in order to avoid chaos or confusion.
- There should be a place for everything and everything into its place.
- Do not put the wrong person in a place because he is your own person.
- That will collapse an organisation or a system.

**Equity**

- This refers to justice and kindness.
- A manager should be "firm but fair" and "friendly but firm".
- The use of rules must be tempered by a sense of kindness and justice.

**Stability of Personnel**

- Employees and managers must have job security in terms of income and employment.
- This is to ensure a stable group and long-term committed employees.
- Employees need to be given time to settle into their jobs, and this may take a lengthy period in the case of a manager.

**Initiative**

- Management should trust the capabilities and capacities of their subordinates.
- Creative thinking and the capacity to take initiative should be encouraged at all levels of the organisation within the limits of each worker's delegated authority and defined jobs.
- This is because as human beings capable of imaginative thought, they can plan and also execute it.

**Espirit de Corps**

- In union there is strength.
- The spirit of morale depends on harmony, belongingness and unity among all organisational members.
- Teamwork should be encouraged among the staff.

One criticism of Fayol is that his principles do not answer questions of degree or specificity.

**LUTHER GULICK (1892)**

While trying to adapt and utilise the work of Fayol, Gullick tried to answer the question "what is the work of the chief executive"? He used an acronym for seven administrative procedures or activities:

POSDCORB

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| P | - | Planning | O | - | Organising |
| S | - | Staffing | D | - | Directing |
| Co | - | Coordinating | R | - | Reporting |
| B | - | Budgeting | | | |

**LYNDAL URWICK (1943)**

Urwick identified twenty-nine (29) principles of efficient management or elements of administration by reviewing, analysing and synthesising the works and principles of Taylor, Fayol and others.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Investigation | 16. | Command |
| 2. | Appropriateness | 17. | Correspondence authority |
| 3. | Order | 18. | Assignment and correlation of function |
| 4. | The coordinative principle | 19 | Applicative |
| 5. | The Scalar process | 20. | Espirit de corps |
| 6. | Leadership | 21. | Initiative |
| 7. | Co-ordination | 22. | Selection and placement |
| 8. | Control | 23. | The general interest principle |
| 9. | Definition – specialisation function | 24. | Appropriate staffing |
| 10. | Determinative | 25. | Equity |
| 11. | Interpretative | 26. | Stability |
| 12. | Centralisation | 27. | Discipline, delegation, the exception planning principle, the span of control |
| 13. | Forecasting | | |
| 14. | Organisation | | |

**Table 1:    The Development of Administrative Science, 1900-present**

| Beginning | Development Phase of Administrative Science | Pioneers |
|---|---|---|
| 1900 | Classical organisational | Taylor, Fayol, Gullick, Urwick |
| 1930 | Human relations | Follett, Mayo, Roethlisberger |
| 1950 | Behavioural science | Barnard, Simon |

*Source:* Adapted from Hoy and Miskel (1982)

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Outline the scholars involved in:

(a)    Scientific Management Theory
(b)    Classical organisational theory?
(c)    What are their contributions?

### 3.3.2 Human Relations Approach

This approach focuses on informal groups as a source of motivation for workers, which leads to a fuller realisation and understanding of the human factor in work situations. This approach emerged from the

discoveries made by Elton Mayo (1880-1949), a Harvard Industrial Psychologist, who publicised the studies and provided interpretation of the results, and made significant contributions in the human relations movement.

The Hawthorns studies conducted from western electronic company at Cicero, United States of America showed a comparism between the use of monetary incentives on workers and regulation of physical conditions under which people worked to find out which of them enhanced workers productivity. Findings showed that production increased in both cases proportionately. But in the case of monetary incentive, dissatisfaction increased proportionately. On the other hand the regulation of physical conditions led to a sharp increase in production. It was found that by singling out some people for special treatment, the spirit of cohesiveness developed in the group; pride and anxiety led to appreciation through hard work. In this way Mayo through the Hawthorne studies established human relations as a principle in administration (Unachukwu, 1997).

On the other hand Mary Parker Follet (1868-1933), believed that the fundamental problem in all organisations was in developing and maintaining dynamic and harmonic relationships. In addition, according to Hoy and Miskel (1982), they thought that conflict was "not necessarily a wasteful outbreak of compatibilities, but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for enrichment of all concerned".

Follet believes that all organisational problems are essentially human relations problems. She identified 'coordination' as the key to building an effective organisation.

These studies are basic to the literature describing informal groups, and the study of informal groups is basic to an analysis of schools. The efforts of the best administrators at planning can be foiled if the personnel working with the administration fail to co-operate.

### 3.3.3 Behavioural Science Approach

The behavioural science approach was borne because the classical and human relations approaches ignored the impact of social relations and of formal structure. Hence this approach fused together the earlier approaches and added propositions and ideas drawn from sociology, psychology, political science, anthropology and economics. Hence in administrative science the focus of the behavioural science approach is work behaviour in formal organisations.

Chester Bernard (1938) and Herbert Simons (1947) were identified as some of the main originators of ideas in this approach. Barnard provided the original definitions of formal and informal organisations and demonstrated the interaction between them. He further summarised the contributions of his work in terms of structure and dynamic concepts. The structural concepts he considered important were the individual, the cooperative system, the formal organisation, the complex formal organisation, and the informal organisation. His important dynamic concepts were free will, cooperation, communication, authority, the decision process and dynamic equilibrium.

Herbert Simon on his part extended Barnard's work and used the concept of organisational equilibrium as a focal point for a formal theory of work motivation. Hence the organisation was seen as exchange system in which inducements are exchanged for work. Employees therefore remain in organisation as long as they perceive inducement as larger-than their work contributions.

In applying this approach to the educational system, there has to be a good organisation and a good atmosphere among learner's and their teachers, this may be in form of good classroom arrangement and management or good relationships among the teachers, principals and pupils. The teaching, technology and equipment used in addition to the curriculum, and the method of quality control all have to be suitably managed to enhance learning.

### 3.3.4  The Integrated (Situation) Approach (1970 to date)

Here the administrative theorists tend to emphasize the relevance of the situation and the interaction between elements within the specific situations in administration. Okunamiri (2008) stressing on this, maintained that some of these theorists appear to blend aspects of the human relations and classical structuralists together, while others draw from all the schools of thought, ranging from the scientific management to the modern mathematical system theorists. The integrated or situation approach to management is encompassing the usefulness of the 3 approaches earlier discussed. Any of them can be applied in an educational institution depending on the prevailing situation.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6**

As a school manager who has studied the various theories of educational management, outline the ways you can apply them to your school.

## 4.0    CONCLUSION

Management in any institution, especially educational institution like the school is indispensable. It is the recipe that propels and sustains the growth of the school especially at the childhood level. The knowledge of educational management equips the administrator or school manager to face the challenges of school administration. It develops critical thinking and exposes us to the relevant concepts and ideas for effective management of educational institutions without stress.

## 5.0    SUMMARY

In this unit attempts have been made to explain the concepts of management and educational management, as well as childhood institutions. The relationships between educational management and educational administration were x-rayed. Theories of educational management were highlighted and conclusion drawn.

## 6.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.    Define management.
2.    Discuss educational management versus educational administration.
3.    Explain the various theories of educational management.

## 7.0    REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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## UNIT 2     MANAGEMENT OF CHILDHOOD/PRIMARY INSTITUTION

**CONTENTS**

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2.0     Objectives
3.0     Main Content
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           3.2.4   School Community Relationship
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           3.2.6   Finance and Business Management
      3.3     National Policy on Education as it Relates to Primary Education
4.0     Conclusion
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## 1.0    INTRODUCTION

Childhood education is all embracing and every social institution involves educational activities which lead the children to acquire behaviour-patterns, abilities and skills necessary for effective citizenship in the society in which they live (Nwokocha, 2006). Primary education is the foundation of educational development of any nation. It is the first leg of a relay race in education which when faulty, would be difficult to correct in subsequent legs (Kayode & Muda, 2007). Suffice it to say that with this key role played, the management of childhood/primary education cannot be taken for granted. The education of a child starts from infancy just like in any European or American Society. Effective socialisation of a child begins at this childhood level so the application of the management process is indispensable.

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- define childhood/institution
- discuss the national policy on education in relation to primary education
- narrate the history of primary education in Nigeria

- explain the scope of schools management
- identify strategies for effective management of childhood/primary institution.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Concept of Childhood Institution

Eke (2004) referencing Organisation of African Unity (OAU) Charter and other child rights documents stated that the child is a human being between 0 to 18 years of age. Conventionally, the period is divided into infancy, 0-2 years; early childhood, 2-5 years which corresponds to the preschool education years (nursery, child care centres, Kindergarten); later childhood, from 6-11 years – the primary education years; junior and senior secondary school years, 12-18 years- traditionally known as the early and late adolescent years respectively.

According to Nwokocha (2006), at the early childhood, the child is mainly able to form mental pictures of things and uses symbols in an attempt to communicate. The child's reasoning at this age is neither inductive nor deductive rather, he learns mainly by analogies. Childhood is the period during which much of the formal education of the child takes place. This stage requires a well planned and systematic stimulation of the child's reflexes and gradual introduction of the child to rudiments of concrete operations. This stage entails recognising the needs, interests and aspirations of the child as an individual.

The **family** and the **school** are the two major institutions that begin the formation of the child. The family is the most important human institution and it is the basic building block of the larger society. It provides the desired forum for socialising the young ones of the society, regulating their lives and moulding their character. It is headed by the father/husband who is the main bread winner and by virtue of his position and duties, is a community functionary and political figure (Emofor, 1981 in Mbakwem, 2005). The mother or wife is the home maker, the caretaker and the quick at seeing how to gain advantage of the home. The children are considered very precious and parents pray that these children should grow and become more progressive and higher than they. When families fail to do these, character and value crises assume such alarming proportion that can hasten the erosion of family cohesiveness, societal stability and value system (Mbakwem, 2005).

Each member of the family occupies a position and each position carries specific roles that are performed by the occupant of the position. Children are assigned responsibilities to perform according to their ability. In Africa, vis-à-vis Nigeria, the family may also include some close and distant relatives of the parents or, in some cases, the in-laws. Essentially, there are two major types of families, the **nuclear family** and the **extended family**.

**The Nuclear/Conjugal Family:** This consists of the husband, wife and their children, biological or adopted, living in the same household. Nuclear family is the simplest and most basic building block of the larger society. This is the oldest, most common and most fundamental of human institutions. It is the reciprocal exchange of services and obligations of members of this group that constitutes a fundamental aspect of the workings of any given society (Awe, 2000).

**The Extended Family:** This consists of the nuclear family incorporating into the household, on a permanent basis, other persons who are usually relatives such as cousins, brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents. A major advantage of this structure is the companionship and reciprocity of goods and services while the dependency of some individuals of the family on others is its worrisome shortfall. Awe (2000) further stated that the family whether nuclear or extended is seen as the main reference point of character – building and the qualitative development of man. The management of the childhood institution begins from the family. It is this family that sends the children to school for formal education.

**The School:** A school is an institution for educating children which includes pre-primary, primary and secondary. The introduction of western form of education in Nigeria as early as the latter part of the 19th century led to the evolution of two major institutions in the proper education of the Nigerian child. These institutions – the school and the home have distinct and complementary roles to play in making an individual completely educated. But the home remains a place where the child comes from and goes to after the formal school system on a daily basis, to continue his/her education.

At a particular age, the child leaves the home for a formal school system where whatever he/she has learnt at home will be formally developed in an organised form in terms of a curriculum. This curriculum will be delivered by a person technically, specially trained and referred to as a teacher. The school is expected to complement whatever the child has brought from home in its attempt at helping him/her to fully develop into a complete person.

A major peculiarity of the school is that it is made up of individuals who come from different socio-cultural backgrounds and different levels of exposure who are put together in the same classrooms and schools to mutually interact and learn. The child also learns additional things through the interaction he/she has with his/her mates in the school system. The school is thus a melting point. The school is positioned to continue the efforts at producing persons of character for the continued survival and development of our country. With this there is a strong relationship between the home and the school in the education of the child. Education of the Child can be represented diagrammatically as follows:
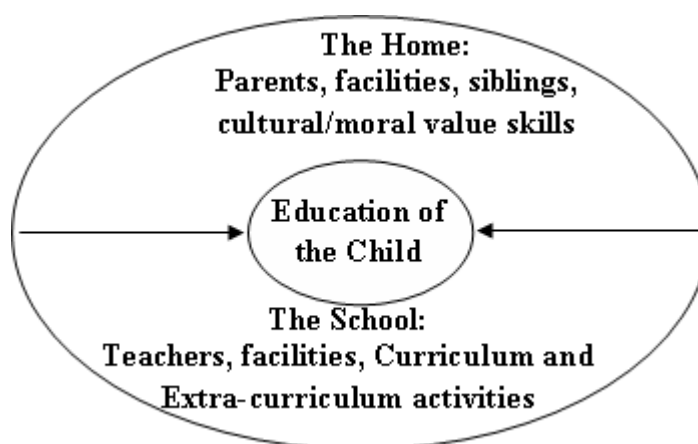


**Fig. 2:**        **The Agents Responsible for Education of the Child**

**Types of Childhood Institutions (Formal)**

1.    Early Childhood/Pre-primary-Day care, Nursery Education, Kindergarten & School for exceptionally handicapped children
2.    Late Childhood – Primary & Junior Secondary

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Identify and explain the types of childhood institution(s) seen in your locality.

**3.2    Scope of School Management in Childhood Institution**

The childhood institution management revolves around certain mandatory operational areas. According to Emenike (2003) these areas are needed for the achievement of educational goals and objectives. It is the responsibility of the school manager or administrator – head teacher, principal etc., to procure and manage human, financial and material resources for effective implementation of the school programmes and for maintenance of the school, especially at the childhood level.

Renowned scholars like Campbell et al in Lipham and Hoeh (1974) and Akpa, G.O. (2002) are all in agreement that the scope of childhood institution traditionally covers:

1.      Staff personnel administration
2.      Curriculum and instruction
3.      Pupil personnel administration
4.      School community relationship
5.      Physical facilities
6.      Finance and business management

## 3.2.1 Staff Personnel Administration

One of the most important areas in school administration is that of personnel. Support to this view as Ezeocha (1990) pointed out is the statement "as the teacher, so is the school". It emphasizes the supreme importance of this area. Staff personnel embrace both teaching and non-teaching staff – teachers, secretarial staff, business office employees (bursar's office), drivers, custodial staff and cafeteria workers. The school manager must think not only about the large number of teachers but the others too who directly facilitate the educational programme. Personnel make the system and a school system is the people. Under staff personnel administration, the manager performs the following functions:

•      Identification of the need for new staff members
•      Recruitment and selection of staff
•      Orientation of staff
•      Assignment of staff
•      Staff improvement
•      Staff evaluation

It is the responsibility of the pre-primary and primary head teacher to see that these functions are implemented. These functions are diagrammatically represented below:

STAGE 1:     IDENTIFICATION OF NEW STAFF

- (A)     RECRUITMENT OF STAFF
- (B)     SELECTION OF STAFF

STAGE II:     ORIENTATION OF STAFF

- (A) TO THE FACULTY/SCHOOL
- (B)  TO THE COMMUNITY
- (C)  TO THE STUDENTS

STAGE III:     ASSIGNMENT OF STAFF

- (A) TO INITIAL POSITIONS
- (B) TO SUBSEQUENT POSITIONS
- (C) TO DIFFERENTIATED ROLES

STAGE IV:     IMPROVEMENT OF STAFF

- (A) CLASSROOM OBSERVATION
- (B) INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES
- (C) SCHOOL VISITATION
- (D) PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION
- (E) PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY
- (F) STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAMME
- (G) IN-SERVICE ACTIVITIES

STAGE V:     EVALUATION OF STAFF

- (A) WHEN TO EVALUATE
- (B) WHY EVALUATE
- (C) WHAT TO EVALUATE
- (D) HOW TO EVALUATE

CONTINUOUS FEEDBACK

IMMEDIATE FEEDBACK

Source: *Adapted from Lipham and Hoeh (Jr.)* Pg. 234

**Fig. 3: Model of Leadership Role in Staff Personnel Functions**

### 3.2.2  Curriculum and Instruction

This is the "why" we are in school. It is the most important responsibility of a school administrator and his primary function area too. Every other task area of responsibility directly or indirectly facilitates effective and efficient teaching and learning. School inculcates worthwhile values, attitudes, skills and competencies to pupils/students to produce required quality products. All these attributes are involved in the curriculum and instruction. Mgbodile, (1997) identified two dimensions of the competence of instruction programmes viz:

| Maintenance activities | Programme improvements |
|---|---|
| -Refers to routine teaching and other activities | -Involves careful attention to motivating staff to high degree of devotion and commitment for higher productivity. |
| -Aims at providing instruction in accordance with the existing school curriculum and educational objectives | -Achieved through the reduction of broad goals and objectives into measurable behavioural outcomes. |
| -Determining the educational needs, stating objectives, planning and implementing instructional change, assessing the community context of education and evaluating outcomes | -Directing attention to human and material inputs and processes needed to change and improve the educational programme. |
|  | -And the assessment of the products with adequate evaluation techniques and procedures. |

### 3.2.3  Pupil Personnel Administration

This responsibility involves all the activities and services that are rendered to the pupils/students for the achievements of the educational objectives which are not the normal classroom instructions (Emenike, 2004). They include:

- Admission, registration and classification of students.
- Provision of adequate teaching and learning facilities and conducive learning environment.
- Evaluation and reporting of student's progress.
- Provision of guidance and counselling, health and safety programmes.

- Enforcement of discipline with humanitarian touch rather than the custodian approach in applying of the doctrine of in-loco-parents i.e. in place of parents.
- Care of boarding/food or transportation.

### 3.2.4  School Community Relationship

The school and the community are two institutions of man which are inseparable. The school exists for the community and the community on the other hand exists and acts as client to the school in that without the community there would not be school (Ezeocha, 1990). This is another task area of the school administrator, to link the community to the school. School community relations is defined as a genuine cooperation in planning and working for good of the school with the public giving as well as receiving ideas (Okeke, 1997). Nnabuo and Emenalo (2002) see it as series of planned activities and media through which the schools seek to learn about their community and inform them when necessary, of the purposes, programmes, problems and the needs of the school. It is a two way process and ensures the flow of ideas between the school and the community with the intent to provide mutual understanding and effective work team. A renowned scholar Bortner (1965) emphasised that it is a series of planned activities of media through which the school seeks to:

1. Learn about their community
2. Inform the community about, and interpret when necessary, the purpose, programmes, problems and needs of the schools
3. Involve the community in planning and evaluating school policies and progress.

This school – community relations is crucial for school administration because the school does not operate in a social and geographical vacuum. Both the school and the community are in a continuous process of interaction and rapid change. School needs the support, approval, acceptance and appreciation of other communities in order to thrive since it derives its strength and existence from the community it is situated. The P.T.A., Board of Governors (B.O.G.), Alumni Association, L.G.A, Ministry of Education, Social clubs, and Town unions are some agencies within the community that can be of great help to the school.

### 3.2.5  Physical Facilities

Nwagwu (1978), Ogunsaju (1980) and Asiabaka (2008) maintain that the quality of education that children receive bears direct relevance to the availability or lack, of physical facilities and overall atmosphere in which learning takes place. These facilities play pivotal role in the

actualisation of educational goals and objectives by satisfying the physical and emotional needs of staff and students of the school.

Putting it succinctly, facilities are those factors or things the worker needs, to make his production efforts noticeable. School facilities are the operational inputs of every institutional programme.

The school is like a manufacturing organisation where plants and equipment must be in top operational shape to produce result (Ehiametalor, 2001). Efficiency and effectiveness in the production function depends on how well the plants and materials are being maintained. The school manager must ensure that facilities are working efficiently because it is necessary for utmost learning achievement. Modern infrastructural facilities like ICT facilities are not only important, but should be available in this era of accelerating technology development. A direct relationship exists between the quality of school facilities provided and the quality of products of the school.

There are two types of school facilities:

• Direct teaching facilities
• Non-teaching facilities

Direct teaching facilities have direct relevance for the educative process, while non-teaching facilities are facilities which have indirect relevance for the educative process. They include school buildings, equipments, school records and books. The latest is the Information Communication Technology equipments. Maintenance of school facilities must be taken seriously.

### 3.2.6  Finance and Business Management

Business management or business administration as it relates to childhood school is an integral but well defined part of educational administration. It plays a very important role in the full realisation of the objectives of educational institutions. According to Ezeocha (1990) business management of schools could be defined as "that phase of school administration that is primarily concerned with procuring, expending, accounting for, protecting, organising and maintaining fiscal and material resources in an efficient manner so that human resources and efforts are aided in achieving educational goals". Finance here means funds.

In its operation school business management touches on: budget making and administration, procuring and handling of funds, purchasing or the expenditure of funds, inventory, accounting, auditing, financial

reporting, cost analysis, maintaining property, insurance, programming, cafeteria operation, and supporting such school services like health, meal, library, transportation and recreational services. School business is a profit oriented programme, which includes receipts and disbursement of funds, construction and maintenance operations, as success is measured in terms of accomplishment of school business objectives.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

As a school administrator which areas of operation do you think you are responsible for?

## 3.3   The National Policy on Education as it relates to Pre-Primary and Primary Education

According to the National Policy (FRN, 2004: 11) "Early childhood/pre-primary education is the education given in an educational institution to children prior to their entry to primary school". It includes the crèche, the nursery and the kindergarten. The responsibilities of the government for pre-primary education shall be to:

1.     Promote the training of qualified pre-primary school teachers in adequate number.
2.     Contribute to the development of suitable curriculum.
3.     Supervise and control the quality of such institutions.
4.     Establish pre-primary sections in existing public schools.

The purpose of pre-primary education shall be to:

a.     effect a smooth transition from the home to the school
b.     prepare the child for the primary level of education
c.     provide adequate care and supervision for the children while their parents are at work (on the farm, in the markets, offices etc.)
d.     inculcate social norms
e.     inculcate in the child the spirit of enquiry and creativity through the exploration of nature, the environment, art, music, and playing with toys, etc
f.     develop a sense of co-operation and team spirit
g.     teach good habits, especially good health habits and
h.     teach the rudiments of numbers, letters, colours, shapes, forms, etc. through play.

According to Anowor (2006) the national policy on education represents a culminating point in the formulation of Nigeria's education policy at the federal level. Pre-primary and primary education features prominently in its 4th edition (2004). Even before their detailed

treatment under section 2 of the policy document, it is made an item under subsection of section 1, dealing with Nigeria's philosophy of education. Accordingly, subsection 4(c) provides that every Nigerian child shall have a right to equal educational opportunities based on the provision of equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens at the primary as well as the secondary and tertiary levels. Furthermore, subsection 9(e) provide for universal basic education in a variety of forms for all citizens.

As a follow-up to the provisions on the early stages of education under the philosophy of Nigerian education, the national policy in its section 3, and 4 makes elaborate policy statements on early childhood/pre-primary education and basic education that includes primary education. Apart from making early childhood and basic education all – inclusive in respect of children and adults for nine-year duration, the sections give details of the responsibilities of the government and corresponding plans of action to be taken in pursuance of identified goals. In this way, the current national education policy goes beyond the formulation and enactment phase to the stage of planning of implementation.

**Issues Relating to the National Policy Document**

Having provided the genesis of educational policies in Nigeria with a focus on the pre-primary and primary levels, issues relating to the planning and implementation of the epitome of the policies represented by the current national policy on education will be examined. On assumption, it is taken that the current national policy on education had successfully passed through the initial processes of formulation, evaluation and adoption. Examination of issues relating to the application of the policy is our focus.

**Planning Provisions**

It has already been pointed out that the section of the current policy document dealing with early childhood and primary education contains a plan of actions to be taken by the government in pursuance of the goals set out in the policy component. Thus section 2, article 12 provides that for early childhood/pre-primary education, government responsibilities shall be:

(i)     To promote the training of qualified pre-primary school teachers in adequate number,
(ii)    Contribute to the development of school curriculum,
(iii)   Supervise and control the quality of such institutions and,
(iv)   Establish pre-primary sections in existing public schools.

In the same section, the policy under article 14 provides that government shall take specific steps as follows:

(a)     Establish pre-primary sections in existing public schools and encourage both community/private effort in the provision of primary education

(b)     Make provision in teacher education programmes for specialisation in early childhood education

(c)     Ensure that the medium of instruction is principally the mother tongue or the language of the immediate environment, and to this end

(i)     Develop the autography of many more Nigerian languages and

(ii)    Produce textbooks in Nigerian languages

(d)     Ensure that the main method of teaching at this level shall be through play and that the curriculum of teacher education is oriented to achieve this, and regulate and control the operation of pre-primary education particularly by ensuring a teacher – pupil ratio of 1:25

(e)     Set and monitor minimum standard for early childcare centres in the country, and

(f)     Ensure full participation of government, communities and teachers in the running and maintenance of early childhood education facilities.

Similarly, section 4 of the policy articulates in article 19 steps to be taken in pursuance of the goals set for the 6-year primary education system as follows:

(a)     Making primary education tuition-free, universal and compulsory

(b)     Specifying subjects to be included in the curriculum for primary education

(c)     Specifying five educational services to be provided:

(i)     School library

(ii)    Basic health scheme

(iii)   Counselling

(iv)    Educational resource centre

(v)     Specialist teachers of selected subjects

(d)     Ensuring that teaching shall be by practical, exploratory and experimental methods

(e)     Ensuring that the medium of instruction in primary school is the language of the environment for the first three years with English being taught as a subject

(g)    Ensuring that from the fourth year, English is progressively used as a medium of instruction while the language of the immediate environment and French shall be taught as subjects
       Ensuring that the teacher – pupil ratio is 1:35

(h)    Ensuring that advancement from one class to another is y continuous assessment

(i)    Ensuring that primary school leaving certificate is based only on continuous assessment and shall be issued locally by the head teacher of the school

(j)    Ensuring that the state governments integrate formal basic education curriculum into Koranic and Islamic schools; and that special efforts are made by all appropriate agencies to encourage parents to send their daughters to school

(k)    Ensuring that everything possible is done to discourage the incidence of dropping out at the primary level of education and that where this occurs provision is made in the context of adult and non-formal education to enable such early leavers to continue with their education

(l)    Ensuring that government welcomes the contributions of voluntary agencies, communities and private individuals in the establishment and management of primary schools as long as they meet the minimum standards laid down by the federal government.

(m)    Ensuring that government provides basic infrastructure and training for the realisation of the goal of integrating information and communication technology (ICT) into education at the primary school level.

**Issues Arising**

The key issue arising from the planning stage of the national policy on education is the extent to which the planned actions take care of the set objectives. In the case of early childhood or pre-primary education, the planned actions do not appear to be geared directly towards the achievement of the objectives set out under "purpose" in article 13. The planned actions do not appear to specifically take care of the following set objectives:

(a)    Effect a smooth transition from the home to the school
(b)    Prepare the child for the primary level of education
(c)    Provide adequate care and supervision for the children while their parents are at work
(d)    Inculcate social norms
(e)    Inculcate in the child the spirit of inquiry and creativity through the exploration of nature, the environment, art and music
(f)    Develop a sense of cooperation and team spirit
(g)    Learn good habits especially good health habits.

This scenario leaves only one out of the eight set objectives, namely teaching through the play–way methods, specifically taken care of by planned action (Anowor, 2006).

Similarly, a close scrutiny of the 6 – year primary education system as provided for in the national policy document reveals that out of the seven goals of primary education, those not directly taken care of by the planned actions include the following:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Article 18(b) | - | Lay a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking; |
| Article 18(d) | - | Mould the character and develop sound attitude and morals in the child; |
| Article 12(e) | - | develop in child the ability to adapt to the child's changing environment; |
| Article 13(f) | - | give the child opportunities for developing manipulative skills that will enable the child function effectively in the society within the limit of the child's capacity. |
| Article 14(g) | - | provide the child with basic tools for further educational advancement, including preparation for trades and crafts of the locality. |

This means that only two out of the seven goals are directly taken care of by the planned actions. Furthermore, the actions planned in pursuance of the two goals namely; permanent literacy and numeracy and citizenship education are by no means adequate since the actions consist of mere classroom teaching to be assessed through conventional school examinations. The nebulous provision in the action plan that teaching shall be by practical, exploratory and experimental methods is clearly inadequate for the inculcation of permanent literacy and numeracy, ability to communicate effectively and citizenship that form part of the set goals of primary education (Anowor, 1991:).These observed lapses imply that the action plan is rendered inadequate for the achievement of the set goals.

Another issue arising with regard to planning is that of determining and making provision for the required resources. Unfortunately, the current national policy document does not appear to include a plan for the provision of specified resources in pursuance of the set goals of pre-primary and primary education. In the case of pre-primary education government's responsibility in the area of resource provision is expressed in such vague terms as promoting teacher training, contributing to curriculum development and establishing pre-primary sections in public schools.

In the area of primary education, the policy is equally vague on provision of resources. Despite the statement that primary education shall be tuition-free, universal and compulsory; the section on the action plan contains no definite provision for the supply of specified resources. The Federal Government went ahead to make pronouncements welcoming the contributions of voluntary agencies, communities and private individuals alongside those provided by the State and Local Governments, and went ahead to provide basic infrastructural and training for the realisation of the information communication technology (ICT) goals.

In the area of planning, there is a section of the national policy that contains provisions on a 9 years basic education system whereby the first 6 years are meant to coincide with the primary level in terms of specific goals. This section is so scanty that it does not make provision for separate actions to be taken in realisation of the new 9 years free and compulsory tier of the Nigerian education system that appears to be a merger of two previously separate tiers namely: the primary and the junior secondary. There is the impression that the new tier of education supersedes the earlier provision of a four-tier 6-3-3-4 system. There is nothing in the current policy document to guide educational planning and implementation in the area of the new basic education level of education.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Give a critique of the national policy on education as it relates to childhood education i.e. early childhood, pre-primary and primary levels.

## 4.0    CONCLUSION

It has been discovered that childhood education especially at the primary level is the first leg of a relay race which when faulty will be difficult to correct in subsequently legs. Therefore management of childhood institutions must never be taken for granted. Managers must be properly exposed to the task areas of their responsibilities. They must be properly guided by the national policy on education. Areas deficient in the action plan should be looked into for amendment.

## 5.0    SUMMARY

In this unit issues discussed include; the concept of childhood/institution, the national policy on education as it relates to childhood levels, brief history of primary education growth in Nigeria,

scope of school management as well as issues arising from national policy and action plan.

## 6.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.    Define the concept of childhood institution?
2.    Discuss the two major institutions that begin the formation of the child?
3.    Outline and discuss the task areas of a school manager.
4.    Critique the national policy on education in relation to action plan at the pre-primary and primary levels.

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## UNIT 3 THE CONCEPT, TYPES AND PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

An organisation arises when a group of people come together to strive towards a common purpose. A school is an organisation whose main objectives include the promotion of knowledge and the development of certain attitude among its members (Ezeocha, 1990). An organisation involves many participants as well as diverse operations. Examples of organisations include schools, industries, hospitals, banks, churches, universities, NIPOST etc. They are set up to achieve specific purposes.

The school as an organisation comprises of a group of people bound together in a formal relationship to achieve organisational goals (Achunine, 2007). School organisation also connotes the concept of a progress of organising work, people and material for the achievement of objectives.

Generally, individuals spend so much of their lives in some form of organisation. By the study of organisations in general, the students would be enabled not only to think about and come to grips with the problems and issues in the field of educational administration but also widen and improve their vision; emphasize functional and dysfunctional goals for organisations; and understand the dynamics of group processes (Okeke, 1985). The word organisation connotes two concepts:

1.       an entity, a group
2.       a process

As an entity, a group e.g. schools, churches, industrial organisations, government ministries, social clubs, the army etc.

## 2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of organisation
- identify types of organisation
- describe organisational functions
- discuss organisational relationships
- explain organisational control.

## 3.0   MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1   Definition of Organisation

Organisation has been defined by scholars in various ways. Essentially, an organisation is a purposeful social unit whose components include functions. Okeke (1985) opines that in management study, organisation can refer to the structure of relationships among individuals.

Ezeocha (1990) defines an organisation as the means by which all group enterprises are given socially acceptable purposes and made capable of efficient operation. In other words, organisations are primarily complex goal-seeking units.

Barnard (1938) conceived of organisations as equilibrium systems of co-coordinated effort in which participants make contributions in turn for inducements. On the other hand Penow (1967) conceptualized complex organisations in terms of their technologies or work done. Okeke (1985) deduced from the above viewpoints that organisation is primarily seen as systems for getting work done, for applying techniques to the problem of altering materials – people, symbol or things. This implies that an organisation may be viewed as a system, process, procedure, or designated as a product of the process. There are other perceptions which contrast with the above definition, and see organisations as either co-operative systems, institutions or decision-making systems.

Organisations as a system compose of a set of inter-dependent parts which have needs for survival, have and take actions. Organisation has elements which include communication, willingness to serve, and common purpose.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Give an overview of what an organisation is?

## 3.2     Types of Organisation

Primarily, there are two types of organisations

1.     Formal organisation and
2.     Informal organisation

### 3.2.1  Formal Organisation

A formal organisation is an assembly of individuals who perform distinct but inter-related and co-ordinated function(s) in order that one or more tasks on objectives can be accomplished. Examples include schools, civil service organisation as "consciously constituted and systematically operated groups of people that bind themselves together for the purpose of achieving a definite on definite purposes". From the fore going, organisations are made up of persons who must be able to communicate with each other. They must be people who are willing to contribute their action with the purpose of accomplishing a common purpose. Three elements are glaring in an organisation:-

•     Communication,
•     Willingness to contribute and
•     Common purpose.

In a typical school, the head teacher will delegate tasks and responsibilities in lessening degrees of importance to his/her deputy, the academic departmental heads, prefects, members of house, class and games organisations, and societies. All these organisations (clubs) will facilitate the accomplishment of objectives and goals of the institution. The vitality of organisations lies in the willingness of the individuals to contribute forces to the cooperative system. The life of organisations depends upon the organisation's effectiveness and efficiency; therefore organisations depend on the motives of individuals and the inducements with which the organisation can satisfy the individuals. Other business organisations are profit-making while the ideal school organisation is not.

### 3.2.2  Informal Organisation

It is a generally observed experience that people frequently or even necessarily interact with each other whenever they come in contact even

though their interaction is not caused by any deliberate constitution (Ukeje, Akabuogu Ndu, 1992). The contact itself may arise accidentally, or coincidentally. It may be friendly or hostile, but whatever may be its origin, this very contact by itself changes the knowledge, experience, attitudes, emotions and opinions of the individuals that are in contact. As a result such terms as "Mob psychology", "consensus of opinion", "public opinion" were conceived. It is this haphazard and amorphous alignment of groups of people that is called informal organisations.

It is a dynamic structure composed of special interest groups. Membership tends to be voluntary and terminates when the present members leave (Okeke, 1985). The systems of inter-personal relations are formed to affect decisions made in the formal organisations. Barnard (1938:115) in Ukeje *et al.* (1992) describes informal organisation as "the aggregate of the groupings of the personal contacts and interactions and associated groupings of people". The informal groups often generate enough power to bring about significant changes in the nature of formal organisations (Ezeocha, 1990).

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

What is the relationship between formal and informal organisations?

## 3.3     Principles of Organisation

They include:

a.      Purpose
b.      Unity of objective
c.      Span of control or authority
d.      The personal nature of organisation
e.      Delegation
f.      Responsibility and Authority
g.      Specialisation
h.      Unity of command
i.      The Exception Principle. (Okeke, 1985).

**a.**      **Purpose –** Organisations are created and modified to accomplish recognised purposes through allocating and delegating responsibilities, authority and obligations.

**b.**      **Unity of Objective** – All component part of the organisation must contribute to the attainment of the objective of the enterprise. In any given organisation, it is expected that there must be harmony between the objectives of a subordinate and the objectives of the enterprise.

c.   **Span of Control or Authority** – There are definite limits to the number of subordinates that can be effectively managed or supervised by a single executive. It relates to delegation of responsibilities. It also refers to the range or number of subordinates a super-ordinate can effectively supervise.

d.   **The Personal Nature of Organisation** – Responsibility is essentially personal since the organisation is a process of relating persons and responsibilities. The acceptance of a responsibility on the other hand creates obligation which is also personal.

e.   **Delegation** – Authority should be delegated and delegated from top to bottom. Delegation of responsibility and authority connotes giving members of the organisation certain jobs to perform and matching the assignments with authority to execute the functions. An executive must have authority to get things done.

f.   **Responsibility and Authority**- Authority is the right to command, do certain things or refrain from doing certain things. Authority must be equal to responsibility. Authority is the institutional manifestation of power.

g.   **Specialisation** – Responsibilities are divided into parts in effective organisation. This permits specialisation and increases efficiency. Organisations also specify the combination and coordination of their specialised parts.

h.   **Unity of Command** – Refers to the need for the subordinates to be responsible to only one superior for effective coordination of plans and group efforts. Where this is lacking, conflict will arise.

i.   **The Exception Principle** – Advocated by Frederick W. Taylor. It advanced the reasoning that where decisions recur frequently, it should be reduced to a routine and be delegated to subordinates while more important issues and exceptional matters are left for the superiors.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Outline and briefly explain the principles of organisation.

## 3.3    Organisational Functions

Although each organisation is unique, the activities of every organisation can be modelled by a common set of organisational functions (Emenike 2003) the school inclusive. These include:

(i)   **Revenue Generation Function** – Generating funds for the organisation which can be supported by computer-based system.

(ii)  **Purchasing Function** – Consists of activities necessary for acquisition of goods and services from outside vendors. To

account for expenses, and to make payment on a timely and cost-effective basis, data are stored in the data-base.

(iii) **Personnel and Payroll Function-** The purpose here is to hire, pay, account for, and administer employees. Several different payroll systems exist in many businesses. There are two fundamental subsystems within it:

• The personnel subsystem
• The payroll subsystem

| The Personnel Subsystem | The Payroll subsystem |
|---|---|
| - Keeps track of jobs, people, assignments | - Produces pay checks |
| - Employee reviews | - Accounts for vacation and sick leave |
| - Authorised pay rates and so forth | - Keeps tracks of taxes and other accounting functions |

The personnel and payroll departments each maintains its own files and acts independently of one another. It is a task to operate a payroll system.

(iv) **Asset Control Function:** The purpose is to manage the account for the organisation's assets such as cash investments and capital assets such as inventories, equipment, land and buildings. Asset management does not necessarily imply physical control over and protection of assets. Such protection must often be delegated. The finance/treasury department has the most substantial role in asset control. Capital assets are managed differently. An inventory of equipment is kept in the inventory file.

(v) **Product development and planning functions:** The aim is to develop a plan of action that will accomplish the overall functional goals and objectives of the organisation. This plan must include a description of the products and services to be sold. The sales and marketing plans, objectives and quotas for those products and the budget for each section, should follow while fulfilling the plan.

(vi) **Manufacturing Function**: This is broad and complicated. Various companies manufacture various items. There are so many activities involved in manufacturing e.g. inventory management, machine scheduling, labour management, robotics, factory automation, quality control and others. In educational

institutions, we have different faculties, departments, sections that train specialist in different fields.

**(vii) Accounting Function**- This includes receivable i.e. revenue generation, accounts payable i.e. purchasing, personnel and payroll, and budgeting for product development and planning.

Organisational control must be coordinated so as to generate integrated responses for effectiveness and efficiency.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

As a manager of a school, what functions are you expected to perform?

## 4.0    CONCLUSION

Generally, individuals spend so much of their lives in some form of organisational membership. Administrative processes whether in the schools/institutions or industries/companies take place within the organisation. The study of organisation would enable students of educational management to think critically and come to grips with problems and issues in the field.

## 5.0    SUMMARY

This unit has dealt with the definition and types of organisation, principles of organisation, organisational functions and control, as well as organisational relationships.

## 6.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.    Define organization.
2.    Explain the types of organization.
3.    Outline and discuss the principles of organization.
4.    Do organisations have functions? Discuss.

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## UNIT 4    THEORIES OF ORGANISATION

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0    INTRODUCTION

The search for greater efficiency and effectiveness in the management of organisations to produce better results led to the development of these theories. Organisational theory constitutes a fundamental area of study in educational management. Management of school has become increasingly complex. Nwankwo (1982:15) reports that "those who will administer schools must have both adequate experience and proper administrative training in order to cope with the challenging context of school administration". Decisions are no longer taken alone by school administrators concerning inputs on both human and material resources. Government, parents and other external agencies make decisions about funds, equipment, student admission and programmes. It is to cope with these challenges created by different policies that these theories and strategies are advocated for schools.

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- identify &explain the various theories of  organisation
- identify elements and describe key features of bureaucracy
- critique the functions and dysfunctions of the Weberian Bureaucratic model.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Max Weber's Theory of Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy refers to a specific form of social organisation for administrative purposes. (Ukeje, Okorie & Nwagbara, 1992). It possesses a formal structure characterised by clearly defined pattern of activities in which every series of action is functionally related. A German sociologist, Max Weber was the first scholar to systematically describe the characteristics of bureaucracy in the industrial society of Western Europe.

Weber conceived bureaucracy as a theory of organisations best suited to the needs of large and complex enterprises that perform services for a large number of clients. In his concept of bureaucracy, he attempts to minimise the frustrations and irrationality of large organisations in which the relationships between management and workers were based on traditions of class privilege.

Bureaucracy is a rational response to and administrative strategy for the demands of complex organisations for systematic efficiency. According to Max Weber, it is a reaction against the patrimony and patriarchal leadership that characterised human organisation of his time. He saw this type of administration as the most efficient because it was designed to provide maximum rationality in human behaviour.

## 3.1.1  Elements /Key Features of Bureaucracy

a.    **A clear division of labour** - Each job is well defined, understood and routinised. Official duties and powers are legitimised by possession of specialised spheres of work competence. This is based on specialisation (Peretomode, 1991).

b.    **A well – defined Hierarchy of Authority -** A system of graded authority. Each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one (supervisor – subordinate relationship).

c.    **Rules and regulations** - Rules, policies and procedures guide the behaviours of employees. Rules and regulations spell out the rights and duties inherent in each position. This helps to coordinate activities in the hierarchy and ensure uniformity and stability of employee action.

d.    **Impersonal Orientation -** Workers are to conduct their duties with a sense of personal detachment in order to minimise favouritism in the application of rules and policies, in the enforcement of discipline and in the rewarding of employees. This is to ensure equality of treatment and facilitate rationality on the part of administrators and teachers.

e. **Career Orientation -** Employment based on technical qualifications that is official, is made and placed on the basis of technical competence, not considerations based on social status or political considerations. Rigid and equitable selection criteria are to be used to hire candidates for vacant jobs. In this type of career orientation, Weber maintains that promotion will be based on seniority, achievement or both.

f. **Written Records/Documentation -** This involves recording of all administrative acts, decisions, rules, instructions and plans. Modern institutions like schools, colleges and universities have many of the characteristics enumerated by Weber.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Review the Element of Bureaucracy.

**Table 2:    Critique of Functions and Dysfunctions of Weberian Bureaucracy**

| Bureaucratic Characteristics | Function | Dysfunction |
|---|---|---|
| Division of labour | Expertise | Boredom |
| Impersonal orientation | Rationality | Lack of morals |
| 3.    Hierarchy    of authority | Discipline compliance, coordination | Communication blocks |
| 4.    Rules    and regulations | Continuity    and uniformity | Rigidity    and    goal displacement |
| Career orientation | Incentive | Conflict    between achievement    and seniority. |
| 6.    Written records    / documentation | Democracy, predictability    and stability | Costs    of    controls, impersonality,    anxiety, limitations    of categorisation. |

*Source:*    Adapted    from    Peretomode    (1991)    Educational Administration,    Applied    Concepts    and    Theoretic Perspectives pg 53. From Hoy & Miskel (1987)

Dysfunctions of bureaucracy occur. That is why Weber stated that even though bureaucratic model is the best suited to social organisations, in ideal circumstances; he recognised that the rational – legal – bureaucracy will not be filled in all social, economic contexts. Weber himself warned against the dangers of "Massive Uncontrollable Bureaucracies". He acknowledges that different societal context would produce the form of organisations best suited to their particular needs.

## 3.2    Getzel and Guba's Theory of Organisational Behaviour

Obi (2003) opined that this theory is based on the assumption that the achievement of a social system, irrespective of the nature of the task, requires the combined efforts of a number of people with varying functions and responsibilities, whose position in the social system are usually vertically arranged to establish the relationships between the superiors and the subordinates (Morphet, Johnis & Reller, 1974).

Getzel and Guba presented two elements (subsystems) of a social system. The first is the institutional subsystem which they define in terms of certain roles and expectations which are organised to achieve the goals of the system. These institutional elements which Getzel and Guba labelled the Nomothetic Dimension, explain the behaviour of individuals in terms of dominant roles and expectations aimed at achieving goals. The second is the Personality Subsystem which embraces the personalities and needs of the people in the system who provides the energy to achieve goals. These personalities and needs explain behaviour in psychological terms with respect to the unique personalities and need – dispositions of the individuals. Getzel and Guba called the personality subsystem the Idiographic Dimension.

Nomothetic Dimension (Institutional subsystem)
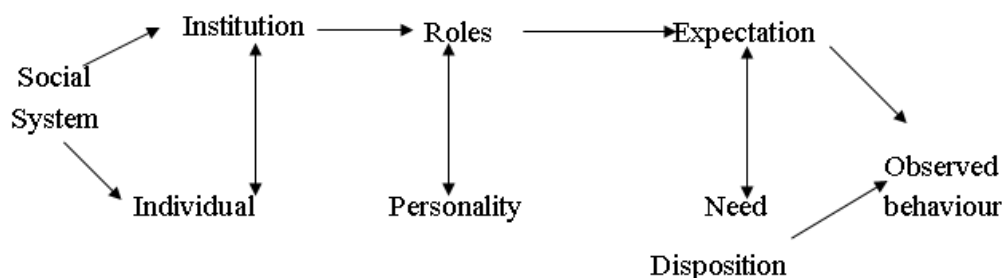


Idiographic Dimension (Personal subsystem)

Source: *Adapted from Getzel and Guba (1957)*

**Fig. 3:        Getzel and Guba Subsystems of a Social System**

The basic argument of this theory is that organisations like schools are established for the purpose of achieving their goals and fostering their own survival through the efforts of the individuals that comprise them. So in an attempt to ensure the realisation of the goals of the organisation, the individual's interest tends to be swallowed up. There is conflict. The truth is that individuals in realising their lives purposes by way of satisfying their needs and interest through many avenues tend to adversely affect the goals of the organisation. From the two sides of the

argument, the impression is that the individuals and the organisation are constantly in an apparent cold war.

According to the theory, the observed behaviour of an individual in an organisation is a function of the interaction between the organisational and the individual dimensions. This theory has exposed the apparent dichotomy between the individual and the organisational dimensions in a social system such as schools. It has also helped us to know that for us to understand or judge the behaviour of a positional incumbent or focal person or occupant of a position, it would be necessary to understand both the individual and the organisational dimensions. This theory can also be used to classify the behaviour of administrators or even the workers.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Of what use is Getzels and Guba's theory to an Organisation?

## 3.3    System Theory (General)

A system is a series of interrelated and interdependent parts, such that the interaction of any part (subsystem) affects the whole system. This concept can be traced back to Aristotle who suggested that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. The system's approach to administration is interdisciplinary and provides a means for viewing the school in terms of its general properties and its specific dynamics (Lipham & Hoeh Jr., 1974). It focuses on the interrelationships and linkages between and among the subunits of the school as well as on the relationship of the school to its larger environment.

The theory rests on the belief that education has different parts performing different functions but in such a way that each part interacts and is interdependent with other parts and with other systems (environment) around it. Therefore what affects one part, affects the other parts in the system and its environment. Systems may be open or closed (Grifith, 1964 in Obi, 2003). An open system is related to the environment and exchanges matters with it, while a closed system is not related to nor does it exchange matter with its environment. Katz and Kaln (1966) maintained that although educational system, like other human organisations, has some special characteristics and properties of its own, it still shares other properties in common with all open systems.

There are some characteristics of the open system which the educational system shares with other systems. They include:

•        Input output

- Cycle of events
- Negatrophy
- Differentiation and equifinality

## 3.3.1 Basic Systems Concepts of Relevance to Educational Organisations

Components             –     Refer to parts
Boundary               –     More or less arbitrary demarcation of units
Environment            –     Refers to everything (physical and social factors) external to the system
Inputs                 –     Those messages or stimuli that trigger off the internal components of a system to perform those activities for which the system was designed.

These are      (a)     Energy inputs           (b)     Information inputs

Output                 –     Refers to all that the system produces
Open systems boundaries. –   Have   relatively   highly   permeable
Closed systems         –     Have relatively highly rigid, impermeable boundaries.
Subsystem              –     Refers to a system that exists within a larger system.
Suprasystem            –     A larger system of which a particular system is a part
Equilibrium            –     The tendency of a system to achieve a state of balance or stability among the many forces or factors operating upon the system or within it.
Disequilibrium         –     A state of instability or imbalance in which some components of the system overloads others.
Entropy                –     Related to the concept of organisational equilibrium
Negatropy              –     The tendency of an organisation to combat 'death' or disorganisation (entropy). It is also referred to as negative entropy.
Equifinality           –     Refers to "a property of a system which permits different results from similar inputs and similar results from alternate inputs".
Feedback               –     The process through which the organisation learns. It is the input from the environment

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
|   |   | to the system, telling it how it is doing as a result of its output to the environment. |
| Synergy | – | That is the whole is greater than the sum of its parts |
| Flow | – | A term sometimes used to refer to both inputs and outputs |
| Throughput | – | Also referred to as the "black box" or "transformation process" or ''conversion process'', it is the processing of information, energy and resources available to social or open systems. The school for example processes students (as new intakes – inputs) to produce enlightened and educated citizens (Peretomode, 1991). |

System theory is relevant in educational management practices today because no leader can overlook the system approach in any modern, complex organisation. It enables the manager to approach a phenomenon from the system point of view thereby seeing clearly, the critical variables in interaction and thus makes possible the changes of observing alternative line of action. The manager is also able to relate and interpret educational problems to several factors like economic, political, religious etc.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Enumerate the basic system concepts relevant to educational organisations.

## 3.4    McGregor Theory of Human Motivation

This theory attempted to show the contrasting ways of perceiving staff and therefore of staff motivation or control. Douglas McGregor, in developing theory X and theory Y formulations, clearly presents fundamental alternatives for managing the employee and work. The theory argues that the manager's control over his staff, depends on the assumptions of theory **x** and or theory **y.**

**The assumptions of theory X are that:**

1.    People are lazy, dislike and avoid work.
2.    Administrators must use both "carrot and stick" to motivate them i.e. workers must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment, so that they will work towards the goals of the organisation.

3.    Managers believe that the average person (educators, student) is by nature indolent, lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility and prefers to be led.
4.    Managers hold that the individual (educator, student) is inherently self-centred and indifferent to organisational needs unless motivated by personal gain.
5.    They also believe that people are by nature resistant to change, not very bright, and ready dupes for crusaders, charlatans, and demagogues (Hoy and Miskel, 1982).

**The assumptions of theory Y are that:**

1.    People have psychological need to work and that they desire achievement and responsibility.
2.    Peter Drucker relates theory y to Maslow's and Herzberg's theories. In Maslow's terms, theory Y assumes that people strive for self-actualisation, and in Herzberg's terms workers want intrinsic, satisfier, or motivator factors from their jobs.
3.    Drucker observes that employees, even those who are hostile to supervisors and to the organisation (school), want to like their job and look for achievement.

| Theory X | Theory Y |
|---|---|
| 1. People are inherently evil | People are inherently good |
| 2. Instinct drives people | Humanism drives people |
| 3. Coercion motivates the individual | Cooperation motivates the individual |
| 4. Competition is a natural state | Cooperation is a natural state |
| 5. The individual is most important | The group is most important |
| 6. Pessimism is pervasive | Optimism is pervasive |
| 7. Work is inherently distasteful | Work is intrinsically rewarding |

Source**: Adapted from Hoy & Miskel (1982) pg 173**

**Fig. 4:       Interpretations of Theory X and Theory Y**

Educational managers who accept the assumptions of theory x and theory y will utilise their essential ideas in their policy making, in making decisions and administrative functions.

**Applications of Theory X and Y to Education**

•    Administrators who subscribe to theory X view their roles as motivating, controlling and modifying behaviour.

- They often use counterproductive approaches:

1. Characterised by authoritarian and coercive leadership
2. Human relations or democratic and paternalistic patterns dominate administrative practices.

- Emphasis is on persuading, rewarding, and controlling subordinates.

**Theory y** assumptions view their job as that of arranging school conditions and methods of operation to facilitate and support student and teacher efforts.

- Consequently, students and teachers are better able to provide for their own satisfaction as well as to contribute to the school's goals.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

Outline the assumptions of Theory X and Theory Y respectively.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

The development of theories played a greater role in the management of organisation especially schools. This has helped schools managers to surmount complex challenges facing them in school administration. Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy is best suited to the large and complex organisation like schools that take care of large number of pupils. Other theories discussed were also very relevant to institutions of learning.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, theories of organisation were discussed. They include Max Weber's theory of bureaucracy, Getzels and Guba's theory of organisational behaviour, system theory as well as McGregor's theory of human motivation.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List four theories of organisation and discuss two of them.
2. Outline and explain 5 elements / features of bureaucracy
3. Critique the functions and dysfunctions of Weberian bureaucracy
4. Explain the Nomothetic and Idiographic dimensions of an institution. Illustrate.
5. Outline the characteristics of open system which the educational system shares with other systems.

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## UNIT 5     THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0     INTRODUCTION

A critical study of the educational system of any society will show a lot about the people, their needs, their hopes and their aspirations (Ukeje, Akabuogu & Ndu, 1992). This is because the school exists in an environment. It reflects that particular society and the way it is structured to help control and guide the behaviour of its members. Each society sets up social institutions that render specific services to the members. The school is one of such institutions. It is set up to help control through the manipulation of the environment, the development of the young towards ends that are regarded as desirable by the society. As a social institution, the school is affected by the various forces within the society. Socio-cultural, religious, technological etc. can be these forces. These forces act collectively to determine the quality and quality of the output from the school. The culture is the most potent of these forces.

## 2.0     OBJECTIVES

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

•       evaluate the school as a social system
•       discuss  forces that affect the school
•       identify potential conflicts in a social system
•       discuss supervision in childhood institutions
•       identify a head teacher.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    The School and its Community

The school is a social system found in a community. During our discussion of the general systems, we established that an organised whole or system occurring in an environment is fundamental in both the physical and social sciences. It was also noted that a system consists of elements that are so interdependent that a change in one element is likely to produce a change in other elements. This is illustrated in the social systems theory. According to Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992), the focus of social systems theory is on the function of the individual, as well as on the one who occupies duties or functions within the social system (school). Organisational behaviour is viewed in the light of this interaction between the demands of the organisational requirements and the needs, social functions and dispositions of the individual. Suffice it to say that the individual in a community experiences a lot of forces.

### 3.1.1  Socio-Cultural Forces

The way of life of a particular group of people is known as culture. It is the totality of the way people do their own things. It includes a wide range of material and non-material aspects of their life - their artefacts like houses, tools, clothing and ornaments as well as their beliefs, values, norms, customs and attitudes. Culture is learned and shared by the group for organising and perpetuating themselves. It is handed down from one generation to another through the process of education or interaction with other members of the society who act as socialising agents. In formal education, the school is the environment for socialisation. In the school, the teachers are the major socialising agents. They have the responsibility for developing the required skills, knowledge and attitudes in the learner. Culture is not static; therefore, it is continually being modified throughout the history of the society. For this reason, the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to be transmitted through education will at any particular time be affected by the society's current philosophy and values.

Philosophy as part of culture provides a conception of the ideal life for the society and so prescribes what values, attitudes and skills the school should aim at. These will then give prescription for the objectives the school would set for the learner, the content of school work as well as the learning experiences to be provided for the learner. A society or group that values spiritual attainment will de-emphasise objectives that will focus primarily on equipping the learner for the acquisition of material gains. A society that admires democracy will probably advice

the school to democratise its curriculum and provide education for all, with a wide range of opportunities for individuals to identify their needs and also adopt methods that respect individual – personality and effort. The content of school work will therefore include elements of the culture and other knowledge and skills that are consistent with philosophy of the society.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

What effect has the socio-cultural force on the school?

### 3.1.2  Political – Economic Forces

Politics concerns the power to take decisions that affect the entire community. Whoever has the political power in any society – power to rule and govern power to make top level policies, power to legislate, is in a position to take decisions that affect both economy and the education of that society. The political ideology of the leaders will determine what they will do with education. It will determine the goals they will pursue through education and how they will organise education to achieve the stated goals. It is a known fact that the survival of any political or social ideal requires an educational system through which it will be sold. So, political leaders who hold the reins of power usually find it difficult to give up their control of education. They control education either directly or indirectly and use it to advance their own interests and maintain their own positions.

### 3.1.3  The Impact of Religion

The effect of religion is felt more on curriculum matters than in administration. Religion is a discipline that emphasises the spiritual development of the individual. A country or community with an established religion will not have many problems putting their ideas in the school systems. There will be no conflict of standards either, as both the church and the state will have the same ideas emphasised in education. In countries like Nigeria where various religious beliefs exist and people are free to worship their God in their own way, the church cannot wade directly into education as this will cause conflict in the system. The school will of a necessity teach comparative religion without developing the dogma of any religious group.

### 3.1.4  The Impact of Social and Technological Change

The society is in a state of continual change with one change leading to another or even generating another. As a result of this, the old learning quickly gets obsolete, irrelevant or inadequate. As the environment

changes, the people adjust or adapt to it in an attempt to achieve equilibrium. There are new skills, new methods, new attitudes, new beliefs, new materials and equipments. These changes in the society force the school to make curricula change accordingly. These changes can be social or technological.

Goshin (1965:44) stated that "The technology of a society is that aspect of its culture that is primarily concerned with the capacity of the members of the society to adapt to their environment.'' This implies that every society possesses a technology but the level of development of this varies from society to society.

## 3.2    The School as a Social System

Hoy and Forsyth (1986) define a social system as an aggregate of human relationships such as neighbourhoods, organisation or society itself. While Homan (1950) in Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992) describes a social system thus:

- The activities, interactions and sentiments of group members, together with the mutual relations of these elements with one another during the time the group is active, constitute what we shall call the social system. Everything that is not part of the social system is part of the environment in which the system exists.



**Source:**        *Hoy and Miskel (1982): 65*

**Fig. 4:       Reformulated Elements of a Social Systems Model of School**
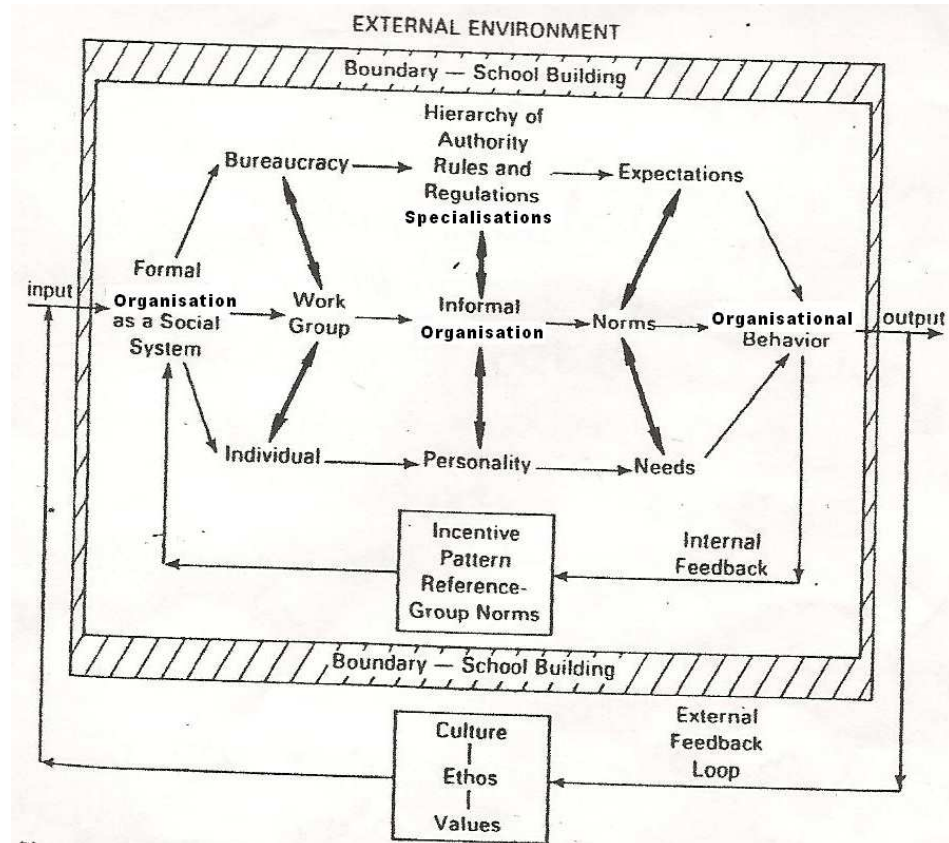
Figure 4.5    Elaborated Structural Elements Using Getzels–Guba and Abbott Adaptation Social Systems Model

Forsyth (1986) embraces Homan's, Parson's, and Hoy and Miskel's conceptualisations of social system by stating that:

- A social system is a set of interacting personalities bound together by social relationships. It is characterised by interdependencies of elements, differentiation from its environment, complex network of social relationships, individual actors motivated by their personalities, a distinctive unity that goes beyond its component parts, and interactions with its environment (open system).

From the above definitions, social systems consist of individuals who must work in harmony and in concert. For instance, social systems are peopled by individuals who act in the roles of administrators, teachers, students, clerks and so on. There is interaction among and between individuals etc.

As a social institution set up by the society, the school is expected to play certain roles and perform certain functions for the society. The most basic of these is the transmission of knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, beliefs, mores, and norms, that are culturally relevant or current to

the learner and it is more imperative in recent times when most families are no longer stable. The school is presently charged with the responsibility of preparing the youth for active and intelligent participation as adult members of the society. The school achieves this by equipping the youths with the attitudes, skills, values and knowledge needed for participation in the society.

The following reasons conclude that the school is a social system.

1.     It consists of a clearly defined population, for instance, all members of the school organisation such as students, teachers, the principal, and other school personnel working to achieve the goals of the school.
2.     It is a system of social interactions comprising of an interdependence of parts. Such social interactions include communicating, cooperating, competing and so on.
3.     It is composed of a network of social relationships. Some like each other and some dislike.
4.     There is differentiation from its environment. The environment is anything outside the boundaries of the school social system.
5.     Schools are open systems because they are affected by forces from their environments such as values, politics, and history of the community. Other ways in which  they are affected include:

(a)    their interdependence with their environment for existence
(b)    their interdependence with parents and the community
(c)    their functioning is affected by the family backgrounds of the students and

6.     It possesses its own unique culture such as shared beliefs and orientation, including values, social norms and roles.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

What makes school a social system?

## 3.3    Potential Conflicts in a Social System

Conflict is best defined as the pursuit of incompatible interests and goals by different groups (Francis, 2006). The model of a formal organisation as a social system suggests that a number of potential conflicts are possible, if not probable, in the organisational life of schools. The opportunity for conflicts exists in and among all the major dimensions of the system. The model focuses attention on (a) Role (b) Norm and (c) Personality conflicts. Others include (d) Role - Personality (e) Role – Norm and (f) Norm – Personality conflicts. In addition, conflict between

the system components and parts of the environment are likely e.g. conflicts can arise between role expectations within the organisation and the value structure of the community.
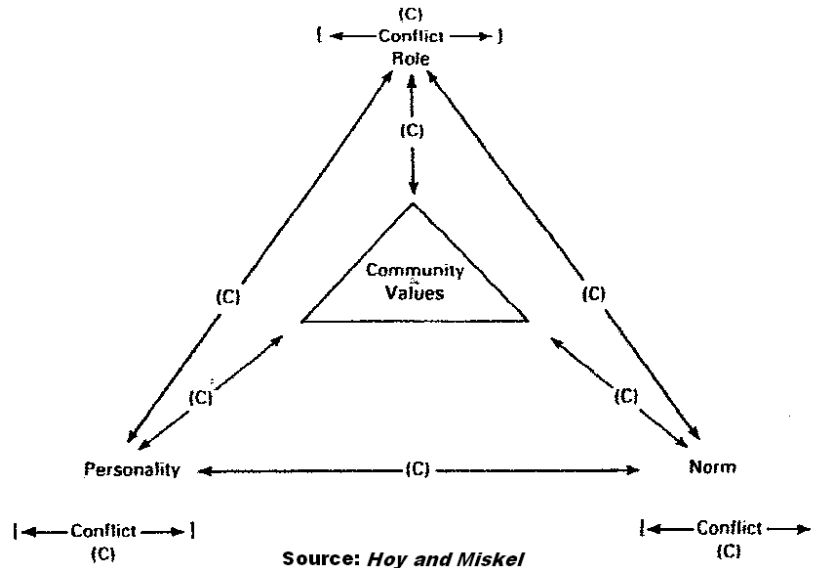


Source: *Hoy and Miskel*

**Figure 4.8   Sources of Organisational Conflict**

1.  **Role Conflict** – Occurs where there is inconsistency of expectations associated with a role. Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968) in Ukeje *et al.* (1992) explain thus; wherever a role incumbent is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory or inconsistent, he is said to be in conflict situation. The numerous role expectations associated with one's formal position in the organisation are often inconsistent and produce strains. For example, the head teacher of a school may be expected to serve as disciplinarian and counsellor, or the principal may be expected to be both evaluator and supervisor.

Getzels *et al.,* describe three types of role conflict in educational organisation as:

(a)   Conflict between roles
(b)   Conflict between reference groups and
(c)   Conflict within reference group.

In (a), an individual often has a set of roles to perform at the same time.

In (b), conflict arises as a result of contradiction among several groups each defining its expectations for the same role. This is inter – reference group.

In (c), it results from contradiction within a single reference group defining a given role. This is intra – reference group.

2. **Personality Conflict** – Personality conflict arises from basic incompatibilities in the need structure of the individual.
3. **Norm conflict** – In the informal organisation is the functional equivalent of role conflict in the formal organisation. It results when there is inherent conflict and tension between informal norms.
4. **Role – Personality Conflict** – Individuals sometimes find themselves in roles for which they are not personally suited. The authoritarian guidance counsellor, the disorganised administrator, and the anti-intellectual teacher are examples of people whose personal need do not match the bureaucratic requirements of their positions.
5. **Norm – Personality Conflict –** refers to a similar contradiction that arises in the informal organisation. In this case, the personality needs of the individual and the norms of the informal organisation are not consistent. For instance, a new group member with a strong need to dominate may be headed for conflict with the established informal group leaders. In most groups new comers are expected to conform and respect established patterns initially.
6. **Role – Norm Conflict –** Arises from possible tension between the formal and informal organisation.

The school does not exist in a vacuum; it is influenced by its environment and an important part of societal and community values.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Do conflicts occur around your environment? Outline the types.

## 3.4   Supervision Of Schools

Education is an expensive enterprise and a worthwhile venture in Nigeria because of its dynamism. To show support for the venture, the Nigerian Education system must have a good supervision unit situated in the Ministry of Education and other agencies of the ministry. Modern supervision is positive democratic action aimed at the improvement of classroom instruction through the continual growth of all concerned.

Supervision is the process of enhancing and improving effective teaching and learning in schools (Nosiri, 1997). Good (1945) in Ogunu (2000) defined supervision as all efforts of designated school officials directed towards providing leadership to teachers and other educational

workers in the improvement of instruction. It involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of educational objectives, materials of instruction, and methods of teaching, and the evaluation of instruction.

Ogunu (1998) defines educational supervision as the art of overseeing the activities of teachers and other educational workers in a school system to ensure that they conform with generally accepted principles and practice of education and the stipulated policies and guidelines of the education authority which controls the system of education, and providing professional guidance to them (school personnel) to improve the conditions which affect the learning and growth of student s and teachers.

**Reasons for carrying out supervision in schools are:**

1.    To ensure that teachers have been performing the duties for which they were appointed.
2.    To assist teachers to develop and utilise methods and materials that will ensure the steady progress of each child and improve the professional effectiveness of the teachers.
3.    To evaluate the performance of the teachers recruited to teach in the school system.
4.    To provide specific help to teachers with problems on a day-to-day basis.
5.    To discover special abilities or qualities possessed by teachers in the school.
6.    To provide opportunities for staff development.
7.    To evaluate the effectiveness of classroom management by the teachers.
8.    To appraise the performance of the school.
9.    To identify the needs of the school.

**Techniques of Supervision of Instruction include the following:**

a)    Classroom visitation
b)    Teachers conference
c)    Inter-school visitation
d)    Micro teaching
e)    Educational workshops

**Cogan's Eight-Step Model of Clinical Supervision**

1.    Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship
2.    Planning with the teachers
3.    Planning the strategy of observation

4.    Observing the instruction
5.    Analysing the teaching-learning strategies
6.    Planning the strategy of instruction
7.    The conference
8.    Reviewed planning

## Role of Headmasters/Head teachers in Instructional Supervision

These include:

1.    Working with teachers in the development of instructional goals and objectives and ensuring that they are consistent with the national policy on education; that they are clearly understood and consistently followed.
2.    Providing teachers and other instructional staff with the necessary resources for effective teaching.
3.    Obtaining and making available to teachers all relevant educational information.
4.    Stimulating, encouraging, supporting and facilitating all activities designed to improve instruction.
5.    Visiting classrooms often to observe how teachers are teaching.
6.    Holding individual and group conferences with teachers to exchange views with them and discussing ways of improving instruction.
7.    Helping teachers in the evaluation and development of curriculum materials.
8.    Visiting other schools and curriculum centres for the purpose of finding out the good aspects of their curricular practices that can be utilised by his school.
9.    Developing a sound library and instructional resource centre in his school.
10.   Inspecting teacher's lesson notes, class registers, diaries and teaching aids and offering professional advice for their improvement.
11.   Encouraging teachers to participate in in-service courses and workshops and professional organisations.
12.   Ensuring that the progress of each student is systematically and accurately monitored, recorded and regularly communicated to parents.
13.   Organising orientation programmes for new members of staff.
14.   Evaluating all facts of the educational process directly related to instruction (Ogunu, 2000).

In performing the above functions, the head teacher should see his/her role as essentially that of  facilitation:- supplying teachers with better materials for instruction, establishing an effective distribution system

that enables the staff to get the materials when they want rather than controlling, directing and commanding them.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

Is the head teacher a supervisor? Discuss.

# 4.0    CONCLUSION

The school as a social organisation interacts deeply with the community where it exists. They are interrelated and inter-dependent. The school vis-a-vis the community experiences a lot of forces from each other:- socio-cultural, politico-economic, religious and technological. Management of this symbiotic but critical relationship is very important. In an organisation like the school, conflicts cannot be avoided, so the potential sources of conflict should be identified and handled. Furthermore, the role and importance of supervision in the school system as well as role of head teacher in school supervision must be given adequate attention by the school management for improved performance.

# 5.0    SUMMARY

This unit discussed the school as a social system, the school and its community, potential conflicts in a social system, teacher preparation, as well as supervision of schools. The role of the head teacher was also treated.

# 6.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.    Discuss the school as a social system.
2.    Using Getzels-Guba's Model explain the structural element of social systems.
3.    State the potential conflicts in a school.
4.    Explain the techniques of supervision of instruction.
5.    Enumerate Cogan's eight-step model of clinical supervision.

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**MODULE 2    POWER, AUTHORITY AND LEADERSHIP IN PRIMARY EDUCATION**

Unit 1    Bases of Leader Power
Unit 2    Authority
Unit 3    Leadership in Childhood Institution
Unit 4    Role of Primary School System as an Organisation
Unit 5    Discipline and Punishment in Childhood Institutions


**UNIT 1    BASES OF LEADER POWER**

**CONTENTS**

1.0    Introduction
2.0    Objectives
3.0    Main Content
    3.1    Reward Power
    3.2    Coercive Power
    3.3    Legitimate Power
    3.4    Expert Power
    3.5    Referent Power
    3.6    The Use of Power in School Administration
4.0    Conclusion
5.0    Summary
6.0    Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0    References/Further Reading

**1.0    INTRODUCTION**

Max Weber has defined power as the probability that an actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance. This includes force which is strictly coercive as well as control that is based on non-threatening persuasion and suggestion (Ukeje, Okorie & Nwagbara). According to Peretomode (1991) influence which is the element in leadership can be defined as the control which a person possesses and can exercise on others. Generally, the ability to influence, persuade and motivate others is based largely upon the perceived power of the leader.

In their own words, Stephen and Halsey (1973:294) in Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992) have outlined the following definitions of power.

1.    Power refers to potential acts, rather than to transactions actually occurring, it is the capacity to exert influence.

2.    A person may be said to have power to the extent that he influences the behaviour of others in accordance with his own intentions.
3.    Power is the capacity or ability to secure the dominance of one's values or goals over goals of others.
4.    Power in human analysis will mean the generalised ability to satisfy wants – money, status, knowledge, acceptance, persuasiveness, skill etc as particular forms of power.

Another important concept of power is that it refers to one's ability to influence the decision-making processes in an organisation. Sometimes the ability comes from authority associated with one's formal position in the hierarchical order. In other cases, those with little authority exert considerable influence (power) on the decision-making process of the organisation.

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

•      define the concept of power
•      identify and explain 5 sources and bases of a leader's power and influence
•      discuss the use of power in school administration.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Reward Power

This is the leader's capacity to reward followers. This is the power based on the ability of the school administrator to control and administer rewards to those who comply with his or her directives (Peretomode, 1991). The more a subordinate performs perfectly well, the more reward he receives. On the other hand, to the extent that a leader possesses and controls rewards that are valuable to subordinates, to that extent will his power increase. Two sources of power are open to the leader (Oku, Emenalo & Okeke, 2008).

(1)    Personal power e.g. praise, recognition, and attention.
(2)    Organisational power e.g. salary increases, promotion, study leave with pay and other incentives like payment of medical bills and other fringe benefits.

## 3.2    Coercive Power

This is power based on fear. This is also based on the ability of the leader to use punishment (reprimands and undesirable work assignment, suspension without pay, termination etc.) for non compliance with his or her orders or directives. This can also be broken into positional and organisational components:

Positional

Leaders ability to criticise or withhold recognition from followers

Organisational

Ability to administer punishment in the form of demotion, withholding increment, termination etc
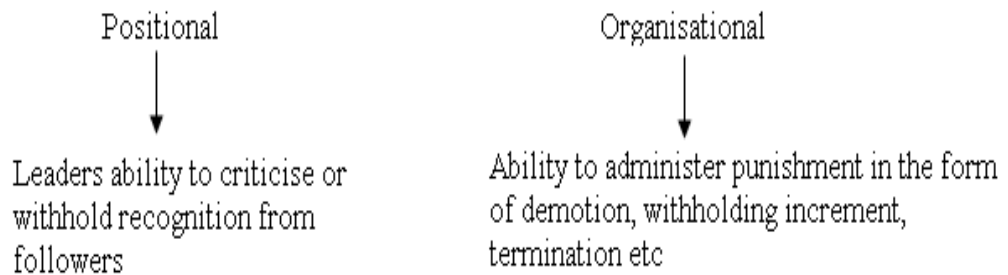
**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

What is power? Give two examples.

## 3.3    Legitimate Power

One possesses this power by virtue of his occupying a particular position or role in the organisation. All heads of institutions have legitimate power.

## 3.4    Expert Power

An expert is one who is knowledgeable in a particular field. Therefore, this is the power possessed by the leader as a result of his knowledge or expertise regarding the task to be performed by the group. It is natural to observe that subordinates respect and respond positively to the influence of leaders if they view them as competent in the area in question. They see him / her, therefore, as more capable of analysing, implementing and controlling those tasks with which the group have been charged.

## 3.5    Referent Power

This is dependent upon the extent to which the subordinates identify with the leader, that is, look up to and wish to emulate him / her. This refers also to power based on the attractiveness and appeal of the leader. Thus the more the subordinates admire and want to be like or emulate the leader the more he is able to influence them. This is commonly

associated with charismatic leaders. The leader is said to have charisma to inspire and attract followers and the followers often desire to be like the charismatic leader.
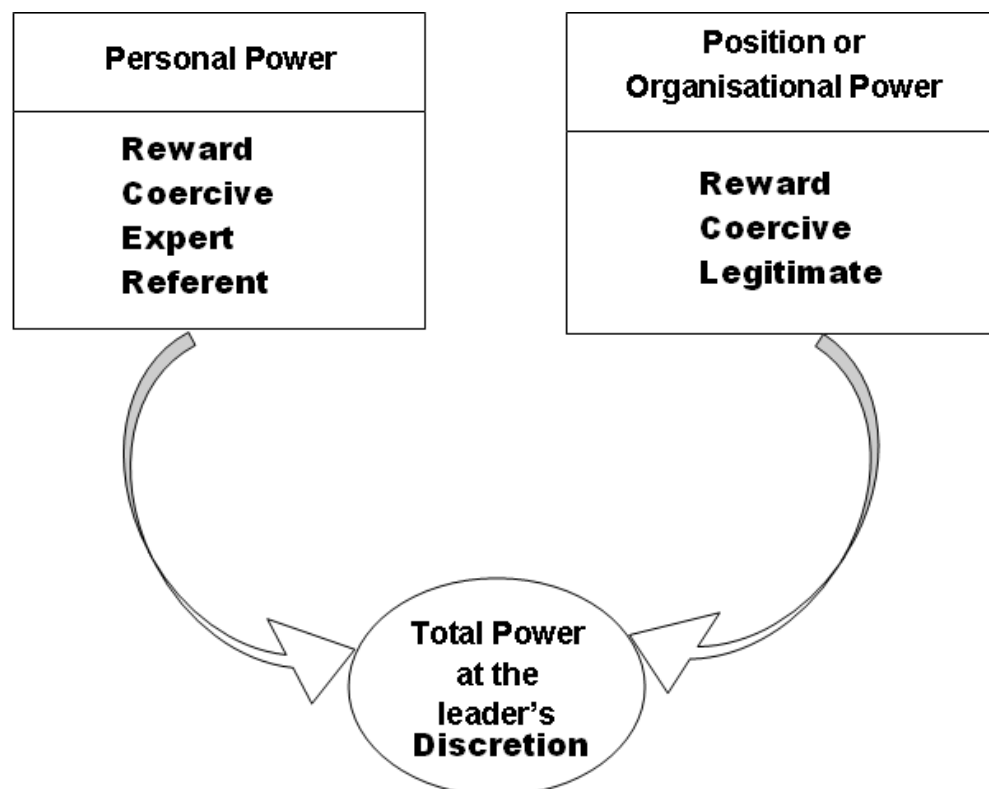


Source: *Adapted from Ukeje, Okorie & Nwagbara (1992)*

Fig. 1: Types of Power at the Leader's Discretion

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

What kind of power will you like to use as an administrator?

## 3.6    The Use of Power in School Administration

The use of power is not only necessary in childhood institutions' administration but in life as a whole. In educational management, different officials wield power. They include ministers, commissioners, education officers and inspectors, principals, head masters and teachers. Students and pupils have power in certain situations e.g. as prefects in organising extra-curricular activities, formulation of rules, running and maintenance of boarding institutions (Ocho, 1997).

Ndu *et al.* referencing Giles (1955) points out that power is used differently by different individuals according to their understanding of the concept of leadership. He made a distinction between 'power over'

and 'power with' the group. Power over group constrains initiative and creativity of the group and therefore limits productivity. According to Giles, under the group approach to leadership, a leader is not concerned with getting and maintaining personal authority. His chief purpose is to develop group power that will enable the group to accomplish its goals. He does not conceive of his power as something apart from the power of the group. He is concerned with developing the type of relationships that will give him power with the group.

Giles believes that this approach offers greater control of the group because the group itself will bring pressure to bear on individual members to achieve group goals. Under this condition, the duty of the authority is to administer the controls the group imposes on itself. This view supports cooperative procedures in educational administration. No individual or group in a school has final or ultimate authority to determine goals. All concerned with the purposes of the school should cooperate according to their different positions and orientation in determining what goes on in the school. Among them are – the people or the community where the school exists, ministry of education officials, the head master, the teachers and the pupils. Each group has a stake in the outcome of school education.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Will you like to apply power in your school as a leader? What approach will you use?

## 4.0  CONCLUSION

To properly engage you in the understanding of bases of leader power, it was necessary to digest the concept of power adequately as presented in this unit. Power being the ability to influence others in decision-making; it is necessary to study the situation before applying the source of power that will help achieve the goal. You may decide to use positional or organisational component in the case of coercive power. On the whole therefore, the success of any school administration depends largely on the efficient use of leader power within the school system.

## 5.0  SUMMARY

In this unit, we have explored the sources of leader power which include: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power and referent power. The use of power in school administration was also adequately discussed.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define the concept of power.
2(a) Identify five sources / bases of power to a leader
(b) Explain them briefly
3. Discuss the use of power in school administration.
4. How can you as a manager apply power practically in your school administration?

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## UNIT 2    AUTHORITY

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0    INTRODUCTION

Authority is a particular type of power. According to Katz and Kahn (1966:203) authority is a legitimate power to compel others to obedience. For instance, a kidnapper has the power to kidnap somebody but he has no authority to do so. He will be prosecuted and punished for exercising illegitimate power. On the other hand, Max Weber (1947) in Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992) defined authority as the probability that certain specific commands from a given source will be obeyed by a given group of persons. Authority is power vested on a position and recognised as such not only by the incumbent but by others within and without the organisation (Ocho, 1997).

Just as responsibility is derived from functional analysis, authority is derived from responsibility. In other words, authority imposes responsibility. Therefore a person should have no authority unless he has been assigned some responsibility. For example a person who has authority to spend public funds has the responsibility to ensure that such funds are judiciously spent and accounted for. The head master/ mistress or principal of a school is sometimes referred to as school authority. This is because he has been given power and authority to be responsible for all that goes on in the school.

In the lower level jobs, it is often necessary and desirable to clearly specify the responsibility and the requisite authority and to have them closely supervised and controlled. This is to minimise or control the

common tendency, at this level, to overstep the limits of one's authority or to become too officious or overzealous. The source of authority in an organisation is always from above and through delegation. There are different types of authority.

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what authority means
- outline and discuss five types of authority
- discuss the need for rational – legal authority
- distinguish between power and authority
- discuss justification for the use of authority
- outline the problems of power and authority in school management and supervision.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1    Traditional Authority

This is based on the established belief in the sanctity of the status of those who exercised authority in the past (Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992). Here authority is inherited and the only orientation to rules is to the precedents of the group's history (Ocho, 1997). Obedience is to the traditionally sanctioned position of authority. The person who occupies the position inherits the authority ascribed to it and established by custom. For example, the authority of the people who are appointed to positions because they were born into certain families. This form of authority is not necessarily related to the reasons for having it and birth right is not a relevant ground for appointment into modern positions.

### 3.2    Charismatic Authority

This rests on devotions to an extraordinary individual who is leader by virtue of personal trust or exemplary qualities. He may be very fluent and speaks wisely or very courageous or may have magical or supernatural qualities. Such authority is not bound by rules of any kind, and tends to be non – rational, affective, or emotional and rests heavily on the leader's personal qualities and characteristics. As time progresses, it may move toward legalisation as the followers develop rules for admission of new members and for a system of hierarchy of positions (Oku, Emenalo & Okeke).

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Explain briefly what is involved in traditional authority and charismatic authority?

## 3.3    Rational – Legal Authority

This is based on the enacted laws that can be changed formally to correct procedures. Thus, this is assigned authority that could be removed through formal procedures. Obedience is not owned to the person or the position per se, but to the law that specifies to whom and to what extent people own compliance. Once such a person is out of office, he loses the authority.

Robert Peabody (1962) in Ukeje *et al.* (1992) identified two types of authority: formal and functional.

### 1.    Formal Authority

Formal authority is based on legitimacy and position. It is vested on the organisation and is legally established in positions, rules and regulations. New entrants into an organisation are generally obliged to sign an undertaking to accept the authority to command and the employees have the duty to obey. There is also informal authority which is derived from personal behaviour and attributes of an individual. Such an authority is legitimised by the norms of the informal organisation.

### 2.    Functional Authority

This is based on the competence and personal skills of the individual. In organisations, technical competence could be a source of legitimate control, thereby formalising the authority.

## 3.4    Other Forms of Authority

A person may be endowed in a particular area of human endeavour, and as such may be described as an authority in the area. For example, Professor Chike Obi of Mathematics, Professors Chinua Achebe and Wole Soyinka of Literature etc. This means that they are persons whose pronouncements in these areas carry a lot of weight because they have studied the subject for a long time and have become experts in them.

As children, we were under the authority of our parents. The authority of the institution in society is indispensable. Suffice it to say that we think, teach, and learn only on the authority of the family, school, the church or religion. They are part of the unifying influence of society. They also

give stability which enables us to feel free to explore, criticise and try new experiences which establish values. In a school situation also, students may be given authority as prefects in consideration of their capabilities.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Briefly discuss formal and functional authorities.

## 3.5    Justification for the Use of Authority

From our exposure so far concerning authority, it is clear that we cannot escape authority. From observations, there is a close link between freedom and authority. This is because the only way of guaranteeing freedom is by the institution of authority. The National Policy on Education (2004) stated that Nigeria desires to be a free, just and democratic nation and that in such a nation the individual should be treated with respect and his interests accorded recognition. If unlimited freedom is granted to men, the stronger and powerful will dominate the world and constrain the freedom of the weaker ones (Ocho, 1997). In such a situation, power will be used arbitrarily rather than rationally. In social life therefore, an impersonal, legal and rational authority is necessary in order to guarantee conditions of security for the generality of people so that everybody can enjoy a measure of freedom under the constraint of authority.

A structure of authority is necessary in an organisation so as to ensure that members comply with role requirements. Such authority will handle issues of obedience and disobedience to organisational rules and regulations. The authority will also undertake the employment of new members, coordinating the work of the organisation, responding to external changes and making decisions.

It is necessary to institutionalise authority in the sphere of knowledge in educational institutions. Hist and Peters (1980:113) stated that "it takes civilised men to bring up other civilised people". Society has become so complex that no man can possibly fully understand the industrialised world. This necessitates the establishment of authorities in different branches of learning in addition to the general authority of the institution that ensures that the atmosphere is conducive to the growth and transfer of knowledge. No authority is ultimate because all authorities do make mistakes. Authorities in specialised areas of learning or activity should be regarded as provisional. It is the duty of such authorities to ensure that their students learn enough to challenge their authority or even overthrow it.

Teachers are assumed to be authorities in administration and specialised areas of learning. The authority system of the school can only be respected if staffs are appointed on relevant grounds to discharge various responsibilities on behalf of the community or nation. Teachers should not be employed on the basis of gratification offered because this is one sure way of undermining school authority. Employment should be considered on expertise.

Educational institutions are centrally concerned with the advancement and transmission of various forms of skill, knowledge and values and so such overriding purposes should determine the structure of the authority within the institutions. This ensures academic freedom for teachers; freedom to teach and disseminate knowledge and to carry on research without hindrance. Academics should be responsible for drawing up the syllabuses, appointing their colleagues, selecting and examining students. Cooperative procedures demand that learners and teachers be made to regard learning as a joint enterprise, though ultimate responsibility for content and method rest with the academic which is supposed to be an authority.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

Why is it necessary to use authority at school?

## 3.6    Power and Authority: Distinction

Power is the ability to force people to obey instructions and rules, while authority involves obeying orders voluntarily by those receiving them. Power is not legitimate while authority in school administration is legitimate.

## 3.7    Problems of Authority and Power

This problem area is a further projection of the problem of over – centralisation of school administration at the education ministry headquarters and also the multiplicity of controlling agencies. As a result the head master/principal finds himself in a position where his authority is diminished and also where he has to frequently seek for permission to use such authority as he deems fit (Ezeocha, 1985).

Nowadays, principals/head teachers are denied definite authority to discipline staff and students adequately. They may have themselves being chastised by authorities above them if they use such authority. This leads to lack of discipline amongst staff and students. This situation is further aggravated by the fact that most of the teachers in our schools

are not fully trained and so are not well disciplined to teach our young children.

The heads of institutions are not allowed a free hand to use their school finances to run the schools. They have to clear first at the headquarters and this, as has already been pointed out is time – wasting. This means that most of the school needs are never met and this has its own negative effects on good administration.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Does authority and power pose any problem in school administration?

## 4.0    CONCLUSION

Authority is indispensable in school administration. An impersonal, legal and rational authority is necessary in order to guarantee conditions of security for the generality of people. This ensures a measure of freedom. Different forms of authority have been discussed, as well as some of the problems that are encountered in the process of implementation or enforcement of authority.

## 7.0    SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt about types of authority: traditional authority, charismatic authority, rational – legal authority, and other forms of authority. We also discussed justification for the use of authority, distinction between power and authority, and problems of power and authority in school management and supervision.

## 8.0     TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.      What is authority?
2.      Outline and discuss five sources of authority
3.      Discuss the need for rational – legal authority
4.      Is there any distinction between power and authority?
5.      Discuss justification for the use of authority
6.      Give an overview of the problems of power and authority in school management and supervision.

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## UNIT 3        LEADERSHIP IN CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0    INTRODUCTION

Leadership is of particular importance in educational administration because of its far-reaching effects on accomplishment of school programmes, objectives and the attainment of educational goals (Peretomode, 1991). Due to its role in the success or failure of organisations, leadership has long been a focus of study by students, practitioners, theorists and researchers, particularly in the 21st century. Hence effective leadership is seen as one of the most important ingredients for administrative success (Ayanniyi, 2007). In fact, it has been identified by researchers as crucial in institutional effectiveness. Indeed it is a major factor in the determination of the success and progress not only for an institution but even for a nation.

That is why, it is generally accepted that the quality of leadership in an organisation, be it religious, social, business, military or otherwise affects to a large extent, the success or failure of that organisation (Ukeje, Akabuogu, Ndu, 1992).

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

• define leadership
• identify who  a leader is
• discuss effectively at least three theories of leadership
• explain the dimensions of leadership
• describe briefly three leadership styles and their effects on school management.

## 3.0  MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    What is Leadership and Who is a Leader?

**What Is Leadership?**

There is no single satisfying definition of leadership because the phenomenon is too complex and too varied to be captured by any one definition. For example leadership according to Halphin (1966) is "the fictional behaviour of a leader in relation with subordinates to facilitate accomplishment of the group goals". Nwankwo (1988) speaks of leadership as concerning with "the initiation, organisation and direction of the actions of the members of a group in a specific situation towards the achievement of the objectives of the group''.

From these definitions of leadership some major conceptualisation can be summarised. According to Ukeje (1988, 1994), they include:

1.     Taking initiative to achieve group purpose
2.     Initiating new structures or procedures for the accomplishment of organisational goals or objectives.
3.     The possession of some power or personal attributes that are usually normative in nature.
4.     Directing and coordinating the activities of others towards goal achievement.
5.     The interrelationship between the leader and the situational variables.

From the above conceptualisation we deduce that:

- Leadership is a process of influencing, directing and coordinating the activities of an organised group towards goals, goal achievement and problem-solving. Leadership occurs whenever one wants to influence the behaviour of an individual or a group regardless of the reason.
- Leadership always involves followership and the situations under which different groups and individuals will follow vary considerably.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

In your own words define leadership?

**Who is a Leader?**

Firstly, leadership in itself means the condition or skill of being a leader. Corbally (1965) says "a leader is one who leads" and to lead means to guide in direction, course, action and the like. To lead implies to show the way, it also connotes commanding an organisation or a group.

Administrators are leaders, but all leadership in an organisation, however is not exercised by the administrator, nor is all the leadership present in an organisation exerted from within that organisation. An administrator plays some leadership roles. Corbally (1965) puts the situation thus, when talking about leadership in an organisation, "we are talking about administrators as well as about officers, when we talk about administrators we are not talking about all of the leadership in an organisation''.

Supporting this view Andrew and Davis (1956) say "it is important to distinguish between those who occupy positions of authority and those who are operational leaders". These two groups are not necessarily the same though they are not exclusive in themselves in the sense that a person can be in or an authority and at same time a functional leader.

From this stand-point two kinds of leadership emerge, the 'status' leader and the 'functional leader'.

In education status leaders have titles such as chairman, commissioners, presidents, superintendents, principals or headmasters etc. Such status leaders in many instances are accepted by groups as leaders only by virtue of the positions which they hold.

A functional leader is one who is acknowledged and accepted by a group whether or not he holds a status position. Nevertheless, functional leadership is a worthwhile goal which every good administrator or status leader should strive to reach.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Differentiate between the status and functional leader.

Pigors (1935) wrote, "Domination tend to breed unquestionship tenor, on the other hand, it results in high moral and effective group action". Therefore, following the above trend of thought we come up with another classification of leadership beside "status leaders and functional leaders". They are as follows:

1.      Dictatorial/Authoritarian or Authoritarian leadership

2.      Participatory or Democratic leadership and
3.      Laissez-faire or Disappearing

- An **Autocratic Leader** is a leader who assumes almost all of the responsibility in deciding for what purposes a group will strive, what actions will be followed in reaching these purposes and specially what action each member of the group will contribute to the total group action. This type of leader assumes that he knows all the answers.
- **Laissez-Faire** leader is one who feels that leadership should reside with the group rather than with any single (person) member of the group. He feels that one of his tasks is to reduce dependency of the group members upon himself.
- **Democratic leader** is interested in bringing people together so that they work effectively and happily to achieve agreed-upon goal. He does not compel, decide, coerce, order, drive or force others to accept his will. He gets his way through conviction and by invoking his mandate 'we agreed'.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Define Leadership and identify who a Leader is?

## 3.2    Theories of Leadership

Five main approaches to the study of leadership have been identified and will be discussed under the following subheadings:

- Trait theory
- Personal-Behavioural theory
- Situation theory
- Contingency theory
- Path-Goal theory.

### 3.2.1  The Trait Theory

The earliest studies of leadership were characterised by the search for personality traits or attributes which effective leaders were thought to possess. The theory rested on the great man concept that leaders are born not made. It was believed that the inherent personal characteristics, qualities or attributes are transferable from one situation to the other, and that only those who possessed such trait were potential leaders.
Studying leadership by this approach, attention is focused on the natural traits of the individual such as physical attributes, personality traits and general ability characteristics.

Researchers in this school of thought- Stogdill (1948), Pierce and Merrill (1974), Mahoney Jerdes, and Nash (1948), were quick to point out that identified traits associated more with the personality of the leader rather than the roles leaders were supposed to play.

Stogdill (1978) for example, classified personal factors identified to be associated with leadership into five general categories thus:

1.     **Capacity:** Intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgment.
2.     **Achievement:**     Scholarship,     knowledge,     athletic, accomplishment.
3.     **Responsibility:**     Dependability,     initiative,     persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel.
4.     **Participation:** activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humour
5.     **Status:** Socio-economic position, popularity.

Based on their findings they concluded that the trait approach by itself has yielded negligible and confusing results. In 1970, after reviewing another 163 new trait studies, Stogdill (1981) concluded that:

• The leader is characterised by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigour and persistence, in the pursuit of goals ... and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self confidence and sense of personal dignity, willingness to accept consequences of division and action, readiness to absorb inter-personal  stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other person's behaviour, and capacity at hand (Nte, 2005)

**Weaknesses of Trait Theory**

• It ignored the needs and contributions of the followers.
• The theory paid little attention to the influence of situational variables like tasks and environment to the making of successful leadership.
• Researchers in this school of thought failed to produce one single personality trait or even a set of traits that can be used to isolate leaders from non-leaders.

Therefore based on the above weaknesses, it can be concluded that traits are necessary but not sufficient for leadership effectiveness (Emenike, 2003).

### 3.2.2 Personal-Behavioural Theory

The inadequacies of trait approach to leadership perhaps resulted in a new thinking along different lines. Attention was shifted from what qualities the leader possessed and emphasised that once the description of leader behaviour has been established the comparison between effective and ineffective leader behaviour can be made using a variety of criteria.

Barnard (1938) was the first to distinguish between effectiveness and efficiency as two basic dimensions of leadership. Halpin (1959) in his studies delineated two basic dimensions of leadership behaviour as initiating structure and consideration. Stogdill (1954) and his associates proposed two dimensions; system-oriented and person-oriented.

According to Wiles and Lovel (1975), some leadership behaviour necessary for effective group functioning include:

- Communicate feelings and thoughts
- Empathise with those to be lead
- Be creative or original and of assistance
- Be knowledgeable about the area of group concern
- Attempt to be perceived by followers both as considerate and initiating of structure.

It must be noted that effectiveness is achieved in an organisation through judicious and appropriate combination of initiating structure and consideration behaviours that a leader can show towards the subordinates.

**Weakness of Behaviour Theory**

- The major weakness with the behavioural approach to the study of leadership is the failure to incorporate situational variables in its scheme.

### 3.2.3 Situational Theory

The situational approach to the study of leadership is concerned with trying to identify situations to which the leader's behaviour can be attributed. Hence this approach can be sub-divided into two. First, was the classical situation and second was the neo-classical situation theory.

The classical situation theory of 1950s believed that it was the situation which produced the leader. Leadership according to this school of thought is vested in a person by a group not because his person is

inherently a leader but because he performed needed functions for his group. In their study with 470 naval officers, Stodgill was affected by the organisational environment. This simply means that leaders are made by the situation.

The major weaknesses of the classical approach to the study of leadership include:

1.    It disregarded the part played by individual personality in determining organisational climate.
2.     It held individual situations unique.

The major difference between the classical and the neo-classical theory was mainly in the degree to which leadership was thought to be influenced by situation.

The classical writers believe that situation produces the leader, while the neo-classical writers see the situations as important in leadership but in the context of other factors like leader personality variables. The situational determinants of leader behaviour include:

1.    The structural properties of the situations; the size, hierarchical order etc.
2.    The organisational climate; group atmosphere, participativeness etc.
3.    The role characteristics; position, power, types and difficulty of task, procedural rules.
4.    The subordinate characteristics; the knowledge and experience of subordinates, tolerance, sense of responsibility, power possessed by subordinates.

### 3.2.4  Contingency Theory

This very approach adopts a diagnostic approach in understanding the characteristics of an organisation with a view to determining which leadership practice will work best under given situation. It affords their ethical basis for the determination of appropriate organisational structures, values and management practice for specific situations. Contingency model gives backing to the view that there is no best way of managing organisations.

Luthans (1976) made a distinction between situational theory and contingency theory. According to him, while situational management merely specifies the importance of situational factors in leadership, contingency theory steps further to prescribe which leadership practice will yield the best result under a given condition.

Furthermore, contingency theory implies that leadership is a process in which the ability of a leader to exercise influence depends upon the group task situation and the degree to which the leader's style, personality and approach fit the group. People become leaders not only because of the attributes of their personality but also because of various situational factors and interaction between the leaders and the situation.

Fiedlor (1967) and his associates, in trying to identify the potential traits that may interact with situational variables to determines leader effectiveness developed contingency model of leader effectiveness. The two key concepts Fiedlor used in developing this theory were "what kind of leadership situation'' and "what kind of leadership style". He defines the situation in terms of three key elements namely;

1.  **Leadership Member Relations:** This is the degree to which group members trust and like the leader and are willing to follow him.
2.  **Task Structure:** It shows how clearly the job is stated, the various ways the job can be performed, and how the job provides knowledge of result and experience of optional solution to the task.
3.  **Position Power:** This is the degree to which there exists vested authority in the relationship of leadership position giving the leader the right to direct, evaluate, reward and punish group members.

The message here is that the most effective leadership style is dependent upon the three situational variables.

### 3.2.5  Path-Goal Theory

This is another current approach in the theoretical leadership studies. This theory rests to a large extent, on the expectancy motivation which believes that an employee motivation depends on his expectancy that a certain effort can be achieved by him and that the achievement of this level of performance is instrumental to the attainment of some of his personally desired outcomes.

Ukeje, Akabogu and Ndu (1992), Evans (1970), House (1971) and House and Dester (1974), hold that the primary task of leader is to increase the attractiveness of the reward outcome associated with task performance. In other words, effective leadership should encompass those behaviours of the leader that increase employee's performance and satisfaction.

The functions of leader in the path-goal approach are summarised by House (1971) as consisting of:

1.      Increased pay-offs to subordinate for work-goal attainment.
2.      Making the path to these pay-offs easy to travel by clarifying it
3.      Reducing road blocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route.

The leader in an organisation clarifies goals and ensures that subordinates attain goals through two primary avenues:

1.      Initiating structure
2.      Consideration

The leader initiates structure by clearly defining the goals and policies of the organisation and shows consideration through friendliness and concern for staff welfare.

Although the path-goal has theory of motivation, the relationship between job performance and motivation appear serious and must have to be established even where a positive relationship exists between the variables of task, performance and motivation. It is good to be cautious in concluding that such an increase was caused by an additional reward. This is because other variable outside motivation can increase job performance.

Therefore the major lessons to be learnt from these theories of leadership effectiveness in organisation are that:

1.      Effective leadership requires a consideration of factors in the leader, the followers and in the situation.
2.      Situational variables change so much that the leaders must adjust to them in order to be transactional. This means that his inclination to either the task or people dimension depends on the dictates of the situation.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4

Discuss at least two theories of Leadership.

## 3.3    Dimensions of Leadership

Theory and research with various frameworks for examining the important aspects of leadership are multidimensional, that is, they support at least two distinct types.

In this analysis Barnard distinguished between the effectiveness and the efficiency of cooperative action.

The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions:

a)      Its effectiveness and        (b)      Its efficiency.

Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character. The test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of common purpose or purposes, while the test of efficiency is the eliciting of the sufficient individual wills to cooperate.

Similarly, Dornwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, on the basis of findings at the research centre for group dynamics, described leadership in terms of two sets of group functions. They concluded that most, or perhaps all, group objectives can be subsumed under one of two headings:-

1.      **Goal Achievement:** This is the achievement of some specific group of goal.
2.      **Group Maintenance:** The maintenance or strengthening of the group itself.

In the same vein, Etzioni, expanding on the work of Talcott Persons, theorised that every collectivity must meet two basic sets of needs:

1)      **Instrumental Needs:** The motivation of resources to achieve the task;
2)      **Expressive needs:** the social and normative integration of group members.

In one of the more comprehensive delineations of leadership, Ralph M. Stogdill and his associates at Ohio State have proposed twelve dimensions of leadership. The dimensions with their descriptions are presented in table 1.1.

**Table 1.1:** **Proposed Leadership Dimensions and Descriptions by Stogdill**

| SYSTEM-ORIENTED | PERSONS-ORIENTED |
|---|---|
| Production emphasis-applies pressure for productive output | Tolerance of freedom -allows staff member's scopes for initiative, decision, and action. |
| Initiation of structure-clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected. Representation – speaks and acts as the representative of the group | Tolerance of uncertainty-is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset. Consideration- regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers. |
| Role assumption- activity exercise the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others. Persuasion-uses persuasion and argument effectively, exhibits strong convictions. | Demand reconciliation-reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system. Predictive accuracy – exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately |
| Superior orientation- maintain cordial relations with superior, has influence with them, and strives for higher status | Integration-maintains a close-knit organisation and resolves inter-member conflicts. |

As described here, these factors apparently can once again be collapsed to more general components of "system -oriented" and "person – oriented" behaviours. Other theorists and researchers use different labels to refer to similar aspects of leadership behaviour, for example, nomothetic and idiographic, task and social leaders, employee and production orientations and initiating structure and consideration.

In an attempt to synthesise the theory and research on leadership, David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore have proposed four basic dimensions of the fundamental structure of leadership.

1. **Support:** behaviour that enhances someone else's feelings of personal worth and importance.
2. **Interaction Facilitation**: behaviour that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.
3. **Goal Emphasis**: behaviour that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal of achieving excellent performance.
4. **Work Facilitation**: behaviour that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and

providing resources such as tools, materials and technical knowledge.

If the four dimensions are collapsed into two, the same dimensions reappear. That is, supportive behaviour and interaction facilitation are neatly subsumed under group maintenance functions or expressive activities, goal emphasis and work facilitation tend to be encompassed under goal achievement functions or instrumental activities.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Discuss the dimensions of leadership?

## 3.4    Leadership Styles and Effective School Management

The style of leadership of any positional incumbent depends on the following factors:

a)    The nature of the leader himself
b)    The nature of the group to be led
c)    The nature of the organisation environment. ***Tennenbaum Schmidt (1958) in Emenike (2003).***

Leadership styles are classified on the basis of how leaders use their authority. They are:

1.    Democratic
2.    Autocratic
3.    Laissez-faire
4.    Charismatic.

**Democratic:**   Here the leader is neither autocratic nor Laissez-faire in his leadership style. Each of these is adopted at a group /personnel level depending on situation. This leadership style is theory oriented. It assumes that the teachers are willing to work towards organisational effectiveness. But, this is not always the case in organisations .As a matter of fact, such deviant behaviours are resisted and behaviour modification strategies like query, pay-out, denial of promotion etc. are used or recommended to bring him/her back to conformity.

Responsibilities are shared and this leadership demonstrates respect for every person. Decision making is based on consultation, deliberation and participation among the group and this increases output. This method of leadership is considered the most acceptable because most practitioners have achieved great success in running their organisations with it. Employees are always satisfied with it because their opinions,

comments and suggestions are needed for decision making. This gives them sense of belonging and increases their effectiveness. Decisions reached through consultation attract more loyalty and acceptability than those imposed. By involving the workers in the decision making process, the workers wealth of experience is exploited to the benefit of the organisation.

This style of leadership emphasises that the leader should be a friend to all but a special friend to none within the organisational framework and must maintain a respectable distance from all. The leader provides explanations and permits discussions in work situations when required. The leader normally makes constructive criticisms but does not blame unnecessarily. Communication flow between the leader and the led is effective. This is because written communication is supplemented with oral one.

There is positive relationship between democratic leadership style and the organisational effectiveness. This is because both the leaders and the led see themselves as partners in the pursuance of the institutional objectives. Again, both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational strategies are used in engineering the workers towards tasks accomplishment.

Because both the leader and the led participate in decision making, policies emerging from there will be happily implemented. The impact of effective communication which this leadership style provides on task performance cannot be over emphasised. Research finding has shown that effective communication is a position correlate of workers motivation. At the long run, leaders are favoured in modern organisation. They command respect and never demand respect.

**Autocratic Leadership Style:** This style of leadership is similar to McGregor's theory X. McGregor, (1960) in Emenike (2003) believes that human beings have inherent dislike for work and must therefore be controlled, coerced, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to work. This method emphasises production at the expense of human consideration. Emenike (2003) labels this type of leadership as a defensive model emanating from fear and from the leader's feelings of insecurity. This type of leader trusts in the authority of his office and often gives command as well as non- constructive criticisms. He refuses suggestions, abhors oppositions and censors all report, letters and such documents that may concern his organisation.

**Characteristics of Autocratic Leadership**

1.    Dictation of all policies and procedures
2.    Absence of effective communication as it is experienced in unidirectional communications.
3.    Imposition of tasks and methods on the subordinates, nagging and suspecting the subordinates, hence ineffective supervision.
4.    Lack of trust.

**Implications of Autocratic Style of Leadership in Organisation**

1.    Unfavourable organisational climate which will reduce genuine support and cooperation from the staff.
2.    The staff for fear of punishment, may resort to eye service and gossiping
3.    There will be increased lateness to duty, absenteeism and idleness on the days the leader will not be in the school.
4.    Some staff may seek voluntary transfer or even resign if there is opportunity.
5.    Staffs that are aggrieved may form cliques aimed at opposing or frustrating the leader.
6.    In a school system, students and/or the community may be incited by the teachers against the principal. This may lead to his removal.
7.    Teachers feel out of place in the school system and so may not be committed to academic excellence.

The tension generated is detrimental to school effectiveness. As a matter of emphasis, leaders must know that to achieve effectiveness they must interact favourably. A leader cannot lead unless the followers are prepared to follow and the environment must be conducive.

**Laissez-Faire Leadership Style:** "Laissez-faire" is a French word which means "let things to their way". This implies do things as you like. This type of leadership exists where the leader is characterised by indecision and indifference and allows complete freedom to the group and individual members to do as they wish. The leader does not believe in exercising any degree of control over the conduct of workers under him (Emenike, 2003).

**It is more or less a free-rein leadership**

The philosophy behind this leadership style is that workers will exercise self-control towards organisational goals if they are committed to them. That is, the less supervision the better and more productivity.

The leader adopts a hand off policy, remains apart from the group and participates only when invited. He adopts and emphasises sound inter-personal relations among employees at the expense of the organisational goals. The leader makes concerted effort to make employees happy and to prevent conflicts among them in the organisation.

## Implications of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

There is no doubt that this leadership style will lead to school ineffectiveness. This is because it will be difficult to maintain discipline among members of staff and the students.

Most of the staff may seize the opportunity of the free-rein to absent themselves from duty without permission. Because of the absence of effective leadership, some influential and ambitious members in the organisation may struggle for the power to fill the leadership vacuum. This may lead to chaos.
Some renowned scholars like Lawler (1970) in Emenike (2003) have intimated that a Laissez-faire leader is really no leader at all. While he holds the formal leadership position, he acts as the group figure head.

It is stressed that leadership effectiveness in organisations especially in schools should be conceptualised in terms of goal achievement. This is because group morale and member satisfaction are only means not an end in itself. The major problem with the Laissez-faire type of leadership is that it turns means to end.

## Charismatic Leadership Style

Possession of natural traits is a strong indication that a leader is charismatic. Such traits include personality trait, physical attributes and general ability characteristics. This is an indication that such leaders are born to rule or are naturally great men. Such leaders manifest their style of leadership through the inspiration they give to their subordinates to work towards task accomplishment. This type of leadership is based on peoples' faith and devotion to a certain person who has demonstrated unusual ability to lead through eloquent speeches and deeds of heroism for the welfare of the group.

The leadership is loved, adored, the command is unchallengeable and the authority is legitimised through the over whelming devotion to him by the group (Emenike, 2003). Knezervich (1975) refers to this type of leadership as symbolic leaders. They have such personality qualities as ambition, dependability, force, endurance, wisdom, humility, patience and pride. Because of these special traits which the charismatic leader

shows or exhibits in organisations, subordinates usually obey him, offer him maximum cooperation, and generally work to satisfy him.

**Implications of Charismatic Leadership Style**

1.   It may not produce organisational effectiveness
2.   It ignores the influence of the situation and the followers on the leader.
3.   Leaders alone cannot do the magic of delivering the goods in the organisation without the positive contributions of subordinates.
4.   It has been proved from research that most charismatic leaders have autocratic tendencies which have negative consequences in organisations.
5.   Charismatic leadership style cannot be strictly defined as a leadership style (Mgbodile, 1986).

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6**

List four Leadership Styles? What type of leadership style does your boss exhibit? Do you like it? What are the implications?

## 4.0   CONCLUSION

Effective leadership in a school organisation is indispensable to positive output. Good leadership qualities can be developed, learned or acquired by training and education.

## 6.0   SUMMARY

This unit highlighted leadership in an organisation, theories of leadership as well as dimensions of leadership. Leadership styles as they affect effective school management were also treated.

## 7.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.   Leadership is indispensable in an organisation. Discuss.
2.   Discuss two theories of leadership.
3.   Who is a leader?
4.   Explain the dimensions of leadership.
5(a)   Outline four types of leadership styles.
(b)   What are their implications?

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**UNIT 4     ROLE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM AS AN ORGANISATION**

**CONTENTS**

1.0    Introduction
2.0    Objectives
3.0    Main Content
        3.1    Brief Overview of Primary Education
        3.2    Role of Primary Education as Defined by the National Policy on Education
        3.3    Enhancing Childhood Development in Nigeria through Primary Education and Participation Rights
        3.4    Reforms in Primary Education in Nigeria
4.0    Conclusion
5.0    Summary
6.0    Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0    References/Further Reading

# 8.0    INTRODUCTION

Primary education is critical for laying the foundations for sustainable development. This is a fact because Onuselogu (2008) stressed that the future of any nation depends quite considerably on the quality of primary education it provides for its citizens. Primary education is the bedrock upon which other levels of education are built. There is no gain saying (Obinwelozo, 2008) that whatever happens at this level can either make or mar the entire education enterprise. This is why the government is not joking at all with its leadership and management.

# 9.0    OBJECTIVES

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

* explain the primary level of education
* outline the role of primary education as stated by the National Policy on Education
* discuss how childhood development can be enhanced through primary education
* outline and explain reforms in primary education in Nigeria.

## 10.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Brief Overview of Primary Education

Primary education as referred to in the national policy on education (FRN, 2004) is the education given in institution for children aged 6 to 11 years. The rest of the education system is built upon it. Therefore the primary level is the key to the success or failure of the whole education system. Originally, this was thought to be the first form of organised or formalised education to which children were exposed (Ogomaka, 2007).

## 3.2    Role of Primary Education as Defined by the National Policy on Education

The role of primary education is emphasised in the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) as follows:

a.      inculcate permanent literacy and numeracy, and ability to communicate effectively;
b.      lay a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking.
c.      give citizenship education as a basis for effective participation in and contribute to the life of the society;
d.      mould the character and develop sound attitude and morals in the child;
e.      develop in the child the ability to adapt to the child's changing environment;
f.      give the child opportunities for developing manipulative skills that will enable the child function effectively in the society within the limits of the child's capacity;
g.      provide the child with basic tools for further educational advancement, including preparation for trades and crafts of the locality.

Analysing the concept above, the roles/tasks/duties of the primary school as an organisation is enormous in the education industry. It therefore implies that this level should not be taken for granted but rather encouraged positively. These goals form the basis for primary education.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Briefly give an overview of primary education and outline its role as stipulated by the National Policy on Education.

### 3.3 Enhancing Childhood Development in Nigeria through Primary Education and Participation Rights

The international community since 1990s has displayed an unprecedented degree of activism in support of human development. A lot of emphasis is been placed on the child as the future hope of our world, and a new ethic for children and a focus on people as the very means of economic betterment is been canvassed. Children are at the centre of political, social and economic processes and reforms (Maduekwesi, 2005). They are often the first causalities in times of crisis. Their welfare and overall development greatly depend on decisions and actions by national leaders designed to reduced conflict and instability and promote positive change.

Human development is characterised by the inter-relationship between physical, emotional, social, spiritual, cultural, and intellectual growth. Sen (1999) viewed one perspective of development as a process of extending the real freedoms that people enjoy. Development thinking is in favour of the centrality of human right and consequently underpinning human development especially at the primary human development stage of the primary school level. The fulfilment of basic human needs and the development of human capacities are the key indicators of a nation's development. Human development is the sequence of changes that begins at the time of conception and continues throughout life (Maduekwesi, 2005).

The foundations of learning well in school can be built by the parents in the earliest years of a child's life. Education empowers by opening new possibilities and opportunities for children to participate and contribute to the fullest of their abilities unhampered by their class or gender. This can be achieved through solid primary education. Consequently, every child has a right to education.

The convention on the Right of the Child (1989) has turned the world on its head, placing children's rights and their best interests on the political agendas of nearly every country in the world. Primary education is an aspect of basic education, which comprises a range of formal schooling offered to meet the learning needs of people aged 6 to 11 years.

Participation is central to the human development approach in order to expand people's choice and realise human potential. Participation is the means to development and children do not develop by being passive. The conditions for promoting effective participation include:

• Start early in childhood, the day care and socialisation of adults that are responsive to their needs.

- Respectful of their right and encouraging of exploration, enquiry and responsibility.
- Creating spaces, where information is accessible and where their views are valued, listened to and influential.
- This means enhancing participation within the family, the school and wider community.
- It is also essential to promote access to information and opportunities for the most disadvantaged and marginalised children alongside the most privileged children.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Briefly explain how you can enhance childhood development through primary education and participation rights.

## 3.4    Reforms in Primary Education in Nigeria

According to Ogoamaka (2007) primary education has undergone a lot of changes. These changes are observed in the following areas:

- Nomenclature and duration
- Ownership, funding, management and supervision
- Curriculum/curricula
- Staff personnel reforms
- Pupils evaluation

These reforms have played a lot of roles in the restructuring of primary school system as an organisation in Nigeria.***please expatiate on these reforms as they relate to Nigeria ,it is very important for the students to know!!!

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

In what areas have changes occurred in primary education in Nigeria?

## 11.0   CONCLUSION

The role of primary school system as an organisation cannot be overemphasised. It is a very sensitive level in the upbringing of a child. It is a strong childhood institution that takes care of children between ages 6 to 11. The National Policy on Education in Nigeria has provided a solid foundation for the proper upbringing of the child at that level. All that is required is proper implementation of the provisions for all round development of children at the primary level.

## 12.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the following issues; overview of primary education, role of primary education according to the national policy on education, enhancing childhood development in Nigeria through primary education and participation rights, and reforms in primary education in Nigeria. In unit 5, we shall be discussing discipline and punishment in childhood institutions.

## 13.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Briefly explain primary education?
2. Discuss the role of primary education as outlined by the National Policy on Education?
3. Discuss childhood development?
4. Outline areas of reform in primary education in Nigeria.

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## UNIT 5      DISCIPLINE AND PUNISHMENT IN CHILDHOOD SCHOOLS

**CONTENTS**

## 8.0    INTRODUCTION

The real power for survival of any given social group is the level of discipline within its individual members. (Mallinson,1975). Discipline is derived from the Latin word 'disco' which means 'I learn'. Learning involves submission to the rules that structure what is to be learnt e.g. laboratory rules, rules of grammar, rules of swimming, rules of cooking, rules of dancing etc. Where the learning of rules refers to branches of academic study e.g. those of science, mathematics, philosophy, education etc., they are often called disciplines. They are disciplines because the learner has to submit himself to the rules which are implicit in their studying and by so doing adopts a disciplined approach to life. An educated person is usually a disciplined person. There is a distinction between self imposed discipline and discipline imposed by others (Hist and Peters, 1980). Furthermore the notion of self-discipline is very closely connected with the ideal of autonomy which is one of the virtues that should be promoted by education. Discipline is self imposed if conforming to rules is accepted by the individual as a means of doing something that he considers desirable e.g. a child enjoys music and sets about learning to play the piano, a boy wants to participate in the Olympic games and starts training for it or a person submits to regular exercise in order to reduce his weight.

According to Ocho (1997) self-imposed discipline is regarded as being better than discipline imposed by others because the submission to rules springs from the individual's own decisions in which same kind of autonomy is displayed. When the acceptance of rules springs from other people's desires or are forced upon the learner autonomy is not enhanced. Discipline can be externally imposed through rewards or threats of punishment. A learner may accept discipline to avoid the disapproval of parents or teachers or the peer group.

In an administrative situation, e.g. the school, self-imposed discipline makes for improved production. Workers perform their duties, not to avoid censure from their supervisors, but from a sense of duty or for self-fulfillment. Self-disciplined workers do not need close supervision. If discipline is externally imposed, workers do their work only when the supervisor is around -that is what is popularly called 'Eye service'.

## 9.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- define discipline in your own words
- explain  the concepts associated with discipline
- discuss some attitudes that promote discipline
- identify programmes for the provision of opportunities for students to behave desirably
- relate discipline to mental hygiene
- discuss punishment in relation to its guiding principles.

## 10.0   MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Modern Objectives and Concept of Discipline

Discipline in the simplistic sense is the control of behaviour for the right purpose (Ukeje, Akabogu & Ndu). An individual is said to exhibit self discipline when he can set a goal for himself and then make sacrifices and efforts necessary to obtain it. The emphasis today is on permanent educational values, rather than on maintaining order in the school; on training boys and girls to desire to be acceptable and useful beings. Furthermore, it is on training individuals to develop better conduct, rather than to be dependent upon government. It is worthy of emphasis that to the modern educational objective of discipline, order is largely incidental and secondary. Order is to be maintained in so far as it is necessary to maintain satisfactory work conditions.

Respect for authority should be at least partly the result of leadership which is inculcated through self-discipline. The approval of the school

community should be the natural outcome of the more modern effective programme of character development not a primary objective.

The goal of good school behaviour therefore is to build up a level of self-control that will provide the appropriate atmosphere for work in the various school locations and situations. Thus in classroom a thoughtful atmosphere will prevail. In libraries, hallways, playgrounds and other school environment, none will be encroaching upon the rights of others. Pupils will be responsible for their own conduct and activities, and the proper habits will be followed.

Thus the type of behaviour needed for desirable conditions for convenient and smooth learning can be assured. This sort of behaviour envisaged involves acceptable standards of human conduct. The main purpose is to inculcate a pattern of behaviour that will progressively advance the school pupils into mature co-operative self-control. We stress the self directing concept as an indispensable element in modern school discipline.

When handling a situation of misconduct therefore, the head teachers/principals should bear uppermost in their minds the direct and indirect educational rewards that will accrue to the pupil and all others concerned from the disciplinary action they are about to take. Head teachers/principals and teachers should endeavour to habituate themselves to looking at adolescent misdemeanor as a symptom rather than as a cause.

Educators of children and adolescent should think, when handling a case of their misconduct, of the impression that their reaction to the misconduct will have on educational activities as a whole and on the public's opinion of the teacher's mode of exercising authority.

The majority of disciplinary problems that may confront school administrators originate in the total school environment and not just from the classroom instructional situation. These disciplinary problems become very important when we remember the variety of the situations from which they can spring.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Define discipline and give an overview of what it is all about?

### 3.2    Classroom Discipline

One of the most serious problems undermining the provision of quality education in Nigeria is that of indiscipline (Ogunu, 2000). It is an ill wind that blows no educational system any good. If I may ask you, what is responsible for indiscipline in the classroom and how can a teacher solve a problem in his classroom to achieve his goal of creating an atmosphere favourable to effective learning? To succeed in achieving good classroom management, a teacher has to analyse the situation in his classroom. He should realise that the classroom somehow is an artificial situation for the pupils .The pupils come from various backgrounds. Such an unnatural situation is bound to result in one form of disorder or another. For a teacher to solve a discipline problem, he should endeavour to understand the cause of his pupil's behaviour. He should also try to find out the background of the child.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

If you encounter the problem of indiscipline in your classroom what will you do?

### 3.3    Factors Affecting School Discipline

**i.    School Morale**

The main factor of improving 'school spirit' is a positive approach to the upgrading of school discipline. Give students opportunities to experiment with the values and benefits of being a good school citizen. The attitude of the staff towards student's actions should reflect kindness as well as impartial firmness.

Positive measures must be taken to encourage acceptable student behaviour (Ezeocha, 1985). The school authority must show faith in the ability of the students to do what is right. Teachers should treat students with courtesy and patience. The school should pursue the establishment of a simulative learning situation accompanied by good teaching methods, adequate communication between staff and student as to conduct, standard, opportunities for self-analysis and self-discipline, and school goals and objectives based on the needs of the society and those of the students. All these are ways of encouraging good student conduct.

The school leadership must strive to create in the minds of the students an image of an aspiring institution that intends to be something larger than classrooms etc.

### ii.    Attitude of the School Authority to Pupils

In the words of Shevickor in Ezeocha (1995) "discipline should recognise the inherent dignity and rights of everyone, be devoted to humanitarian principles and ideals, offer self-direction or self-discipline and be founded on understanding acceptable goals on which to base appropriate behaviour". Classroom teachers at times tend to forget or ignore the fact that students, though immature, are full-fledged human beings, entitled to their own rights and respect. We should also realise that the young ones look at us as models worthy of emulation. School authority must let the students understand clearly what the school rules and regulations are, their origin, their values and purposes, their relation to the welfare of the individual and group and the educational process. Students tend to keep those rules and regulations, whose relevance to their well being, they understand and appreciate.

### iii.    Early Recognition of Symptoms.

A good administration or classroom teacher with sufficient insight and interest in his work should be able to recognise the early symptoms of discipline problems. He should note that serious discipline problems usually develop slowly. Early symptoms include uncooperativeness, sloppy dressing, poor manners, and lack of attentiveness and over anxiety to assume poor leadership outside appropriate group organisations. If these symptoms are detected early and properly diagnosed, they can be nipped in the bud through counselling and positive behaviour guides. If these symptoms are ignored by unskilled and insensitive teachers and administrators, they may skyrocket into serious discipline problems such as rioting, physical violence, cultism etc.

### iv.    Discipline Policy of the School

The policies put in place by a school about discipline and how they are implemented have far reaching effects on the discipline situation in the school. Clear cut policies on discipline for the guidance of staff and students must be stipulated by school administrators. Efforts must also be made to implement them. Individual teachers must understand principles underlying modern school discipline. This is of utmost importance. Disciplinary policies must be in harmony with the principles of democracy. Disciplinary policies should stress the responsibilities as well as the rights of an individual. They should be positive and directed towards the goal of self-discipline. In the whole, they should be primarily preventive, secondarily corrective, and never retributive. Discipline problems are kept to the barest minimum if these policies and principles are fairly and firmly implemented.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Are there factors affecting school discipline? What are they?

## 3.4    Some Factors and Attitudes that Promote Discipline

Some of the important understandings and attitudes with which administration should approach the discipline situations are:

(a)    Leadership                (b)    Frankness in admitting error

(c)    Fairness and poise        (d)    Using commendation
(e)    Accepting responsibility  (f)    Obedience     based     upon
                                        understanding
(g)    Reform. (Ukeje *et al.,* 1992).

**a.**    **Leadership:** This is an outgrowth of confidence. Let leadership not be assigned on the basis of status, rather, it should be earned through service in cooperative activities. When a manager or administrator is seen to work for the good of the group, to recognise and encourage the special abilities of the group, to make more wise decisions than bad ones and to abide by group decisions in problems that concern the entire group, he will exert a leadership based upon confidence.

**b.**    **Fairness in admitting error:** Many beginning administrators and teachers fear to lose dignity and the respect of others through being wrong or through being ridiculed. This should not be the case because anyone who makes decisions makes some mistakes and cannot be expected to be always right – for we know as a matter of fact that every decision is a compromise. We may never be sure; we have got all the facts or foreseen all the possible eventualities that may follow our decisions. A confession that one is uninformed, unless it is too frequent, is disarming and a request for help in securing information is an excellent basis for good team work. One should have a good sense of humour and be prepared to laugh at oneself.

**c.**    **Fairness and poise:** All interactions between the administrator, teachers and students should be conducted with fairness and firmness and with an attitude of good will. Until the facts that have been agreed upon prove the student to have made a mistake, he should be treated as though he was innocent. If a disciplinarian does not maintain self-control, he loses face and becomes merely another disorderly person whom the students may regard as a weak administrator who has exhausted his resources.

**d.**    **Using commendation:** Discipline and morale should be positive rather than negative. Scolding and magnification of the

undesirable actions does not improve them. Rather they are improved by emphasising, commending and encouraging activities that are well done. Administrators and teachers who fail to provide objective appraisal of mistakes and successes and to encourage students to evaluate their own activities are not fair to students.

e. **Accepting responsibility**: Presumably decisions in a school system are made after due consideration and with appropriate consultations. This implies that the headmaster and his teachers should take full responsibility in carrying them out and with hold any criticisms until there is proper time and place for expressing them. The idea of professional ethical conduct is a united front to students and to the public, with appropriate opportunity provided for the expression of differences of interest or opinion.

f. **Obedience based upon understanding**: For the effective accomplishment of the common purpose, people who live and work together should be guided by some rules and regulations. Conformity to these rules and regulations is based upon understanding, the desirability of the rules and an appreciation of the need for an authority in a given social structure. In the school, emphasis should be on voluntary subordination based upon the understanding of the group.

g. **Reform the objective of punishment:** When a student or pupil misbehaves, the problem for the teacher is how to devise learning experiences that will influence his behaviour and growth as well as the behaviour of the group that he belongs to. In devising punishment and learning experiences for deviant students, cognisance should be taken of factors and peculiar characteristics. The whole group may even at times be called in, or are even willing; to assist in planning for the improvement of conditions to aid an individual.

It is worthy of note that sometimes there appear to be conflict between what seems good for the individual and what seems good for the group. When this happens, a solution that hurts neither of them should be sought. If such a solution cannot be found the best interest of the largest number should be served – remove the individual for the survival of the many.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

As a school manager enumerate steps to be taken to promote discipline amongst pupils/students?

### 3.5    Programme for the Provision of Opportunities for Pupils to Behave Desirably

It is a trite principle that those who have the lawful custody of children and young persons have a duty to prescribe and enforce moral instructions and effect discipline for their training and upbringing. (Fayokun, 2006). To encourage students to behave desirably head teachers and school administrators in general should endeavour to:

1.    **Develop school ideals and spirit:** This is best achieved through assemblies, home – room discussions and other students' group meeting where character, good citizenship and good spirit are deliberately cultivated.

2.    **Develop favourable relations:** The desire to have the good will and respect of teachers and head teachers who are well liked and respected makes students behave in a way that will merit approval. Consequently, administrators should, wherever possible, exhibit at least a casual interest in every pupil and in all pupil activities, congratulating them upon their successes and sympathising with them in their misfortunes.

3.    **Remove temptations and possibility of misbehaviour:** Careful planning by the administrator can remove many disciplinary situations. For instance, pilfering can be reduced to a barest minimum if all students deposit their pocket money and other consumables with the house master. He will lock them away in a house safe and keep a record of periodic issues to each student for the students' immediate needs. Rules about locker room uses and entries can be enforced strictly and consistently not periodically. Careful and daily roll calls will forestall truancy. Careful seating arrangement and custody of all examination papers will prevent cheating in examinations. If the individual feels secured, accepted, liked and satisfied most of the time, he will exhibit good behaviour.

It is advisable to articulate and always think our strategies to map out desirable programmes that will provide the pupils/students with the opportunity and encouragement to behave well. Administrators should not fold their hands concerning this.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Is it necessary to encourage pupils to behave well? If yes how?

### 3.6    Discipline and Mental Hygiene

It is an unfortunate aspect of the school discipline to give insufficient thought to the effect of disciplinary measures upon the personality of pupils. Very often teachers and administrators are prone to seek order at the expense of pupil growth. According to Harl Douglas (1964:337) in Ukeje, Akabuogu and Ndu (1992) administrators and teachers need to be trained to observe such principles as the following:

1.    Study the individual child concerning – his type of temperament, his previous disciplinary history, his interests, his adjustment to school, friends at home, and his home background including opportunities available there for study, and sleep.
2.    Adapt the treatment to the child not merely to the offence. Keep in mind a growing personality and administer to its special needs and status. Do not attempt to develop standard treatment for types of pupils' behaviour.
3.    Make effort to keep the confidence and the good will of every pupil. The pupil must believe in you as one who understands, is fair, and is interested in him and who firmly refuses to be run over.
4.    Always remember that not a day, and rarely an hour pass in which one or more pupils do not behave in ways that are displeasing to you. Do not be quick to take offence, to be self – conscious, or to be too "observing". Learn to react with some sense of humour to minor irritations.
5.    Try always, when confronted with a bad and chronic case of misbehaviour to understand why the pupil behaves as he does. Look beneath the surface for causes. It is only very few pupils that are by nature incurable or non – educative.

Conclusively, in discipline, the school treatment must be planned with an eye on the important factors outside the school which also influence pupil behaviour. The important thing to bear in mind is to keep pupils busy doing worth-while things that they like to do. This forms a solid basis for the nourishment of a healthy personality.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6**

On what principles can you relate discipline to mental hygiene?

### 3.7    Punishment

The concept of punishment is precise. It is only a device to maintain discipline. In an administrative situation, failure to meet role

requirements is punished. There are arrays of punishment which among others include:

(a)     Withholding of rewards
(b)     Fines
(c)     Suspension
(d)     Warning and
(e)     Restrictions.

Teachers in the school situation resort to punishment in order to maintain discipline. Our attention is called once more to the fact that punishment does not necessarily mean discipline. Discipline is a far wider concept.

Hist and Peters (1980:128) in Ndu *et al.* (1997) give three logically necessary conditions for punishment thus:

(i)     It must involve the intentional infliction of pain or some kind of unpleasantness.
(ii)    The punishment must be inflicted on an offender as a consequence of a breach of rules.
(iii)   It must be inflicted by someone in authority.

They stressed that discipline is not necessarily painful nor does it necessarily emanate from someone in authority as in the case of self-imposed discipline. Regular physical exercise is a form of discipline that may not satisfy two of the three conditions. However, a breach of rules is a breach of discipline (Ndu, Ocho, & Okeke, 1997).

Punishment is a deterrent measure but penalties are attached to the breach of rules in order to deter possible offenders. When someone offends, the penalty is imposed. Imposing penalties may or may not reform offender. It is then right to say that punishment is a deterrent. The measure of punishment system is its ability to deter offenders not in the frequency or severity of its penalties. Punishment is not an enjoyable spectacle because it inflicts pain but it is better to inflict pain than allow a state of disorder or anarchy. That is why punishment is the lesser of two evils. Punishment in order to be effective must be unpleasant and predictable in order to have a deterrent effect.

The disadvantageous effect of punishment on the individual is that it may likely lead to alienation from the purposes of the school or enterprise, therefore the authority must be just and impartial. As a mark of respect for the individual, degrading punishment should not be employed.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 7**

What is your opinion about the application of punishment in school?

### 3.7.1  Guiding Principles on Punishments

According to Fayokun (2006) there are four (4) common – law principles that should guide school officials in administering punishment, in order to avoid litigations which may lead to a court imposing liability for damages or penalties of fine or imprisonment :

(i)      that the punishment should not be  unreasonable
(ii)     not excessive in view of the gravity of the offence
(iii)    not excessive in view of the age, sex and strength of the pupil.
(iv)    Not administered maliciously (Fayokun, 2006).

Two standards that courts have advanced to guide are:

(a)      Whether the school rule is reasonable and
(b)      Whether the disciplinary action adopted by the teacher under such school rule is permissible.

The states ministry of education gave permissible guidelines on forms or methods of disciplinary action in Nigeria. For example, it is forbidden in some states for teachers to impose such punishment on pupils as will involve:

i.       Looking at the sun
ii.      Standing on the desk with arms up (and eyes shut).
iii.     Mass punishment, in which an entire class is punished for the offence of one most often identified.
iv.     Asking a student to flog the other student.

The emphasis is that teachers must show restraint and the moral lesson of justice must be taught or demonstrated even in the administration of punishment.

In administering punishment, teachers, head teachers and principals must bear in mind that students have constitutional rights. Corporal punishment, suspension, expulsion, detention are drastic forms of disciplinary actions. They often attract a high number of litigations, along with students' rights under the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999.

**Corporal Punishment:** Entails physical action to chastisement of a pupil. It is a punitive response to students' behaviour and even has an extensive biblical support (Book of Proverbs 22:15 and 23:12-14).

**Suspension and Expulsion:** They are punitive responses or punishment alternatives utilised by school administrators in cases involving extreme misbehaviour – assault or battery, upon a member of staff or student. Suspension connotes a temporary exclusion of a student from school for a specified period of time – say from one day to several weeks until something is done by the student or his parent.

Expulsion connotes permanent separation – removing the student from school on a permanent basis.

## 3.8    Students Rights under 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

| Fundamental Rights | Punishments or Practice in Schools that Violate or Tend to Infringe on Rights |
|---|---|
| Section 3.3 Right to Life | Corporal punishment or any other form of punishment that leads to the loss of student's life or causes him permanent disfigurement. |
| Section 34: Right to the Dignity of Human Person | - Excessive or unreasonable corporal punishment.<br>- Shaving student's hair, cutting student's skirt to fit in school assembly or classroom in the name of grooming where a mild correction can be adopted.<br>- Making a student go partially naked before other students for wearing wrong dress.<br>- Using excessive or derogatory or dirty language on a student in the presence of others that lowers his person before others or cause him emotional disturbance.<br>- Teacher's assault and battery (trespass) on the person of a student. |
| Section 35: Right to Personal Liberty | - Barring a student from talking an examination, to which he has duly registered for.<br>- Barring a student from graduation ceremonies after satisfactorily completion of studies.<br>- Unreasonable detention of student after school.<br>- Refusal to issue or sign transfer certificate in the form approved by the Ministry of Education to a parent or guardian if all fees owed to the school have been paid. |

| Section 36: Right to Fair Hearing | - Punishing a student e.g. suspension, expulsion without giving him the opportunity to defend himself against the charges, that should be made known to him in advance. <br> - Not following laid down procedure in punishing (suspending or expelling) a student. <br> - Not giving opportunity to a student to call his witnesses and to question those who have testified against him <br> - Accusers taking part in the trial of students. <br> - Suspending or expelling or denying a student a right without formally accusing him or allowing him to state his case. |
|---|---|
| Section 38: Right to Freedom of Thought, Conscience and Religion | - Not honouring parents or guardians request to allow their children/wards attend only a particular religious denominational service. <br> - Requesting students to take part in services or morning assembly worship where the religious observances are not related to their own religion. <br> - Encouraging the formation of a particular religious movement in a school and forbidding others. <br> - Punishing students who refuse to recite the pledge or take part in the flag salute. |
| Section 39: Right to of Expression and Press | - Disallowing the formation of a Press club Freedom or other social or educative clubs that are not prohibited by law. <br> - Preventing students from expressing their opinions, in a peaceful manner or in a protest letter. <br> - Limiting or censoring the contents or opinions of students (which are not likely to promote immorality) in students' newspaper. <br> - Suspending a student for expressing his views about certain practices or aspects of the school administration (where there is no incitement to violence). |
| Section 40: Right to Peaceful Assembly and Associations | - Barring students from forming or belonging to social clubs/societies of their choice in school. <br> - Barring students from carrying out peaceful demonstration or rally that are permissible. <br> - Barring students from conducts which are not descriptive of good order on campus. <br> - Forcing membership of a certain social school |

|  |  |  |
|---|---|---|
|  |  | club on students (N.B. the Right to associate also implies the right not to associate). |
| Section 41: Right to Freedom of Movement | - | Excessive or unreasonable use of authority to detention or false imprisonment in a school room or office as a form of punishment. |
| Section 42: Right to Admission | - | Refusing to admit a qualified student to your school on the basis of tribe, religion, political belief, state etc. |
|  | - | Basing admissions on quota-system particularly admitting candidates with lower test scores and leaving un-admitted those with higher scores on the same test because of states of origin, sex, religion etc. (Corpus Juris Secundun, 79 C.S.493) |

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 8**

Recount the sections of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria which deal with Students Rights.

## 11.0  CONCLUSION

In this unit we have extensively discussed discipline and punishment in schools. Discipline means learning which involves submission to the rules that structure what is to be learnt. Discipline is also associated with specialised area of study. Punishment is a device to maintain discipline and should be administered with caution taken cognisance of student's rights as provided for by the Nigerian constitution.

## 12.0  SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt about modern objectives and concept of discipline, classroom discipline, factors affecting school discipline, some understanding of attitudes that promote discipline, programmes for the provision of opportunities for students to behave desirably, discipline and metal hygiene as well as punishment and its guiding principles.

## 13.0  TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1(a)    What is discipline
(b)     Discuss its objectives

2.      How can you maintain discipline in the classroom?
3.      Outline factors that affect school discipline

4. What attitudes promote discipline in schools?
5. Explain discipline as it relates to mental hygiene.
6. Define punishment and outline its guiding principles

## 14.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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**MODULE 3** **MOTIVATION, COMMUNICATION AND OTHER RELATED ISSUES IN MANAGEMENT OF CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS**

Unit 1    Motivation
Unit 2    Communication in Childhood Institutions
Unit 3    Establishment of Childhood Institutions and Management
Unit 4    Management Laws in Childhood Institutions

## UNIT 1    MOTIVATION

**CONTENTS**

1.0    Introduction
2.0    Objectives
3.0    Main Content
    3.1    Definition of Motivation and a General Model of Motivation
    3.2    Content Approaches to Motivation
        3.2.1  Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory
        3.2.2  Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
    3.3    Process Approaches to Motivation
    3.4    Implications for Practice: Theory X, Theory Y and Management by Objectives
    3.5    Motivation and Work Performance
4.0    Conclusion
5.0    Summary
6.0    Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0    References/Further Reading

## 1.0    INTRODUCTION

Motivation is at the very heart of the study of and the practice of management. Peretomode (1991) stressed that in spite of its importance, motivation is difficult to define and apply in organisations. Continuing, other renowned scholars like Golembiewski (1973) in Peretomode (1991) states that motivation often receives no precise conceptual designations, and implicit and explicit meanings of the term commonly differ. Motivation is very important and a major concern in organisations.

Motivation may be seen as the perceptions, methods, activities used by the management for the purpose of providing a climate that is conducive to the satisfaction of the various needs of the employees so that they

may become satisfied, dedicated and effective task performers. Motivation is an embracing factor in an employee's development to accomplish personal as well as organisational goal (Obi, 1997).

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- define motivation
- give an overview of a general model of motivation
- discuss two content theories of motivation
- explain the implications of theory X and theory Y
- discuss the relationship between motivation and work performance.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1    Definition of Motivation and a General Model of Motivation

**Motivation defined:** there has been difficulty in defining motivation; but at the most general level as J. W. Atkinson notes, motivation refers to a process governing individual choices among different forms of voluntary activities.

According to most definitions, motivation consists of three basic components which activate, direct, and sustain human behaviour. Activating forces are assumed to exist within individuals; they lead people to behave in certain ways. Examples of such internal forces are memory, affective responses, and pleasure-seeking tendencies.

Motivation also directs or channels behaviour that is, it provides a goal orientation. Individual behaviour is directed towards something. In order to maintain and sustain behaviour, the surrounding environment must reinforce the intensity and direction of individual drives or forces. But for purposes, motivation is defined as the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or the mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity directed toward the achievement of personal goals.

**A General Model of Motivation**

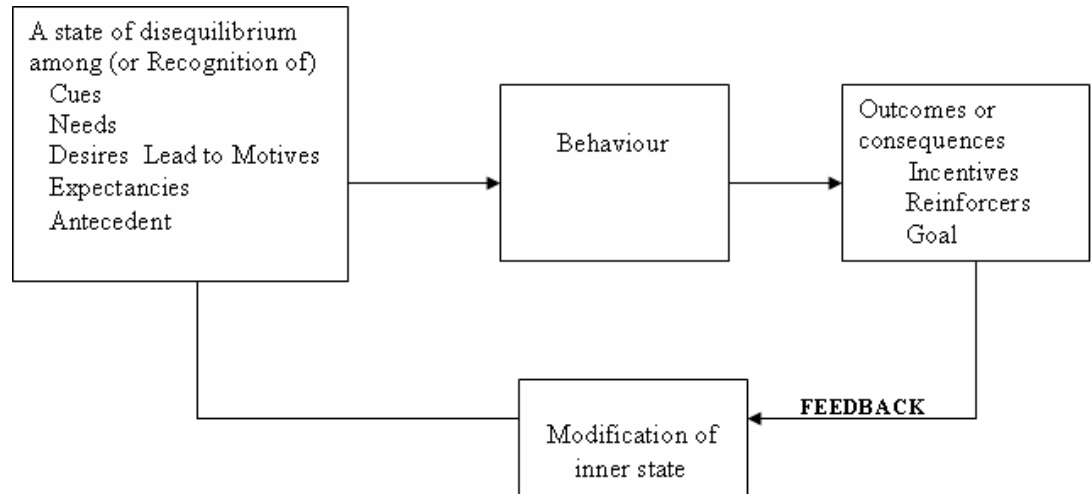An elaboration of the basis of motivation can yield a generalised model like the one presented in the figure below:

**Fig. 1:**      **Generalised Model of Human Motivation**

*Source:*      Adopted from Hay, W & Mistel C. (1982) Educational Administration, Theory Research & Practice Pg. 138

Cues, needs, desires, motives, expectancies are activators or energisers of behaviour. Deficiencies in what an individual wants or anticipates create a state of equilibrium or tension. The individual then attempts to return to a state of equilibrium by adopting certain behaviours that will lead to a reduction of disequilibrium.

This is the goal orientation component, for the behaviour is intended to produce rewards or goal achievements for the individual. These outcomes then serve as information or feedback that modifies the inner state, that is, decreases or increases the state of disequilibrium. The motivation behaviour sequence can begin anew.

This sequence can be illustrated in a school context. A faculty member is asked by an administrator to be chairperson of an important task force. The request creates a state of disequilibrium for the faculty member. The teacher anticipates more responsibility, authority, and social interaction, but less free time. The individual has a behavioural decision to make. Acceptance means that action must be initiated to organise and produce for the task force. Refusal means that the time can be used for more personal activities.

The outcomes in the first instance include, praise, respect, and goal accomplishment. In the second case, they may include administrator disappointment and less time pressure. The outcomes lead to a modification of the inner state and to a reduction of the disequilibrium. Depending on the teacher's desire, greater or lesser satisfaction develops.

## 3.2     Content Approaches to Motivation

They attempt to specify only what motivates behaviour. In terms of the general model of motivation, content theories either delineate specific needs, motives, expectancies, and antecedents to behaviour, or they relate behaviour to outcomes or consequences.

The so-called need theories are among the most pervasive concepts in the area of work motivation. Indeed, one of the most pervasive concepts in the area of work motivation is that of human needs. We continually hear discussions about certain teachers and administrators who have high needs for achievement, power, self actualisation, or recognition.

### 3.2.1  Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

This has become a key concept in the study of human motivation. There are five basic need levels in the hierarchy. Maslow argues that, it is useless to make a complete list of needs at each level because, depending on how specifically needs are defined, any number can be derived. At the first level of the hierarchy are physiological needs, which consist of the fundamental biological functions of the human organism. Safety and security needs, the second level are derived from the desire for a peaceful, smoothly running, stable environment. On the third level are belonging, love, and social needs which are extremely important in the modern society. Maslow feels that maladjustment stems from frustration of these needs. Esteem need, at the fourth level; reflects the desire to be highly regarded by others. Achievement, competence, status, and recognition satisfy esteem needs.

Finally, Maslow maintains that discontent and restlessness develop unless individuals do what they are best suited to do, that is, unless they meet their need for self-actualisation, which is the fifth level.
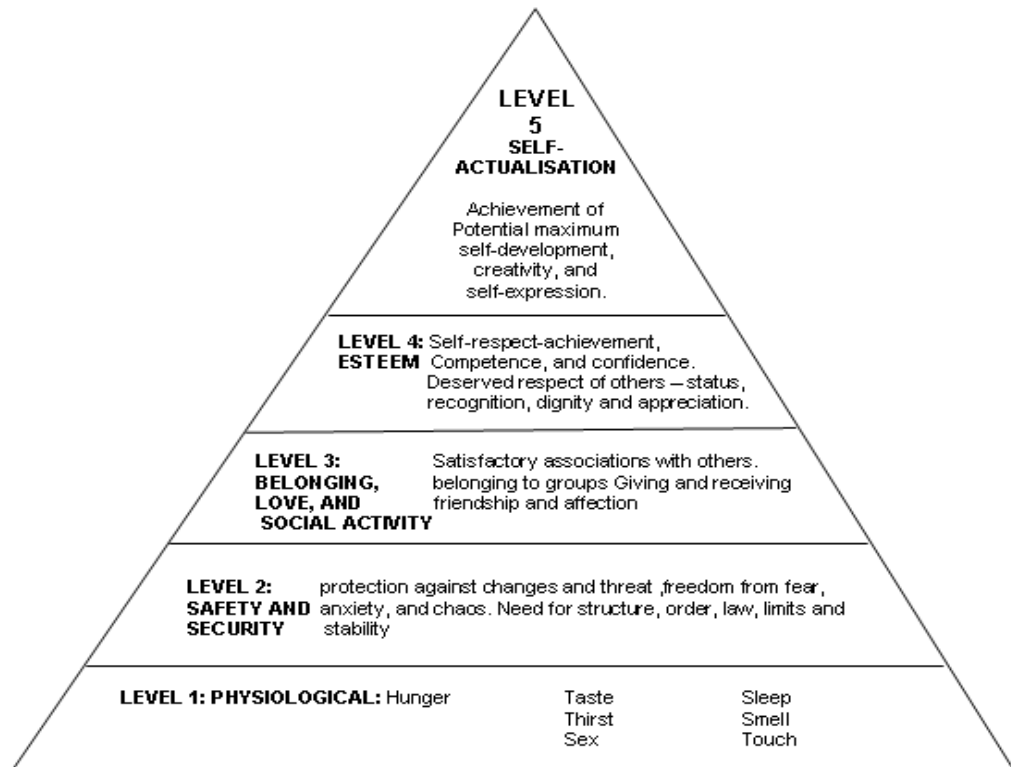
**Fig. 2:    Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory of Human Motivation**

*Source:*        Hoy & Miskel Pg. 140

The meaning of self-actualisation is the subject of much discussion. A succinct and simple definition of self-actualisation is that it is the need to be what an individual wants to be, to achieve fulfilment of life goals, and to realise the potential of his or her personality.

Maslow's needs are related to one another and are arranged in a hierarchy of pre-potency. The more pre-potent a need is, the more it precedes other needs in human consciousness and demands to be satisfied. The observation leads to the fundamental postulate of Maslow's theory: higher-level needs become activated as lower-level needs become satisfied. Thus, Maslow points out that a person lives by bread alone – when there is no bread. But when there is plenty of bread, other and higher needs emerge.

The successive emergence of higher needs is limited in that lower level needs are never completely satisfied; moreover, if an individual cannot satisfy needs at a given level for a period of time, those needs again become potent motivators. Conversely, if a lower-order need is left unsatisfied, it re-emerges and dominates behaviour.

Maslow clearly explains that individual differences affect his theory, yet his model frequently is interpreted rigidly. Although he maintains that most people have this hierarchy of basic needs, he allows for several general exceptions, including for instance, people who desire self esteem more than belonging to a group, or those whose level of aspiration is permanently deadened or lowered.

A second misconception about Maslow's theory is that one need must be entirely satisfied before the next need emerges. Maslow asserts that normal individuals are usually only partly satisfied in all their basic needs. Maslow argues that for the majority of people, needs at the first three levels, is regularly satisfied and no longer have much motivational effect; however, satisfaction of esteem and self actualisation needs is rarely complete.

Severally additional observations about work in educational organisations can be made using Maslow's theory.

First, although physiological needs are reasonably well met for educators, some students are deprived of even the most basic needs and therefore present a potent motivational problem. Moreover, the needs for safety and security, the second hierarchical level, certainly can become motivating factors for school employees and students, a like. Furthermore, Maslow's theories that broader aspects of the attempts to seek safety and security are seen in the preference many people have for the familiar rather than unfamiliar things, for the known rather than the unknown. In schools, those people who have safety needs may resist change and desire job security, injury compensation plans, and retirement programmes to satisfy those needs.

The need to belong causes an individual to sever relationship with co-workers, peer, superiors, and subordinates. For educators, friendship ties, informal work groups, professional memberships, and school memberships satisfy this need. The need for esteem and status, the fourth hierarchical level, causes an educator to aspire for professional competence. Finally, the need for self-actualisation motivates educators to be the best people they are capable of being. This need is less frequently apparent than others, however, because many individuals are still concerned with lower-level needs.

In Maslow's need hierarchy theory, then, there are two fundamental postulates:

- First, individuals are "wanting" creatures motivated to satisfy certain needs.
- Second, the needs they pursue are universal and are arranged in a hierarchy in which lower-level needs must be largely satisfied before higher-level needs can be felt and pursued.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Draw at least two generalised Model of Motivation.

## 3.2.2  Herzberg's Two Factors Theory

This is another popular content theory of motivation which has been proposed by Herzberg and his colleagues. The theory, which is variously, termed two-factor, dual-factor, motivator-hygiene, or simply Herzberg's theory has been widely accepted by administrators. Its basic postulate is that one set of rewards contributes to job dissatisfaction and another separate set to job satisfaction. The two sets shall be presented in a table.

The two-factor theory is based on Herzberg's findings in his now famous study of industrial employees' motivation to work. In interviews of 203 accountants and engineers, Herzberg and his associates used a critical incidents procedure, which essentially asked each person interviewed to describe events experienced at work that had resulted in either a marked improvement or a significant reduction in job satisfaction.

**Table 1:      Graphic Representation of the Two-factor Theory- job Satisfaction Continuum**

| Dissatisfaction (-) | + Satisfaction |
|---|---|
| | Motivators        or        satisfiers |
| | Achievement |
| | Recognition |
| | Work itself |
| | Responsibility |
| Hygiene's or Dissatisfaction | Advancement |
| Interpersonal relations-subordinates | |
| Interpersonal relations-peers | |
| Supervision – technical | |
| Policy and administration | |
| Working conditions | |
| Personal life | |
| Dissatisfaction (-) | (+) Satisfaction |

Analyses of the contents of interview transcripts produce the basic results shown in Table 1.3. The study showed that positive events were dominated by references, achievement, recognition, work itself and advancement. Negative events were dominated by references to interpersonal relations with superiors and peers, technical supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions, and personal life.

Based on these findings, the researchers posited that the presence of certain factors act to increase an individual's job satisfaction, but the absence of these factors does not necessarily cause job satisfaction. Theoretically, individuals start from a neutral stance in that they possess neither positive nor negative attitudes toward a job. The gratification of certain factors, called motivators, increases job satisfaction beyond the neutral point, but when the motivators are not gratified, only minimal dissatisfaction results. On the other hand, when factors called hygiene's are not gratified, negative attitudes are created, producing job dissatisfaction. Gratification of hygiene leads only to minimal job satisfaction. Consequently, motivators combine to contribute more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction.

In brief, the two factor theory postulates that one set of factors (motivators) produces satisfaction, while another set (hygiene's) produce dissatisfaction. Work satisfaction are not opposite, rather they are separate and distinct dimension of a person's attitudes about work.

**Table 2:     Percentage of Good and Bad Critical Incidents in the Herzberg Mausner and Snyderman Study**

**Herzberg – Industry Percentage**

|    |                                              | Good | Bad |
|----|----------------------------------------------|------|-----|
|    | Motivators (M)                               |      |     |
| 1  | Achievement                                  | 41*  | 7   |
| 2  | Recognition                                  | 33*  | 18  |
| 3  | Work itself                                  | 26*  | 14  |
| 4  | Responsibility                               | 23*  | 6   |
| 5  | Advancement                                  | 20*  | 11  |
|    | Hygiene (H)                                  |      |     |
| 6  | Salary                                       | 15   | 17  |
| 7  | Possibility of growth                        | 6    | 8   |
| 8  | International relations – subordinates        | 6    | 3   |
| 9  | Status                                       | 4    | 4   |
| 10 | Interpersonal relations – superiors          | 4    | 15* |
| 11 | Interpersonal relations – peer               | 3    | 8*  |
| 12 | Supervision – technical                      | 3    | 20* |
| 13 | Company (School) policy and administration   | 3    | 31* |

| 14 | Working conditions | 1 | 11 |
| 15 | Personal life | 1 | 6* |
| 16 | Job security | 1 | 1 |

* Significantly different from zero at the five per cent level.

*Source:*       Adapted from Hoy & Miskel (1982) Educational Administration, Theory and Practice.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Discuss two theories of motivation.

## 3.3    Process Approaches to Motivation

Instead of trying to reformulate a theory with certain weakness, some theorists have taken an entirely different approach to motivation. They are not as concerned as the content theorists with explaining the things that motivate behavioural processes, how behaviour is started, sustained, and stopped.

Process theories first attempt to define the major variables that are necessary to explain choice, effort, and persistence of certain behaviour. Then they attempt to specify how the major variables interact to influence outcomes, such as work effort and job satisfaction. In the study of behaviour in work organisations, expectancy, goal, attribution, and behavioural theories are the major examples of the process approaches.

Three of these are: **expectancy, goal,** and **attribution** theories. They are concerned with cognitive processes as the major determinants of behaviour. The fourth major process theory, **behaviourism**, is based on the assumption that the determinants of behaviour are environmental rather than psychological.

**Expectancy Theory**

During the past fifteen years the prevalence of expectancy theory in the literature clearly indicates that it is central to research on motivation in organisation, originally popularised by Victor Vroom, and modified by others, the approach is also called Valence – Instrumentality – Expectancy (VIE) theory and value theory.

In comparison to other formulations of work motivation, expectancy theory presents a complex view of the individual in the organisation. Furthermore, its clarity is clouded unnecessarily because one concept in

the theory (expectancy) carries the same name as the total theory. The basic assumptions, concept, and generalisations of expectancy theory, however, are easily identified and portrayed.

**Assumptions**

Expectancy theory rests on two fundamental premises:

- First, individuals make decisions about their own behaviour in organisations using their abilities to think, reason, and anticipate future events. Motivation is a conscious process governed by laws. People subjectively evaluate the expected value outcomes or personal payoffs resulting from their actions and then they choose how to behave.
- Second, is unique to expectancy theory, and in fact was posed as a generalisation from social systems theory; individual values and attitudes, for instance, interact with environmental components, such as role expectations and organisational climate, to influence behaviour.

**Concepts:** Expectancy theory builds on these assumptions with the concepts of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. As the basic building blocks, each must be defined and discussed.

**Valence:** Refers to the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement.

**Instrumentality:** Is high when there is a strong association between industrial performance and being rewarded. If teachers think that high student achievement in their classrooms is likely to result in public recognition of their teaching ability, then instrumentality is high.

**Expectancy:**        Refers to the subjective probability that a given effort will yield a specified performance level. Stated differently, it is the extent to which an individual believes that a given level of activity will result in a specified level of goal accomplishment. Mathematically, the probability can range from zero to one.

In general, motivation to behave in a certain way is greatest when the individual believes that:

- The behaviour will lead to rewards (high instrumentality)
- These outcomes have positive personal values (high valence)
- The ability exists to perform at the desired level (high expectancy)

When faced with choices about behaviour, the individual goes through a process of considering questions such as: can I perform at that level, if I work hard? If I perform at that level, what will I receive? How do I feel about these outcomes? The individual then decides to behave in the way that appears to have the best chances of producing positive desired rewards.

**Goal Theory**

Edwin A. Locke and his associates originally stated goal theory, or the technique of goal setting, in 1968. The theory was elaborated upon two years later, as a cognitive process approach of work motivation. It became increasingly popular during 1970s. Although not fully developed, goal theory appears to be a valuable analytical tool for educational administrators.

Goal theory is applied in several important school practices. For instance, many evaluation systems for teachers and administrators are modifications of a management by objective (MBO) technique. A second example is the widespread of behavioural objectives to guide discussions on instructional procedures and course content. Therefore, understanding the motivational qualities of goal setting is important to educators.

In contrast to expectancy theory, goal is defined simply as what an individual consciously is trying to do. The basic postulate of the theory is that intentions to achieve a goal constitute the primary motivating forces behind work behaviour. Two additional assumptions of the theory are that the specific goals are superior to general goals and the difficult goals, which when accepted, lead to greater effort than easy goals. To explain the cognitive process that determines these relationships, Locke proposed the theory illustrated systematically in the figure below:
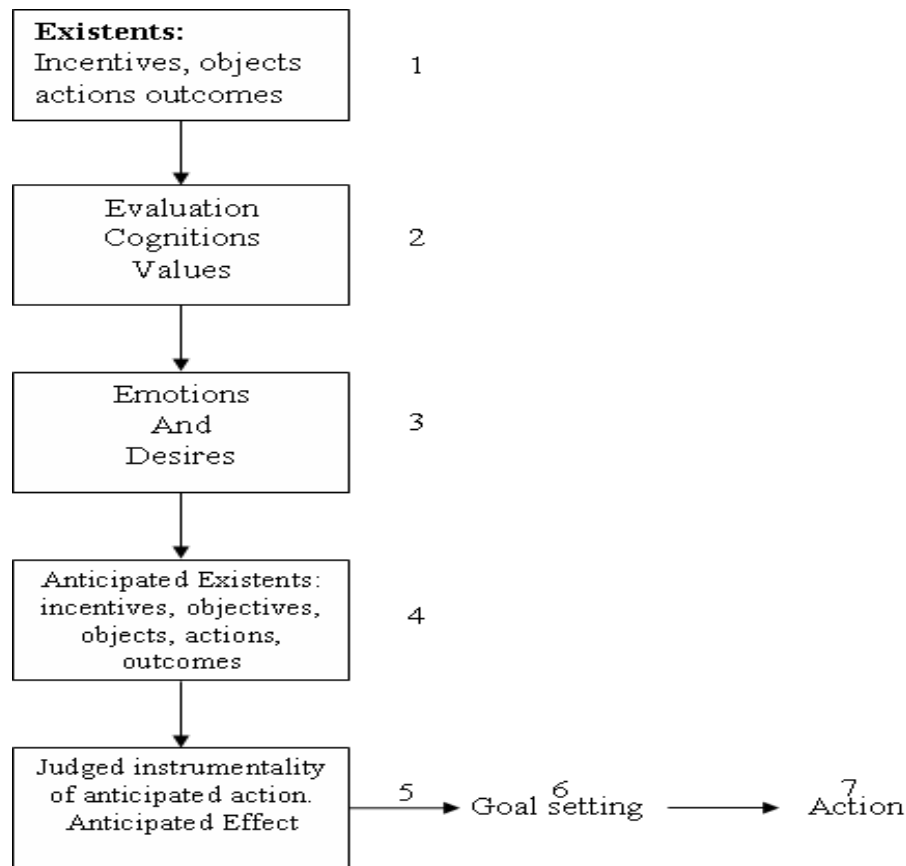
**Fig. 3:        A Schematic Illustration of Goal Theory**

*Source:*        Adapted from Hoy & Miskel (1982)


But he cautioned that the model outlines only the major processes that lead to goal setting and task performance.

As shown in the figure 3, seven components describe the goal-setting process:

- the first five serve to actuate behaviour
- and the last two maintain and regulate behaviour.

The goal-setting process begins with the assumption that the individual knows something about the nature and properties of things that exist in the work environment. This knowledge is gained through perception, existence and exercise of reason. Since action or behaviour is required to fulfill personal needs, it becomes necessary to judge elements in the environment (existents) to determine which actions will enhance the individual's well-being. Value judgments are thus the basis for choosing among alternative courses of action. Using a code of values or set of standards, the individual judges which behaviours are good or bad, right or wrong, or for or against personal interests. This evaluation is made by

estimating the relationships between perceptions of the environment and personal value standard. Emotions are those in which an individual experiences value judgment.

Based on the alternative that is selected, the individual anticipates new conditions in the work environment and projects instrumentalities for the anticipated behaviour and satisfaction. As in expectancy theory, instrumentality refers to a probability that an outcome will occur. At this point, the individual is ready to act, with the overall goal in mind he or she can set sub-goals based on a judgment of the probability of achieving the overall goal.

If achievement of the goal is judged highly probable, anticipation is also high.

Locke goes further and notes that most human action is purposive; behaviour is regulated and maintained by goals and intentions. The most fundamental effect of goals on mental or physical actions is to direct thought and overt behaviour to one end rather than another. Since pursuit of some goals requires greater mental concentration and physical effort than others, in the process of directing action, if a teacher decides to develop a new set of lesson plans rather than to use existing guides, this action necessarily requires more effort than using the available material.

**Research Based on Goal Theory**

Early support for Locke's idea came primarily from a series of well controlled laboratory experiments. Most of these studies used college students, who performed relatively simple tasks for short periods of time. Since the theory originally relied only on evidence from sheltered and contrived situations, the theory's proponents next attempted to answer the following questions.

In particular, the generalisations drawn from goal theory enjoyed substantial support to the findings produced by both laboratory and field research methods.

First, specific performance goals elicit a higher level of performance than goals, such as telling individuals to do their best, or no goals at all.

Second, the more difficult the performance goal, the more effort individuals will make if they accept it. Apparently, this generalisation holds even when the goal is so difficult that virtually no one can achieve it.

Thirdly, subordinate participation in goal-setting activities as opposed to goal setting by the supervisor alone, leads to employee satisfaction, though it may not increase performance.

Available evidence suggests, however, that participation may increase the difficulty of the goals that are set. If this occurs, performance may be higher because of the goal difficulty effect.

**Evaluation of Goal Theory**

Apparently goals are major source of work motivation. Strong support exists for the basic proportions of goal theory. However, the shortcomings can be pointed out.

**Shortcomings of Goal Theory**

First and perhaps the greatest deficiency, is the failure of the theory to specify what determines goal acceptance and commitment. The process of how goals are approached need elaboration.

Expectancy theory provides promising direction for enhancing goal theory. For example, goal acceptance will lead to goal attainment. The merger of goal theory and expectancy theory to guide research promises to produce significant results.

A second weakness of the theory concerns the mechanisms that explain how goal acceptance, goal difficulty, and other variables combine to determine effort. Currently, we can predict effort and performance with some success, but we have just begun to understand why goal setting affects employee behaviour.

A third problem with the perspective, particularly in educational settings, is that the theory is better for predicting outcomes  for simple jobs with concrete  results, but is less effective when tasks are complex. Since administrative and instructional jobs are complex, it is not surprising that goal-setting programmes in educational settings encounter difficulties.

Thus, while goal theory shows promise as an explanation of works motivation and may even enhance other formulations, much remains to be learned about its processes and applications for administration practice. This is particularly true for educational organisations.

**Attribution Theory**

Frasher and Frasher in Hoy & Miskel (1992) propose that this theory can be applied to educational setting. They argue that the approach deals with motivational issues of importance to administrators; that is attribution processes explain how individuals can manage themselves and their environment to achieve desired goals.

An attribution is a judgment about the cause of behaviour. According to the theory's founder Fritz Helder, behaviour can be accounted for by personal behaviour, one must begin with an observed event. The attribution of what causes a person to behave in a certain manner depends on the observer's perceptions of whether personal or environmental forces exercise greater influence. The observer will then act on the basis of the attribution.

## 3.4 Implications for Practice: Theory X, Theory Y and Management by Objectives

School administrators are interested in the question of causes; they look naively at the theories presented as offering relatively simple prescriptions. But theories of work motivation lack the precision to provide simple, unequivocal answer. However, the theories offer many suggestions and techniques for improving administrative practice, when used judiciously.

In this vein, administrators should borrow the best ideas from each theory and apply them to their situations. The content theories of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg indicate that the administrator must accurately identify and gauge the most important needs of their staff and use those needs to link job satisfaction with effort or performance. For example, if a need for security has been identified, perhaps the administrator can stress the relationship between high effort and job tenure in communicating with teachers.

Process theories provide implications for practice. Expectancy theory indicates that if an employee's level of motivation is deemed inadequate, expectancy, valence, or instrumentality can be used as a spur to future efforts. Goal theory and behaviourism offer similar ideas to increase performance.

Although all of these are important, the attitudes administrators hold about the professional employee can be equally significant. Douglas McGregor's theory X and theory Y formulations explore the importance of attitudes in managing workers. Management by objectives provides

another practical application of motivation theory to administration. Both deserve further comment here.

**Theory X and Theory Y**

Douglas McGregor, in developing the now immensely popular theory X and theory Y formulations, clearly presents fundamental alternatives for managing the employee and work.

Theory X – the traditional view of the employee and work – is the belief held by many managers that workers are lazy, they dislike and avoid work, and so administrators must use both the "Carrot and stick" to motivate them. McGregor maintains that managers or administrators hold other less explicit but widespread beliefs like this one. For example, they believe that the average person (educator, student) is by nature indolent, lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, and prefers to be led.

Moreover, they hold that the individual (educator, student) is inherently self-centred and indifferent to organisational needs unless motivated by personal gain. Managers also tend to believe that people are by nature resistant to change, and ready dupes for crusaders, charlatans, and demagogues.

In contrast, those who hold to theory Y assume that people have a psychological need to work and that they desire achievement and responsibility. Peter Drucker relates Theory Y to Maslow's and Herzberg's theories.

**Table 4:      Interpretations of Theory X and Theory Y**

| Theory X | Theory Y |
|---|---|
| People are inherently evil. Instinct drives people. Correction motivates the individual. Competition is a natural state. The individual is most important. Pessimism is pervasive, work is inherently distasteful. | People are inherently good. Humanism drives people. Cooperation motivates the individual. Cooperation is a natural state. The group is most important. Optimism is pervasive. Work is intrinsically rewarding. |

**Application**

But how do the models of behaviour described by theory X and theory Y apply to administrative practice? Basically, if you expect better performance, at least to a limited extent, better performance follows. Because administrators who subscribe to theory X view their appropriate

roles as motivating, controlling and modifying behaviour, they commonly use two often counterproductive approaches.

The first is the hard sell, which is characterised by authoritarian and coercive leadership.

The second is the soft sell, in which human relations or democratic and paternalistic patterns dominate administrative practices.

In contrast, school administrators who accept theory Y assumptions view their Job as that of arranging school conditions and methods of operation to facilitate and support student and teacher efforts. Consequently, students and teachers are better able to provide for their own satisfaction as well as to contribute to the school's goals.

An educator might claim that the theory X model of behaviour was developed for industrial situations but is not widely accepted in schools, where education administrators have long recognised the professional status of teachers. However, sign in sheets, checklist evaluations by the level of teachers' skill increases. Such traditional practice must change. With increased professionalism, theory Y may be the preferred leadership strategy for administrators to adopt.

**Limitations**

Before adopting theory Y as a panacea, however, administrators would be wise to examine shortcomings. Drucker observes that by itself the model is a guide for neither action nor laissez-faire administration. The reason is that McGregor's theory oversimplifies reality in two ways:

(i)    First, employees are viewed as fitting into the pattern envisioned by theory X or theory Y. A more realistic position is that employee work habits lie along a continuum ranging from X to Y. Individual educators and students may exhibit some of the characteristics postulated by theory X and some by theory Y.
(ii)   Second, theory Y places a great deal of responsibility for achievement on both workers and administrators. The theory fails to recognise individual variations in coping with responsibility.

The overall assumption of McGregor's theory Y that what you expect is what you get is a positive characteristic of the model. Administrators who adopt theory Y should better meet the critical needs of professionals. Though not a refined theory of human nature or motivation, theory Y provides a framework for managing professional employees.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

What are the implications of theory X and Y for school administrators?

**Management by Objectives**

In the 1950s, the concept of Management by Objective (MBO) was given prominence by Peter Drucker. Since its early postulation MBO has generated widespread appeal in industrial organisations. It is apparently also becoming an important innovation in many educational organisations. In fact, Ivanveirch concludes that MBO can no longer be considered a fact because of its long widespread use in industrial organisations.

**Definition**

Since the concept was first formulated, many definitions have been offered. In an educational context, Management by Objectives refers to the process by which administrators or teachers jointly define their common goals in terms of expected outcomes. These measures can be used to assess each member's contribution. An alternate definition is that MBO is a method of associating objectives with specific position in a school and linking these objectives with school distinct plans and goals.

Management by Objectives is carried out in four steps which are summarised in table 5 below:

**Table 5:      Four Steps of Management by Objectives**

| Step 1: | Developing district  wide goals |
|---------|----------------------------------|
| Step 2: | Establishing for each position |
| Step 3: | Integrating objectives with the goals |
| Step 4: | Determining measurement and control procedures |

The first step involves developing overall educational goals. Although this seems simple, educational goals traditionally, have been stated in highly abstract and socially accepted ways. For use in an MBO programme, they have to be stated in such a way that educators will understand the relationship of the goals to their jobs and thus use them as guides to action.

The second step establishes for job - central office- line and staff positions, building administrators, or teaching positions – what the individual in the position is required to achieve.

In the third step, objectives of different positions are integrated so that every division of the school district is working to accomplish the same overall goals. For example, if the instructional divisions' goal is to raise the reading level of elementary children, the staff development and purchasing divisions must have similar goals.

In the fourth step, measurement and control procedures are established. Quantitative procedures must be developed to measure tangible results. In education, however, qualitative procedures for evaluating less tangible, but exceedingly important, outcomes should not be neglected.

**Writing Objectives**

To implement an MBO programme, educators must write good objectives – a difficult task. As an aid, the table below contains suggestions for developing objectives. Two types of criteria are proposed – general and flexible.

General criteria are applicable to all objective statements. For example, objectives should be clearly stated, acceptable to affected parties, realistic, and attainable. They should comprise tasks that are organisation's overall goals.

Flexible criteria ensure the applicability of performance objectives. Good statements of objectives should concentrate on what and when, not on why and how. As such, four types of objectives – innovative, problem solving, administrative, and personal – are proposed to help individuals write different types of objectives according to their situations.

**Table 6:      Criteria for Developing Objectives**

| General Criteria | Flexible Criteria |
|---|---|
| 1.     Sufficient task | 1.     Type Innovative Problem-solving Administrative Personal |
| 2.     Clarity Easily communicated Simple to understand | 2.     Time frame Short -range |
| 3.     Acceptability Personal Super ordinate | 3.     Evaluation methods Quantitative Qualitative |

| 4. | Realistic Number Time | |
|---|---|---|
| 5. | Related to organisation's goals | |

In some schools or groups, administrators and subordinates may not be concerned with innovation or with a particular problem; they may simply want to ensure that important responsibilities are exercised most effectively. In such a situation, administrative or person – improvement objectives take priority. Similarly, flexibility and diversity are needed in writing short range and long-range objectives.

Finally, evaluation methods should include qualitative measures of tangible outcomes, such as student achievements, as well as qualitative evaluations of less tangible results, such as satisfaction and improvement in self concept. Obviously, implementing an MBO programme requires a commitment of school district resources.

Before making such a commitment, administrators need some understanding of the theoretical foundation of MBO, the research applications of the theory, and the practical problem in implementing it.

**Limitations of MBO**

Despite some of the advantages of adopting MBO, the technique has a number of limitations, among which are:

- Difficulty of setting realistic and measurable objectives. The operative word in the operation of MBO is objective. In fact, all activities centre on the objective, which is the nucleus of the technique. Some objectives have to be set for every worker; there is the difficulty of setting, for some categories of workers, realistic and measurable objectives.
- There is again the difficulty of obtaining valid measures in order to properly assess extent to which the set objectives are achieved.
- In any organisation, the contributions of several workers join to get the finished product out. In like manner, in the school system, no one teacher produces the final product alone.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

Outline and explain four steps involved in MBO.

## 3.5    Motivation and Work Performance

Over the years the concept of commitment to work has been the concern of scholars. Adopting a sociological view Backer (1960) in Ndu, Ocho & Okeke( 1997), suggests that commitment to any line of activity occurs:

- *When an individual confronted with an opportunity to depart from it discovers that in the course of past activity has willingly or not accumulated valuables of a kind that would be lost to him if he makes a change.*

Commitment to the organisation has been seen as the nature of relationship, such that a highly committed member of an organisation will demonstrate:

- A strong desire to remain part of the organisation
- Willingness to exert high level of efforts on behalf of the organisation and,
- A definite belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation.

The level of dedication a worker has on work is a process of reciprocation between the employee and the organisation. The organisation pays him, gives him status and job security, and does not ask him to do things outside his work description. In exchange therefore the employee reciprocates by hard work and a good day's job, avoiding damaging the image of the organisation.

Any organisation that has a programme which will help the workers to achieve their goals will certainly enjoy the workers loyalty, commitment and hard work.

Perhaps that may be why Taylor (1947) believes that it is better to lay down five objectives that can increase the efficiency of the worker in the productive process and at the same time put into consideration the aspirations of the worker. The objectives include:

- A daily large task: this is where every member of the organisation's rank and file should have a clearly defined task assigned to him.
- Standard Conditions: Each worker's task must be a full day's work and each worker should be given such standardised condition and appliances to enable him accomplish his task.

- High Pay for Success: Advocates that high pay will guarantee success. It is here that Taylor demonstrated the importance of incentive towards work performance in organisations.
- He advocated loss on the part of a worker in case of failure to accomplish a task. Here he wanted belief to reflect reality. The third and fourth principles are reinforcement approaches to motivation and management.
- First Class Man: Workers should be systematically selected so that individuals with the best aptitudes and training will be matched with the appropriate job.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Outline five objectives that can increase the efficiency of a worker?

## 4.0   CONCLUSION

It is impossible to run an organisation effectively without applying the concept of motivation which is the driving force for full job accomplishment. It creates conducive climate for workers in the organisation (School).

## 5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has introduced you to the concept and general model of motivation. Notably what you have learnt in this unit include:

- Theories of motivation
- Content and process approaches to motivation
- Implications for Theory X and Y and Management by Objective
- Motivation and work performance

## 6.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define motivation and draw its general model.
2. Discuss two content theories of motivation.
3. Discuss Management by Objectives (MBO) and its limitations.
4. Discuss the relationship between motivation and performance.
5. Discuss theory X and Y and its implication in motivation of workers in organisations?

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## UNIT 2     COMMUNICATION IN CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS

**CONTENTS**

## 1.0     INTRODUCTION

The communication process is a vital aspect of human life especially with the advent of information communication technology (ICT) in recent years. As a result communication in formal organisations has received considerable attention (Ozuzu, 2008, Emenike, 1997). There is a general awareness of the critical role of communication in modern organisation today. Man's ability to communicate has helped him build societies and other social groupings which contribute to his survival and to more enjoyable pattern of living.

Suffice it to state that every human organisation, whether formal or informal, exists to achieve a purpose or an objective (Emenike, 2003). For the purpose to be achieved or accomplished, roles to be played must be assigned to the individual members of the organisation. In the process of playing such roles, one form of interaction or the other must exist among members. Hence, whenever two or more people work together, there is bound to be communication between them; the more effective

the communication, the higher the probability of effective joint social action (Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara, 1992).

Thus, if two or more individuals clearly understand the roles they are to undertake and have clear expectations as to what each is to do in a particular situation, the probability is greater that they are going to be able to work together more effectively. If there is no such clear understanding, the probability diminishes. Communication is therefore central to all human social behaviour. Human beings cannot interact unless they communicate through shared information, ideas, and emotions. Administrators and teachers earn their living in the school by communication. As Simon (1975:157) puts it "without communication, there can be no organisation".

## 2.0    OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of Communication
- discuss two theories of Communication
- outline and explain types of communication
- describe the communication process
- outline the importance of communication in an organisation
- discuss Information Communication Technology (ICT)
- outline barriers to effective communication
- state ways of improving communication.

## 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    The Concept of Communication

The concept of communication in formal organisation, such as the school, has received considerable attention by scholars and administrators. General awareness exist as to the relevance of communication in modern organisations and establishments whether the church, military, hospitals, etc. This is so because communication is perceived as the central pivot of human relationship and social behaviours; human beings cannot interact and socialise among themselves without communicating through the sharing of common symbols, ideas and emotions.

Education is one of those organisations whose primary function is the inculcation of knowledge and skills into students and individuals. Realisation of this function is dependent on the effectiveness of communication and its co-ordination in the educational management,

which ultimately rely on the transaction, interactions/and socialisation among teachers and students, and between the teachers and principals or key managers of schools.

Obi (1997) in Ndu, Ocho, and Okeke (1997:99) defined communication "as a process of meaningful interaction and exchange of information, feelings, ideas, attitudes, wishes and signs among members of a group; it is the basic of interpersonal influences of leadership, human relations and co-ordinations''. Communication means sharing messages, ideas or attitudes that produce a degree of understanding between a sender and a receiver. Put differently, communication is a process in which communicators attempt to convey an image or idea to communicate, in which the communicator is the initiator of the process of imparting ideas or message to another.

The word "communication" has its etymological roots in the Latin expression 'communis' which infers a commonness of act through participation, sharing, interaction, dialogue or conference (Emenike, 2003). The word communication has been defined as exchange of information and transmission of meaning (Katz and Kalm, 1878 in Okunamiri, 2007). It involves a transmission, transfer or exchange of ideas, feelings, views, messages and issues.

**Emenike, (2003)** X-rayed the various definitions of the concept of communication by different scholars from different perceptions.

**Rosenblat in Mackay and Fetzer (1980):** communication is the purposeful interchange of ideas, opinions, and information, presented personally or impersonally by symbol or signal to pass a message.

**Berlo (1960) -** communication is the creation of meaning through the use of signals and symbols. It is not a static phenomenon; it is reviewed as a process.

**Ages (1979) -** communication is the act of transmitting ideas and attitude from one person to another.

**Schram and Robberts (1971) -** communication is the sharing of an orientation towards a set of informational signs.

**Bedeian (1987) -** communication is the process of transmitting information and understanding between two or more   people.

**Chester Barnard (1960) -** communication is the means by which people are linked together in an organisation to achieve a common purpose.

**Katz and Kaln (1978)** - communication is the exchange of information and transmission of meaning.

**Ubeku (1975)** - communication takes place when one passes relevant information to the person who needs to know and who is in a position to use it.

**Lucey (1987)** - communication involves the interchange of facts, thoughts, value judgments and opinion and may take many forms whatever the process; good communication results when the sender and the receiver are in accord over the meaning of a particular message.

**Obi (1995)** - communication implies sending and receiving messages, information, ideas, signals, instructions or intentions and it is necessary for linking various organizational activities.

From the above definitions, one can deduce that communication is a two way traffic which involves the sender and the receiver until the information is decoded and feedback received.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

Give a brief overview of communication.

## 3.2    Theories of Communication

Two frameworks for analysing and understanding communication process are the socio-psychological and formal-informal organisational theories.

### 3.2.1  Socio-Psychological Theory

Communication plays key important role in schools. The key issue is not whether administrators engage in communication or not, but whether administrators communicate effectively or poorly. Communication itself is unavoidable to any organisation functioning; only effective communication is avoidable as stated by James l. Gibson and colleagues.

This theory states that communication among people is dependent on a combination of personal and environmental factors. Hoy and Miskel (1982) observed that the socio-psychological theory of communication considers the individual's personal and social context, as basic to the communication process. This model is a process conceptualised as communication loop.
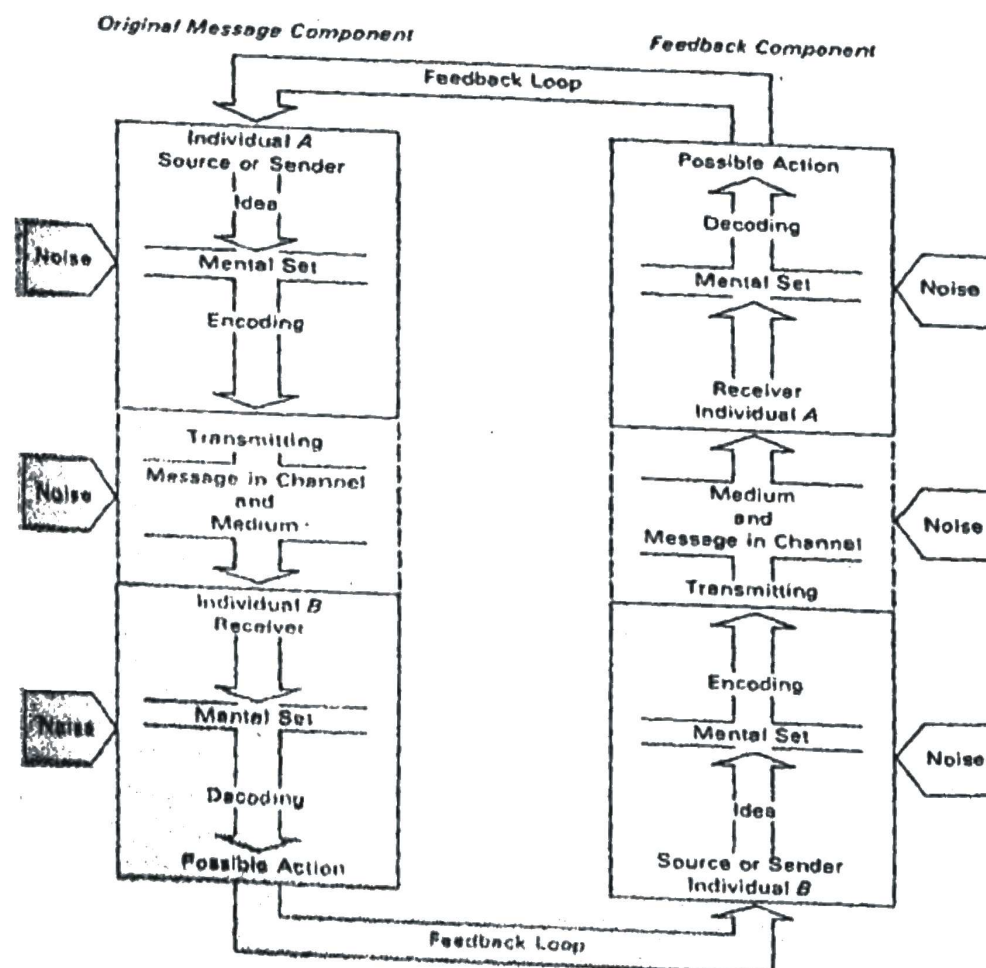
**Fig1**: **A Socio-Psychological Model of Two Ways Communication**

*Source:*      Hoy and Miskel (1982) P. 294 Educational Administration
               Theory Research and Practice

At the left of the loop which is the original message component, is individual **A** who sends/ initiates message. This message from the sender (individual **A**) is received by individual **B** (the receiver) who responds or provides feedback.

As soon as individual **B** (receiver) responds to the particular message, the original position of individuals **A** and **B** becomes reversed in which individual **B** becomes the source or initiator of the message while individual **A** becomes the receiver. The exchange in the loop continues a two way communication (Ozuzu, 2008).

Two renowned scholars, Elekwa and Eze (2002) observed that in this model, the sender sends message to the receiver; the receiver receives, interprets and sends his interpretation back to the original sender who now becomes the receiver. They further noted that this cycle continues

as each individual changes his role as sender and receiver until message is clearly understood by the original receiver.

**Comments on this Model**

Hoy and Miskel (1982) consider an individual's personal and social context basic to communication which is a means or process of sharing messages, ideas and attitudes that produce understanding between the sender and receiver. With this kind of model, individuals exchange ideas for facts with other people in social interactions. The meaning and understanding of the messages are truly determined by those who interpret them.

## 3.2.2 Formal-Informal Organisational Theory of Communication

Formal organisation and communication, formal communication channels traverse the organisation through the hierarchy of authority. Hoy and Miskel (1982) maintained that Barnard called these channels "the communication system". Continuing, Barnard stated that several factors must be considered when developing and using the formal communication system.

- The channels of communication must be known.
- The channels must be carried to every member of the organisation.
- The line of communication must be as direct and as short as possible.
- The complete line of communication typically should be used.
- Every communication must be authenticated as being from the correct person occupying the position and within his or her authority to issue the message.
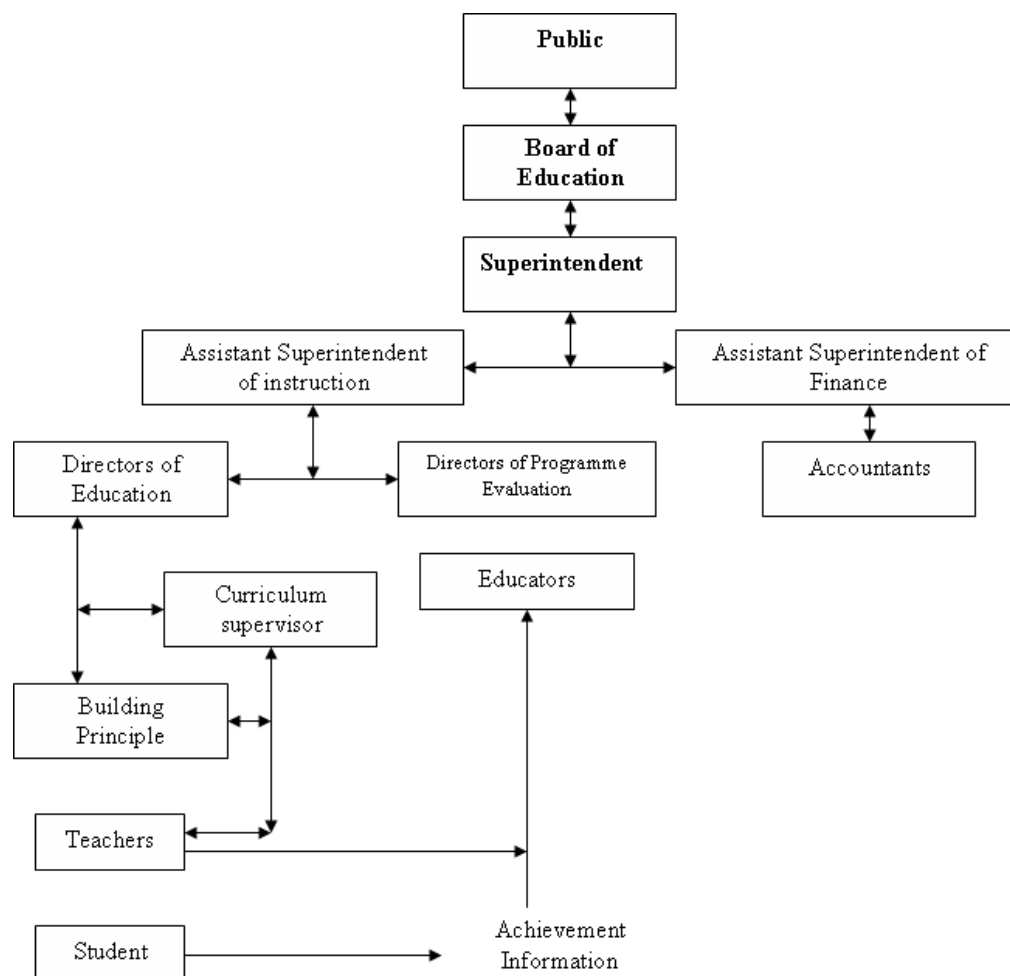
**Fig 4:** **Barnard's Descriptive Statements of Formal Communication System**

*Source:* Hoy and Miskel (1982) P. 294 Educational Administration Theory Research and Practice

The chart indicates that every member reports to someone. The directors report to the assistant superintendent of instruction, who with the assistant superintendent of finance reports to the superintendent. The line of communication from the superintendent to the teachers goes through five hierarchical levels. This is reasonably short and direct for a large school district.

**Informal Organisation and Communication**

These are messages that pass through the organisational structure of schools but are not shown on the hierarchical chart. They are called informal communications. Here, informal channels, commonly called "grapevines" exist in all organisations regardless of how elaborate the formal communication system happens to be.

There is one fact that is repeatedly observed by researchers and by participants in organisations. This fact is that people who are in groups, cliques, or gangs tend to reach an understanding on things or issues very quickly. They communicate easily and well among themselves. Facts, opinions, attitudes, suspicions, gossips, rumours, and even directives flow freely through the grapevine. Built around social relationships among members, informal channels develop for such simple reasons as common office areas, similar duties, shared departments, and friendships.

Formal and informal communication channels exist in all educational organisations.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Mention 2 theories of communication. Do they exist in school organisation?

## 3.3    Types of Communication

Communication type in educational institutions may according to koontz, O'Donnel and Weihrich (1980), be:

a.    Downward
b.    Upward
c.    Crosswise and
d.    Horizontal

Pigors and Myers (1981) also categorised organisational communication system as:

- Downward
- Upward
- Crosswise and
- Horizontal

They further noted that informal communication known as grape vine can overlap the system.

**Downward Communication**

This type normally moves from the head to the subordinates in the form of instruction, order, warnings, direction, etc. Frequent use of this type of communication may lead to charged atmosphere. It may ignore the input which receivers make in the communication process.

**Upward Communication**

This goes in the form of the subordinates to the superior for example, information from a teacher to the principal concerning his progress.

The major areas which should be communicated from below, that is, upward communications are:

1.     Activities of teachers as regards their achievement, progress and future plans.
2.     Outline of unresolved work on which teachers may need help.
3.     Plausible ideas and suggestions for improvement within the work.
4.     How subordinates feel about their job.

This method of communication provides a multi-channel communication networks which will provide for the head, information regarding their followers. According to Hicks (1972), it will increase school effectiveness because of its significant relationship that is positive between the leader and the led.

**Horizontal Communication**

Horizontal Communication within a school provides for consistency in organisational actions. It implies discussions among peers not only within the organisational units but also among the various working units of the organisation. This is because workers tend to communicate more with peers than with persons above or below their status. A study conducted in a hospital revealed that doctors tend to associate with doctors, nurse with nurses and employees of lower status with personnel in similar status.

This Horizontal Communication does in fact, exist in a school system and it is necessary for problem solving and increases the level of information flow.

## 3.4    The Communication Process

Communication is clearly a dynamic and vital process. The complex nature of this process must be understood if effective, meaningful communication is to occur. However, it must be noted that the steps in a communication process interact with each other.

An early elementary model of communication process was presented by Aristotle Rose (1946). In the model, there are three ingredients in the communication event:

a)      the speaker
b)      the speech and
c)      the audience

Modern models are more complex but they are similar. The Shannon-weaver model, developed as a model in electrical communication, has been adapted very successfully by behaviour scientists to explain human communication. To them communication undergoes five stages, namely:

a.      Source
b.      Transmitter
c.      Signal
d.      Receiver
e.      Destination

The source is the speaker, the transmitter is the channel, the signal is the speech and the destination is the listener or the receiver. The numerous models that have been developed vary most in the inclusion of one or two components in terminology or in point of view.

Berlo (1960) has a model which has nine components such as:

1.      Source
2.      Encoder
3.      Message
4.      Channel
5.      Receiver
6.      Decoder
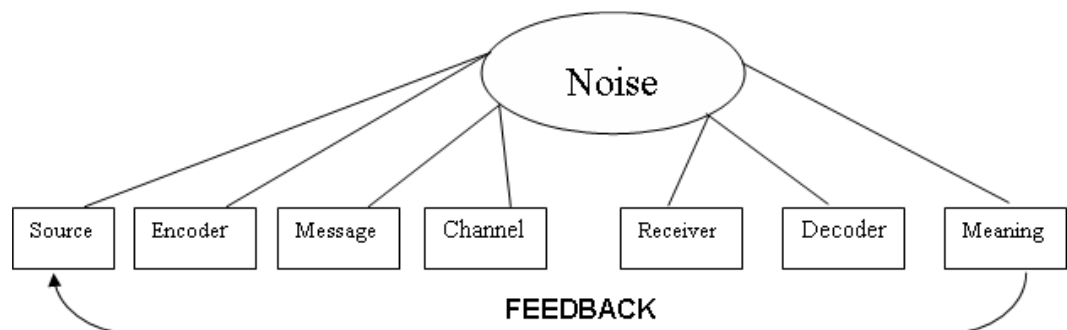7.      Meaning
8.      Feedback and
9.      Noise.



**Fig. 5:      Model of Steps in Communication Process**
Adapted from Emenike (2003:68)

**The Communication Process**

**Step 1**

Ideation: The first step in the communication process is ideation. Here, the sender has information for or needs information from another person. This information may consist of ideas, facts, opinions, etc. As a consequence, a decision is made to communication message to the other person, the receiver.

**Step 2**

Encoding: The next step is encoding. At this point, the sender translates the message to be conveyed into a set of symbols which is believed the intended receiver will understand. To be most effective, the symbols selected must be adequate for the medium used to transmit the message. If the medium is a written report, for instance, the encoding symbols will likely be words, tables, diagrams and perhaps pictures. If it is a lecture, encoding might involve words, overhead transparencies and written handouts.

**Step 3**

Transmission: This stage is the actual transmission of the message as encoded. Transmission may take any of these forms:

a.      Written (letter, circular, memorandum)
b.      Oral (Speech, conversation, telephone)
c.      Body movements (gestures, facial expression, posture)

**Step 4**

**Receiving:** The person with whom communication is intended receives the messages. If communication is to take place, the intended receiver must perceive the message. If it is oral, the receiver must be listening. If not, the message will be lost.

**Step 5**

**Decoding:** The receiver perceives certain words or sees certain actions and interprets them to have a particular meaning. Here the receiver of the message interprets it. Depending on the skills of the sender in encoding and transmitting and the receiving and decoding, the meaning may or may not be that intended.

**Step 6**

**Understanding:** Successful communication takes place only when the message transmitted is understood. Without meaningful accord over what is transmitted between the sender and the receiver no successful and effective communication can take place.

**Step 7**

**Feed back:** This allows the sender to determine if the intended message has been accurately received because of noise. Noise is a factor which distorts or disturbs a message; it reduces accuracy or fidelity of communication. Noise is the technical term for all forms of barriers which reduce the effectiveness of communication. Noise could be physical, psychological or linguistic.

## 3.5 The Importance of Communication

The success of any enterprise depends, to a large extent, on effective communication. In any undertaking, involving two or more persons, it is essential for co-ordination of individual activities. It is the wire and the glue that hold an organisation together.

Communication is vital in formulating and implementing organisational plans. It is also the principal means of achieving various organisational activities. Decisions-making and budgeting, for instance, are essentially information processing activities.

Communication is essential for effective external contact with communities, voluntary agencies, governments, parents and all others interested in education. Since schools cannot exist without the support of these groups, appropriate external communication is of utmost importance.

Communication that is not effective has been shown to be a source of administration failure, Obi (1971). An understanding of communication process and different barriers to effective communication can lead to improved organisational performance. It is the means of bringing people together in an organisation, such as schools, to achieve the purpose for which such organisations are established. Group activity is impossible without communication because co-ordination and change cannot be affected.

It is through communication that any organisation becomes an open system interacting with its environment and it is essential for the informal functioning of the school organisation because it integrates the

school administrator's functions. Specifically communication is needed to:

a.  Establish and disseminate information on the school
b.  Develop plans for their achievement
c.  Organise human and other resources in the most effective and efficient way.
d.  Select, develop and appraise members of the school.
e.  Lead, direct, motivate and create a climate in which people learn to contribute.
f.  Evaluate and control performance.

## 3.6  Information Communication Technology (ICT)

Information technology (IT) refers to the use of computer, telecommunication equipment and other technologies associated with automation (Sobade, 2006). On the other hand, information and communication technology (ICT) is the interaction of telecommunication with information technology (IT) (Abifarin, 2006). The most important component of information technology is the computer.

A computer can be defined as an automatic electronic device, which is capable of receiving data or information, processing the information and giving output. It is also capable of storing the information (Avenue, 2006).

The components of a computer are basically divided into two major groups:

• Hardware
• Soft ware

A computer has the following characteristics:

i    A computer is electronic in nature
ii   It has the ability to receive information or data, process the information and give an output.
iii. It can store information or data and present it when needed.
iv.  It operates on a high speed with accuracy and consistency.

Furthermore, Landon (1997) describes information and telecommunication technology (ICT) as an electronic based technology generally utilised to collect, store, process and package information as well as provide access to knowledge. It is a form of technology which embraces various technologies and their applications such as the rise of

computer, micro-electronic means, usually over a distance. Continuing, Ozoji (2005) asserts that ICT is the handling and processing of information for use by means of electronic and communication gadgets such as computers, cameras, telephones etc. While Imogie (1998) sees ICT as a complex integrated organisation of man, machine, ideas, procedures and management. It also includes processes, systems, management and control mechanism both human and non-human. Abifarin (2006) describes information and communication technology (ICT) as a process of transferring news, reports, intelligence and skills to recipients through technological and electronic devices, usually over a distance. It is a modern communication device, which has made distance irrelevant in line of communication. This is because, whatever the distance, ICT makes communication possible within few minutes. It is the latest communication device, which is widely used for commerce, politics, religion, education, entertainment, securities, communication, health, shelter, and so on. It is a device that has turned the world into a global village.

**Key Terms**

Information, Communication, Technology, Hardware, Software

Information: Is defined by Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English as news or knowledge given. But in technical terms information is said to be data that has been processed into a form that is meaningful to the recipient and is for real or perceived value in the content or prospective decisions. Information constitutes facts which if made available, can help an individual or group to make better national decisions and deal successfully with existential problems and issues (Okeke, 2006). Information is a chain of events in which the significant is a message. The process also involves the production, transmission and reception of message.

Communication: It is a source and extension of imagination in forms that can be learned and shared. It is the production, perception and understanding of messages that bear man's notion of what is important, what is right and what is related to something else. Njoku (2006) sees communication as the process of sending and receiving information. Therefore Okeke (2006) is of the view that information and communication go hand in hand.

Technology: Information and communication is empowered by technology. Technology is defined by the Nigerian national policy for information technology (2001, p.IX) as:

- *computer ancillary equipment, software and firmware (hardware) and similar procedures, services including support services and related resources. Any equipment, interconnected system or subsystem of equipment that is used in the automatic acquisition, storage, manipulation, management, movement, transmission or reception of data or information.*

Information Communication Technology embraces the use of;

(a)    Computer
(b)    Internet
(c)    Electronic mail (e-mail),
(d)    Satellite,
(e)    Telecommunication
(f)    Global system of mobile (GSM)
(g)    Global packet radio service (GPRS)
(h)    Worldwide website (www) and the rest (Knoll 1995) in Obi (2003).

A combination of all these are applied to education for effective teaching and learning in schools.

Hardware: These are the physical components of the computer which we can see and touch. Examples are the central processing unit (CPU), the monitor (VDU), keyboard and mouse, printer, the magnetic tape, the magnetic diskette, the light pin, the punched card, the magnetic drum, the touch screen, the hard disk and the graphic printer.

Generally the hardware of a computer could be grouped into three main functional units:

- The input devices
- The central processing unit (CPU)
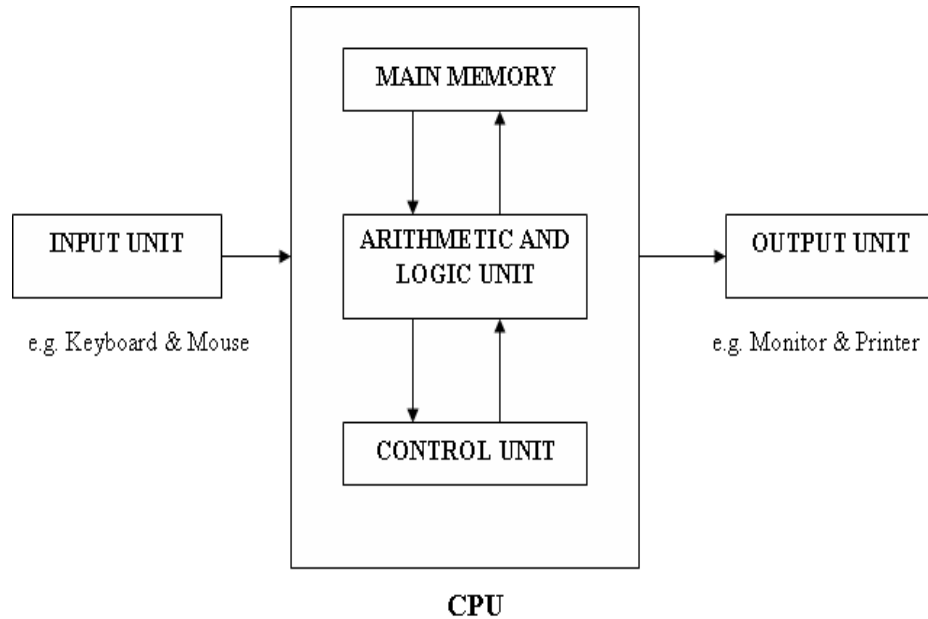- The output devices.

**CPU**

**Fig 6:**          **The Block Diagram of the Hardware of a Computer**

*Source:*          Adapted from Anene (2006) Computer Appreciation and Practice

Software: These are the programs or sequence of instructions needed to be performed to accomplish a task.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 9**

Visit any ICT laboratory or cyber café around you and study the hardware and software components of the computer.

## 3.6.1  ICT and Education in Nigeria

As the world changes, information and knowledge change and increase rapidly, consequently, teaching and learning processes and strategies also have to change (Agabi Uche, 2006). Thus, nations around the world are focusing on strategies to increase access to and improve the quality of education in today's global information – based economy. The effective use of ICT can improve the quality of education, expand learning opportunities and make education more accessible.

Continuing, Agabi and Uche maintain that in recognition of this, Nigerian educational reforms have stressed the use of computer technology in schools. This was arrived at during the national council on education meeting in 1987/ the national council on education 1988. Other strategic policies include the Nigerian national policy on the adoption of ICT in institutions of learning (March, 2001) for effective teaching and learning process and sustainable development. School Net

Nigeria was launched in September, 2001 with the support of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Telecommunications, the Ministry of Science and Technology and the Education Trust Fund. School Net Nigeria creates learning communities of educators and learners who use information and communication technology (ICT) to enhance education with and beyond Nigeria, to contribute to the transformation of the education system in Nigeria into one which participates in and benefits from the knowledge society.

Nigeria is witnessing a tremendous growth in the number of colleges and universities as well as student enrolment in higher institutions. Faculties are instructed to integrate ICT into their institutional activities and considerably improve on ICT application. Both public and private universities and other higher institutions are encouraged to adopt ICT in their activities.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 10**

Has Nigeria welcomed ICT into her education system? Discuss.

## 3.7    Barriers to Effective Communication

Poor communication in an organisation may be caused by a variety of factors. It is probably no surprise that administrators frequently cite communication breakdown as one of their most important problems.

Communication problems are often seen as symptoms of more deeply rooted problems.

Discussion of all the possible barriers to effective communication is beyond the scope of this write-up. However, only those communication barriers common to most organisations will be discussed. They are, according to Bedeian (1987), grouped into four categories:

1.    Interpersonal Factors
2.    Intrapersonal Factors
3.    Technological Factors
4.    Structural Factors

**Table 1:      Categorisation of Barriers to Effective Communication**

| Interpersonal factors | | Intrapersonal factors | Technological factors | | Structural factors |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Climate, Trust -Credibility Sender Receiver Similarity | | Selective Perception Individual in Communication Skills | Language and meaning Non-verbal Cues Media Effectiveness Information Overload | | Status Serial Transmission Group size Spatial Constraint |

**1.      Interpersonal Factors**

**Climate**

When the relationship between the head and the subordinates is not cordial, it affects the way each treats the other and how this reciprocal behaviour is interpreted. As they interact, the feelings each has for the other can either limit or encourage the content and frequency of their communications as well as models in which each of them attempt to communicate with each other.

**Trust**

The communication process is a give-take relationship between the sender and the receiver. Information transmitted should have reciprocal effect on both parties and must be based on trust. Distrust and suspicion between a head and the subordinates can only serve to increase defensiveness, decrease the frequency of open expression and subsequently decrease the likelihood of effective communication

**Credibility**

According to Whitehead (1968), source credibility is composed of four distinct elements.

- Honesty
- Competence
- Enthusiasm, and
- Objectivity

These characteristics are attributed to the sender by the receiver. Sour credibility is receiver determined.

Researchers like Falicione (1973) and O'Reilley (1978) have related credibility in communication to individual and group behaviour. At the individual's level, the sub-ordinate's belief in a supervisor's credibility is often a key factor in that employee's satisfaction with his or her boss. At the group level, high credible work units or departments have been shown to experience greater communication openness, information accuracy are higher within group interaction rates than to other units.

**Sender – Receiver Similarity**

The accuracy of communication between two persons is also related to the extent that they perceive themselves to be similar in terms of characteristics such as age, sex, intelligence, socio-economic status, common attitude, interests, values and abilities. Such factors influence the ease and openness of their communications. Communicators who perceive themselves as being similar in some respect are generally more willing to accept the viewed points of one another and to express common agreement unlike dissimilar perceptions.

**2.      Intrapersonal Factors**

**Selective Perception**

The way in which people perceive an object or an event involves not only the way they see it but also the way in which their thoughts about it are converted into meaningful communication.

Leavitt (1978) says research findings suggest that people seek out favourable messages and ignore unpleasant ones. People have a tendency to see or hear. They reject or emotionally prepare to see or hear. They reject or inaccurately perceive information that is inconsistent with their previously established expectations.

Individual Differences in Communication Skills

Some people are incapable of expressing themselves orally but able to write clear and concise messages. Some are effective speakers but poor listeners. Many read slowly or fast and find it difficult to understand what they have read. Such difficulties are potential barriers to effective communication.

**3.      Technological Factors**

**Language and Meaning**

The extent to which communication assigns similar meanings to the same words affects the accuracy of communication. The meaning a person attaches to a message is uniquely determined by social background, individual needs, experiences etc. For this reason, the words used in a message rarely have exactly the same meaning to a sender as they do to a receiver. This affects comprehension. Unless there is uniformity in meaning over words, effective communication cannot take place. The use of common language implies a certain degree of agreement in the meaning of the words used.

**Non-Verbal Cues**

Spoken words are usually accompanied by a variety of meaningful non-verbal cues such as physical posture, head orientation, gestures, facial expressions, body movement and visual behaviour. They are silent messages that assist in the accurate transfer of meaning. For example, facial expressions may show surprise, joy, fear, sadness or anger.

In face-to-face communication, only 7% of the content of typical message is transmitted by words. The remaining ninety-three is transmitted by one of voice (38%) and facial expression (55%), Mecchrabian (1971). Verbal and non-verbal cues interrelate to create a total message. In most cases, they carry the same meaning. They repeat, complement or accent one another. In some cases however, non-verbal stimuli may contradict and even negate the intended meaning of a verbal message.

## 3.8    Ways of Improving Effective Communication

The American management association (AMA) as reported in the Harvard business review (1952) believed that any pattern or system of communication can be effective if well managed (Emenike, 2003). It therefore recommends ten rudiments that can improve communication environment and increase understanding between the sender and the receiver in the communication process. They are:

i.      clarify ideas before communicating
ii.     examine the purpose of communication
iii.    understand the physical and human   environment
iv.     consult to obtain others view in planning communication
v.      consider the content and overtone of the message
vi.     communicate something that helps or is valued by the receiver

vii.     seek for or demand follow-up
viii.    communicate messages that are of short run and long run
         importance
ix.      mass (group) actions congruent with communication.
x.       be a good listener.


Still in search of the best way or ways to enhance school effectiveness
through the communication process, Leavitt (1958) in Emenike (2003)
found that two – way communication is often better and more
satisfactory than one- way type because of the greater opportunity for
clarification and the assurance receivers have in participating in the
process.  On the other hands, a school administrator and others within
the school system, who from time to time initiate communications for
purpose of attaining educational objectives and goals, can communicate
effectively using the following principles outlined by peretomode,
(1991):

- Use clean and concise words.
- Select proper channels to convey messages, that is, use the
  channel that is most appropriate for the situation.
- Encourage feedback.
- Use multiple channel(s) of communication that will work most
  effectively with those you want to communicate (personal
  discussion, memo etc.).
- Use face to face communication whenever necessary.
- Use repetition if the message is complicated or necessary.
- Follow up important verbal discussions with a note.
- Be sensitive to educational or official status.
- Carefully cross-check by reading through letters or mails that are
  ready for dispatch.
- Establish proper communication climate by establishing mutual
  trust between you (the sender) and the receivers (students,
  parents, teachers etc.) and also maintain credibility.
- Regulate information flow and use the informal communication
  channels (use the grapevine).
- Time messages properly.
- Develop effective communication skills, including listening
  skills.
- Remove inter-group hostility.
- Be mindful, while you communicate of the overtones as well as
  the basic content of your message.
- Take the opportunity to convey something of help or value to the
  receiver(s).
- Be sure your actions support your communication.

**Table 2:** **Seven Commandments (7C/S) to Achieve Effective Communications according to Cultip and Centre (1971; 260-261)**

| 1. | Credibility | The receiver must have confidence in the sender, and must have high regard for the sources competence on the subject. |
|---|---|---|
| 2. | Context | A communication's programme must square with the realities of its environment. The context must provide for participation and playback. |
| 3. | Content | The message must have meaning for the receiver and must be compatible with his value system. It must have relevance for him and determines the audience, since in general people select those items of information which promise them the greatest rewards. |
| 4. | Clarity | This must be put in simple terms. Words must mean the same thing to the receiver as they do to the sender. |
| 5. | Continuity and Consistency | Communication is an unending process. It requires repetition to achieve penetration. The story must be consistent. |
| 6. | Channels | Established channels of communication should be used. Channels that the receiver receives and at the same time respects. Creating new ones is difficult. |
| 7. | Capability of Audience | Communication must take into account the capacity of the audience; communications are most effective when they require the least effort on the part of the recipient, which include factors like availability, reading ability and the receiver's knowledge. |

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

It is impossible to manage school without effective communication; therefore communication is imperative in educational institutions. ICT which has turned the world into a global village should be adopted to manage high enrolment figure in institutions of higher learning.

## 9.0 SUMMARY

This unit has introduced you to the imperativeness of communication in educational management. Notable among what you learnt in this unit are:

- The concept of communication.
- Theories of communication
- Types of communication.
- The communication process
- The importance of communication process
- Information communication technology (ICT) and its relevance to education in Nigeria.
- Barriers to effective communication as well as categorisation of these barriers.
- Ways of improving effective communication.

## 10.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss the concept of communication.
2. Mention and explain two theories of communication.
3. Outline types of communication.
4. Outline the communication process.
5. Is communication important? Discuss
6. Discuss information communication technology (ICT) and its role in education in Nigeria.
7. Are there barriers to effective communication? Outline and categorise them.
8. Enumerate ways of improving effective communication.

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## UNIT 3 ESTABLISHMENT OF CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS AND MANAGEMENT

**CONTENTS**

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
    3.1 Establishment of Childhood Institutions
    3.2 Establishment of the Early Childhood Commission
        3.2.1 Functions of the Commission
    3.3 The Fundamental Laws Guiding the Establishment of Childhood Institutions and the Beginning of Child Study
    3.4 Government Roles in the Effective Management of Childhood Institutions
    3.5 The Involvement of Civil Society in Childhood Institutions (NGOs, Private Individuals)
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0 References/Further Reading

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Before the coming of the colonial masters, education in Nigeria was fully informal. Thereafter, management of education was under the exclusive control of the Christian missionaries before independence was granted to Nigeria. The colonial government was in control of quality and maintenance of standards.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the establishment of childhood institutions
- state the roles of government in the effective management of childhood institutions
- list the NGO's that are involved in the management of childhood institutions
- explain the establishment of the early childhood commission
- state the functions of the commission.

# 3.0    MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1    Establishment of Childhood Institutions

Before independence was granted to Nigeria, management of education was under the Christian missionaries and the British colonial government. Education during the colonial period was mainly concerned with reading and writing. To accomplish the goals, both primary and secondary schools, were built, managed and controlled by the missions, with colonial government in control of quality and maintenance of standards.  Even at the threshold of independence, schools were still under the management of Christian missions, government and private proprietors.

The Nigerian civil war disrupted the management of education and the growth of educational system became a bit stunted. The end of the civil war ushered in a new era in Nigeria's educational development. It is pertinent to note that the civil war ushered in the fundamental changes in the system. It marked the genesis of Federal government's intervention in the Nigerian education system through federalisation.

Federal centralisation of education entailed the various state governments' take-over of the management of schools, the introduction of universal primary education in Nigeria and the universities been brought under federal government control. The federal government became involved in the management of secondary education through the establishment of federal government colleges. It participated actively in financing and managing of university education through the revitalisation of National Universities Commission (NUC) as a statutory body.

**State Governments Take Over of Schools**

The various state governments took over the control of schools in order to participate effectively in its management. Before 1970 the voluntary agencies were strictly in control of ninety percent of schools. However the primary and secondary schools were sustained financially by the government. The Western State Edict No 21 was promulgated. Later in 1970, the East Central State took over the management of education and Rivers and Mid-Western States enacted their own edicts in 1971 and 1973 respectively. South Eastern State was the last of three eastern states to take over the management and control of schools under their jurisdiction. It must be noted that these edicts, especially Edict No 2 of 1970 marked a significant shift in educational management in Nigeria. According to the East Central State public education Edict No 2 of 1970, the reasons for take-over were:

i.    War destruction of schools was immense and government was anxious to make schools function in the shortest time possible.
ii.   Also, to secure central and integrated system in order to quarantine uniform standards and fair distribution of educational facilities and thereby reduce costs.
iii.  Provide stability; satisfy people's basic education and national needs, combat sectionalism, religious conflict and disloyalty to the cause of a united Nigeria through management of finance by accredited representatives of the people. Produce political good citizens through education.

The Federal Government became involved in the management of education in order to accomplish the objectives and goals already existing in the second national development plans. It becomes imperative to examine the functions of the school boards; the agency utilised by the state governments to manage and control schools. The management of primary and secondary schools is the responsibility of the state management board.

The state school management board is under the tutelage of the commissioner for education, who is also a member of the executive council and at the same time the chairman of the board.

The Federal Government is involved in secondary education management through the establishment of federal government colleges. From 1973, the Federal Military Government established twenty new federal government colleges which were established in each of the states, including Abuja, the federal capital territory.

In addition to the federal government colleges, colleges of arts and sciences were established. Furthermore, the federal government was involved in management of tertiary institutions through the establishment of federal polytechnics at Idah, Bida, Akure, Bauchi, Yola and Ilaro.

**Government's Roles in the Effective Management of Childhood Institutions**

**Introduction of Universal Primary Education**

In 1976, the federal military government inaugurated the universal primary education (UPE). It was the first time the universal primary education was launched throughout the entire nation.

The governments of Western and Eastern Regions launched and implemented UPE in 1955 and 1957 respectively. In the Western

Region, the UPE was successful, while it achieved partial success in the East. The introduction of universal primary education was another step that concretised the take-over of the management of schools and removed entirely, voluntary agency control. Also the period marked the centralisation of primary education management. The UPE gave uniformity to primary education in the country. Similar curriculum, institutional materials, education policies and mode of administration were adopted in the entire nation. The 1976 UPE was an attempt to utilise education as tool to equalise educational opportunities between northern and southern Nigeria. The UPE was an instrument that would have redressed the education imbalance between the southern and northern Nigeria from the base of the pyramid.

To consolidate its grip on primary education at that time, the Federal military government assumed responsibility for the management of the teacher training colleges. Another important aspect is to examine the modalities adopted by the Federal Government to manage the primary school effectively in contemporary period.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

State one function of the UPE

**State Primary Education Board**

In the attempt to improve the quality of primary education, enhance the funding, and achieve uniformity in the development of primary education, the Federal Government established the national primary education commission (NPEC) with the enactment of decree No.31 of 1988. The commission was responsible for the management of primary schools.

In1991, the Federal Military Government through Decree No 2 of 1991 transferred the management of primary schools to the local government councils. The local government education authority (LGEA) became autonomous under the management of Local Government Chairmen and the national primary education commission (NPEC) ceased to exist. However, to salvage primary education the Federal Government re-established the national primary education commission (NPEC). The commission, revitalised by Decree 96 of 1993 performs the function of prescribing the minimum standards for primary education and advising the Federal Government on the funding of primary education in Nigeria.

To accomplish these goals and functions, NPEC established a state primary education board in each state of the federation. The functions of the board according to Decree 96 of 1993 were:

a) Management of primary schools in the state
b) Recruitment, appointment, promotion and discipline of teaching and non-teaching staff.
c) Posting and deployment of staff, including inter-state transfer.
d) Disbursement of funds provided to it from both federal and state sources.
e) Setting up an effective functional supervisory unit.
f) Retirement and re-absorption of teachers.
g) Undertaking new capital projects.
h) Responsibility for the approval, training and retraining of teaching and non-teaching staff.
i) Assessment and funding of salaries and allowances of teaching and non-teaching staff based on the scheme of service drawn by the government.
j) Compiling the annual accounts that are rendered by heads of school and teachers appointed to serve under them;
k) Preparing testimonials and certificates of service for teaching and non-teaching staff whenever necessary.
l) Ensuring annual auditing of accounts, and
m) Performing such other functions as may be assigned to the board by the Commissioner for Education.

The membership of the board consisted of the chairman, two members appointed by the Governor on the advice of the Commissioner for Education, one ex-officio member to represent the Ministry of Education in the State and three ex-officio members to represent the local governments on rotational basis. It also included one representative each from the parents/teachers association in the state; the state wing of Nigeria union of teachers (NUT); the state women group and the Federal Ministry of Education inspectorate division.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

Give an overview of Private/government collaboration in management of primary institution.

## 3.2    Establishment of the Early Childhood Commission

The Early Childhood Commission was established in recognition of the need for a long term vision and plan for comprehensive and an integrated delivery of early childhood programmes and services to facilitate the appropriate development of the young child. The purpose of the integrated approach to early childhood development is to establish complementariness between ministries and agencies contributing to the development process of the child. In addition to facilitating optimal development, the integrated approach maximises the use of limited

resources by reducing duplication and fragmentation resulting in a more cohesive delivery of services. The Commission had its agencies in the Early Childhood Integration Movement.

**Functions of the Commission**

- Advise the cabinet (through the Minister of Education) on the policy matters relating to early childhood development goals.
- Assist in the preparation of plans and programmes concerning early childhood development.
- Monitor and evaluate the implementation of the plan in respect of early childhood development and make recommendations to the Government through the Ministry of Education as it deems fit.
- Act as co-ordinating agency to ensure effective streaming of all activities relating to early childhood development.
- Convene consultations with relevant stakeholders as appropriate.
- Analyse resource needs and submit recommendations for budgetary allocation for early childhood development.
- Identify alternative financing through negotiation with donor agencies and liaise with such agencies to ensure effective and efficient use of donor funds.
- Provide standards and licensing regulations for all early childhood institutions, with overall improved service delivery as the goal.

### 3.2.2  History of the Early Childhood Integration Movement

The first recommendation for integration was presented by stakeholders at the United Nations International Children's Fund (UNICEF) country programme pre-strategy meeting on February 16, 1995 where a resolution was passed to establish the Integration Task Force. This task force was established with the support of the Minister of State in the Ministry of Health and the Minister of Education, Youth and Culture and its first meeting was held on June 22, 1995. The primary objective of the task force was to develop an integration model and a design for a pilot project. The model was presented to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture, the Ministry of Health and the Planning Institute of Jamaica. Subsequent to this, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture authorised the establishment of an integration advisory committee (IAC) followed by the appointment of a national integration project co-ordinator to implement the model. The official integration policy was announced in 1997 and the implementation of the integration model commenced under the direction of the national co-ordinator. In support of the committee's effort to implement the Integration policy, a strategic review of the Early Childhood Education sector was

commissioned in March 2000 by the Planning Institute of Jamaica (PIOJ), the chair of the integration advisory committee.

The conceptualisation for the establishment of an early childhood commission came out of the deliberations of the IAC and recommendations from the Minister of Education, Youth and Culture for an early childhood council. A strategic review for PIOJ by Kaiser Permanente Medical Group (KPMG) supported this concept, recommending the establishment of a commission and an institutional design. The report of the strategic review was adopted by the Government of Jamaica's (GOJ) human resource council in December 2002, and approved by cabinet in January 2003. The commission will be a body corporate, governed by a board of commissioners consisting of at least sixteen and no more than twenty members. The operational arm of the commission will be managed by an Executive Director with a support staff of approximately twelve individuals at full complement.

The aim of the commission as part of this initiative is to forge alliances for improving the quality of early childhood development. The proposed early childhood Act, companion legislation to the Early Childhood Commission Act will prescribe the regulatory powers of the Commission and set standards to which early childhood institutions will be required to conform.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

Discuss the early childhood commission and its functions.

### 3.3    The Fundamental Laws Guiding the Establishment of Childhood Institutions and the Beginning of Child Study Racialisation in Early Childhood: A Critical Analysis of Discourses in Policies

A large portion of the early childhood literature in the area of cultural, racial, and linguistic diversity addresses the practices of institutions for young children, immigrant/refugee parents' understandings of their situation, and provides recommendations for more inclusive practices. This body of literature has proved very useful in more inclusive practice; in bringing issues related to young children and families from racialised minorities to the forefront of discussion in early childhood.

What has not been widely discussed (and problematic) are the assumptions made in policies that guided early childhood services. Most of the existing critical policy analyses that have been conducted in the field do not directly address racialised discourses. There are, however, important exceptions that focus primarily on welfare reforms.

Before proceeding, two notes are necessary in order to situate the ideas we are about to discuss.

First, the aim of this article is to interrogate the policies that guided early childhood services in the province. As Popketwhz and Lindlad (2000) in the free library law/Government/Politics (2006) explain, most policy research that deals with issues of inclusion/exclusion tend to accept the definitions and norms created by policies. The research situates itself within the same framework as its objects of study and its results become nothing more than recapitulation of given systems reference in state policy rather than a knowledge produced through critical analysis.

Let's look into the larger politics in which early childhood policies are constructed and acted upon. The imagined positive disposition toward multiculturalism is reflected in the multiculturalism Act (1988) (Canadian Heritage – Parimoine Canadian, 2004) that states:

It is hereby declared to the policy of the Government of Canada to;

a)     Recognise and promote the understanding that multiculturalism reflects the cultural and racial diversity of Canadian society and acknowledges the freedom of all members of Canadian society to preserve, enhance and share their cultural heritage.
b)     Recognise and promote the understanding that multiculturalism is a fundamental characteristics of the Canadian heritage identity and that it provides an invaluable resource in the shaping of Canada's future.

British Columbia's (BC) multiculturalism Act also reflects much of this imagined positive disposition towards multiculturalism that is seen in Canada's Multiculturalism Act. The stated purpose of the BC Multiculturalism Act is;

a)     To recognise that the diversity of British Columbia as regards to race, cultural heritage, religion, ethnicity, ancestry and place of origin is a fundamental characteristics of the society of British Columbia that enriches the lives of all British Columbians.
b)     To encourage respect for the multicultural heritage of British Columbia.
c)     To promote racial harmony, cross cultural understanding and respect and development of a community that is united at peace itself.
d)     To foster the creation of a society in British Columbia in which there are  no impediments to the full and free participation of all British Columbians in the economic, social, cultural and political

life of British Columbia (Government of British Columbia, 2004a, Section 2.)

Child study, also called paidology or experimental pedagogy, was the attempt to apply the methods of science to the investigation of children in order to discover the laws of normal child development. The child-study movement arose in the last decade of the nineteenth century in several western countries and was inspired by a number of social reform movements that aimed to improve the health and welfare of children. The connection between child study, schools, teachers, and movements for educational reform was particularly strong, because many reforms viewed the educational system as the most promising avenue to improve the conditions of children and to create the conditions for children that would aid their efforts.

Initially, the child-study movement was inclusive: teachers, parents, ministers, psychologists, educational administrators, physicians, psychiatrists, and others concerned with the welfare of children who participated in its research. After the turn of the twentieth century, psychologists and physicians aimed to make child study scientifically respectable by excluding lay researchers. In their hands, child study became the science of child development and developmental psychology. Consequently, research into child development became a field of academic inquiry and lost its ties to social and educational reforms.

Despite the variety in their physiologies and political orientations, educational reformers agreed in their attempts to reform old educational practices that relied on note learning, character education, the training of mental discipline, and an academically oriented curriculum. Educational reformers argued that this curriculum was irrelevant for most children. According to them, education should become more practical and help children take their place in society. They proposed the introduction of project learning and practical and vocational training, and advocated the establishment of **Kindergartens**.

**The Beginning of Child Study**

A psychologist, Hall (1844-1924) initiated the child-study movements in the United States in the 1880's. Hall was influenced by the evolutionary theory of the nineteenth-century English naturalist Charles Darwin and adhered to the recapitulation theory, which states that children repeat in their development the physiological and cultural development of the species. Hall was also inspired by developments in physiology and education in Germany, where he had spent several years studying philosophy and psychology. His organisational efforts in the child-study

movement stimulated and consolidated existing interests and activities in several countries.

In 1882, Hall introduced a course in child study at Clark University, advocating child study as the core of the new profession of pedagogy. Hall invited parents and teachers to participate in child-study research and sent out hundreds of questionnaires to collect observations of children. Hall used the results of this research to provide arguments for educational reform. In 1904 he published **Adolescence**, which he described as a period of life bestowed with special challenges and in need of special consideration.

During the first decade of the twentieth century, a number of psychologists and physicians argued that research in child study had resulted in vast amounts of incoherent data based on free observation under unspecified conditions, unguided by theories and hypotheses, and collected by untrained observers.

## 3.4 Government Roles in the Effective Management of Childhood Institutions

There is no gain saying the fact that education is very vital to the pace of social, political, and economic development of any nation. This is why nations of the world strive to devote a sizeable proportion of their Gross National Income to develop the educational sector. In Nigeria, between 7.6 and 9.9% of our annual expenditure is devoted to education. Management of primary education refers to the process of planning, organising, directing, staffing, coordinating, budgeting for and reporting on primary education system.

Primary education in Nigeria refers to the education which children receive from the age of 6 years -11years plus. It is foundation level of the educational system which runs for six years, and aims at developing basic literacy, numeral, and communication skills and transmission of the culture of the people to younger generations. Information gathered through the education data bank showed that as at 1998, there were 41,814 primary schools with an enrolment of 16,348,324 (13.75% of these were females) and 468,770 teachers (26.45% of these were non-qualified teachers). The teacher/pupil ratio at the level was 1:38 while the completion rate was 64.1 percent and the transition rate of products to junior secondary education level was 39.1 percent. The structure of our population in Nigeria is such that about 45% of the people are within the age bracket of six to twelve years.

According to the provisions of National Policy on Education, this is the corresponding age group for primary education.

Obviously, the enrolment pattern in the educational system follows the pyramidal structure of the nation's population distribution. The primary level has the largest enrolment, followed by the secondary level and then the tertiary level. This enrolment structure, no doubt, depicts the structure of our social demand for the various levels of education. The primary education level, being the bedrock of the child's basic education, is a very vital aspect of the nation's educational system that deserves to be handled with great care and caution. Any error committed in the organisation and management of this level of education may reverberate on the other levels and thus seriously mar the lives of the people and indeed the overall development of the nation.

This is one good reason why all the stakeholders must show enough concern for those organising and managing our primary education system.

Contemporary Issues in Primary Education Management

No doubt, there are numerous issues and problems involved in the management of primary education system in Nigeria. However, we shall look into some of the crucial ones. Some of such issues include:

- Policy gap in the management of primary education in Nigeria.
- Data gaps
- Funding gaps
- Expansion of the curriculum to cater for early childhood care
- Institutional capacity gaps
- Gender balancing in enrolment
- Quality assurance in primary education
- Improved nutrition/Health of learners and
- Issues of HIV/AIDS pandemic

Over the last two decades, the management of primary education had been experiencing some problems as a result of policy gaps. Teachers' salaries were not paid promptly, schools were not well maintained and facilities were not adequately provided owing to the fact that management of primary education had to be oscillating between state governments, local governments and the federal government. At a time, state governments took control, later it was handed over to the local governments and then to a Federal commission. Moreover, it was just until lately that a concrete legislation was passed on primary education in Nigeria – the UBE Bill.

Lack of accurate and timely data has long been the bane of policy formulation and management of our primary education system in Nigeria. To obtain accurate data on enrolment, teachers/non-teaching

staff and even facilities appears to be a difficult task for the schools managers. The school managers and teachers appear to lack adequate cognitive development in the areas of data collection, analysis and storage. Apart from lack of capacity of the school managers, school data collection and analyses seem to be marred by other socio-politico-economic factors such as fraud, politics of national resource allocation and social apathy.

Another issue of concern in the management of primary education is that of inadequate funding. According to a World Bank survey on Nigeria, the federal expenditure on education seems to be below 10% of its overall expenditures. For instance, between 1997 and 2002, the trend showed a downward plunge (World Bank, 2002).

**Table 1:**      **Federal Government Expenditure on Education as Percentage of Total Federal Government Expenditure 1997-2002**

| Expenditure | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Area | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Recurrent | 12.3 | 12.0 | 11.9 | 9.4 | 9.5 | 9.1 |
| Capital | 6.1 | 7.5 | 5.0 | 8.5 | 6.0 | 6.0 |
| Total | 18.4 | 19.5 | 16.9 | 17.9 | 15.5 | 15.1 |

*Source:* FGN, Annual Budget 1997-2002. *In:* Durosaro

It would have been more interesting to spell out what proportion of expenditure on education actually goes to primary but the non availability of accurate data did not permit this. It is even worth mentioning here that the bulk of this meagre expenditure shown above goes to recurrent activities.

This issue of under-funding of education is so endemic that it has now encompassed series of other problems of shortages of human and material resources (Durosaro, 2002). The current pattern of investments within the education sector is such that the tertiary level gets the lion share while the primary level gets the least. This pattern is inversely related to number of institutions, enrolment and teachers at the different education levels. Below, we look into the data on the pattern of funding of the education levels by the Federal government.

**Table 2:** **Pattern of Federal Government Funding of Education by Levels**

| Education | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Level | % | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Tertiary | 79.9 | 78.9 | 68.4 | 69.1 | 75.8 | 68.1 | 76.9 |
| Secondary | 10.4 | 11.3 | 14.6 | 18.7 | 15.3 | 15.5 | 15.6 |
| Primary | 9.7 | 9.8 | 16.9 | 12.2 | 8.9 | 16.4 | 7.5 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Adapted from More 1996-2002. *In:* Durosaro

The issue of gaps in the institutional capacity to deliver primary education of a sound quality is also crucial in the management of primary education in Nigeria. It is a fact that most of our institutions do not have vision whether written or unwritten, nor a mission statement to guide their activities. There is widespread shortage of qualified teachers, shortage of classrooms, shortage of both pupils' and teachers' furniture and a dearth of funds, teaching materials and textbooks. In a survey conducted on primary education cost, financing and management in the federal capital territory (FCT), Kogi, Kwara and Niger states, it was discovered that only 9.57% of the schools in Kwara and 27.08% of the schools in FCT had school libraries while none of the schools in Kogi and Niger had any school library. It was also found that 24% of schools in Kogi state, 21% of schools in Kwara state, 40.3% of schools in Niger state and 16.75% of schools in FCT were not using any form of wall charts as teaching aids. All these gaps have combined with frequent teachers strikes and absenteeism in recent years, to weaken the capability of the institutions to deliver sound primary education.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

What are the roles of government in childhood institutions?

## 3.5 The Involvement of the Civil Society in the Management of Childhood Institutions (NGOs, Private Individuals)

In Finland, collaboration on development issues between the government and the civil society is based on a long tradition of dialogue. The government has established specific multi-stakeholder advisory committee to facilitate systematic dialogue with the private sector, trade unions, NGOs, academia, political parties and others. The development policy committee and advisory board on human rights give advice, evaluate the quality and effectiveness of government issues as well as strengthened the role of civil society and the private sector in development policy. They also have a special role in monitoring the level of official development assistance. Additionally, various sector

ministers and senior officials meet civil society representatives regularly to encourage wider civil society participation in national policy-making - Civil Society Partnerships (2008) Finland.

Civil society organisations (CSOs) are important partners in raising awareness of and promoting public interest in global policy issues such as human rights, environment, debt, development and health. The government has supported civil society participation in global decision-making in several ways. CSOs have been invited to national preparation and follow-up of major UN conferences and other high-level meetings. They have also participated in official delegations. In the past two years, the government has organised multi-stakeholder consultations in the run-up to major UN General Assembly meetings.

CSO visibility has improved, thanks to their organisation into national and global networks and good access to information. The cooperation between northern and southern NGOs strengthens their important role in challenging governments to remain accountable and sensitive to the citizens. This has further improved the official policy making processes and their inclusiveness.

One of the greatest challenges in development is how to encourage people to view global issues from a wider perspective. This change needs to be facilitated through public-private partnerships. For example, environmental NGOs and community-based organisations are involved in climate change issues and awareness-raising.

Developing countries' civil societies have been strengthened by channelling support from local cooperation funds to projects conducted by local NGOs.

The overall decline in child mortality observed over recent years has been a factor in the shift of attention from child survival to other health priorities by the international community. However, growing evidence suggests that certain indicators of child health and development have reached a plateau and some are declining.

Many children are dying from lack of access to proven, inexpensive interventions and more than 9/10 of these deaths are in the world's poorest countries. Today, 62% to 80% do not receive oral rehydration therapy needed for diarrhoea; 60% do not receive appropriate antibiotic treatment for pneumonia; 61% are not exclusively breastfed during the crucial first months of life; 45% do not receive vitamin A supplementation; and 46% do not have clean delivery by a skilled attendant at birth.

To determine how integrated management of childhood illness (IMCI) could better contribute to improved child health outcomes, Department for International Development (DFID), United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and World Health organisation (WHO/CAN) joined efforts to conduct an analytic review of the strategy. The review examined assumptions made when conceiving the strategy and their content, possible linkages with other child health related programmes and strategies, the implementation process, partnership, and the amount and flow of financial resources made available for child health and IMCI in countries and at international level. As a basis for future partnerships in research, development, and implementation, a broad consultative process was established to ensure that the full range of experience and evidence related to child health was taken into account and to build consensus about any revision of the strategy (WHO, 2003).***Please state the involvement of NGOs/CSOs in the management of childhood institutions in Nigeria?

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

What are the involvements of NGOs in the management of childhood institutions?

# 4.0    CONCLUSION

It is quite clear from the foregoing that for primary education in Nigeria to achieve its stated objectives, these crucial issues of policy, funding, data, curriculum review and capacity building gaps must be squarely addressed by education managers in Nigeria. In addition, the issues of gender, poverty alleviation, pupils' and teachers' health and nutrition need prompt attention of the stakeholders and managers of the system.

Primary education is central to the achievement of the overall national goals. The primary education managers, in their quest to continue to meet the national demand for primary education quite efficiently and effectively must constantly device new and improved ways of managing the system. The following recommendations are put forth:

1.    There is need for the creation of more social awareness on the recent UBE Bill to ensure compliance. The various States and Local Governments should also back this up with edicts and bylaws where necessary. Various tiers of government should also formulate clear policies on enrolment of pupils, funding, and provision of facilities as well as quality assurance.

2.    There is the urgent need to set a national minimum standard for primary education which must be followed by all providers of primary education in Nigeria, whether private or public.

3.    Since the government is still the major source of fund to education in Nigeria, there is the need to change the pattern of funding so that provision for primary education should adequately match its needs.

4.    To be able to take sound decisions on the management of education in Nigeria, there is the need to ensure availability of accurate data on the system. The present effort of the Federal Ministry of Education in collaboration with the UNESCO and UNDP on the creation of an educational data bank is highly commendable (FGN/UNE SCO/UNDP, 2003). The government should give the data bank all enabling environment required to generate, analyse and bank the data. The instructional managers and teachers should be constantly trained and retrained in the modern data management techniques.

5.    There is need to step up the instructional capacity building. The school managers should be mandated to attend training workshops and conferences to improve their managerial skills. Organisations like the National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, which have been setup for capacity building in educational management, should be empowered to start some annual training programmes towards this end.

6.    Concerted efforts by ways of quality control and monitoring would improve the quality of public schools and the drift from public to private schools would be checked.

7.    Efforts should also be made to promote gender balance in schools through gender sensitivity of the teachers, curriculum and teaching materials. The school environment should be made more child-friendly.

8.    The government needs to set up its poverty alleviation process by rendering assistance to parents indirectly through provision of free books, uniforms and even free mid-day meals to the children of the poor.

There is need to embark more aggressively on the public enlightenment on the HIV/AIDS disease control. This would help reduce both public and teacher loss that this disease could cause.

# 8.0   SUMMARY

This unit touched important issues that cannot be ignored in the establishment of Childhood Institutions. They are : establishment of childhood institutions, establishment of the early childhood commission, function of the commission, the fundamental laws guiding the

establishment of  childhood institutions **and the beginning of child study**, government roles in the effective management of children institutions, and the involvement of the civil society in the management of childhood institutions (NGO's, private schools etc.). The next and final unit of this course will deal with management laws in childhood institutions.

## 9.0    TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.    Briefly explain the establishment of childhood commission.
2.    State functions of the commission.
3.    Explain what you understand by the fundamental laws guiding the establishment of childhood institutions.
4.    Enumerate the roles of Government in the effective management of childhood institutions.
5.    Does the involvement of the civil society in the management of childhood institutions yield any positive results?

## 7.0    REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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**UNIT 4     MANAGEMENT LAWS IN CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS**

**CONTENTS**

1.0    Introduction
2.0    Objectives
3.0    Main Content
        3.1    Concept and Purpose of Education Law
        3.2    What is Law and Education Law
        3.3    Sources of Education Law
        3.4    The Need for Education Law
        3.5    UPE Laws of Primary Education
        3.6    Laws of Primary Education
        3.7    Legal Rights of Pupils/Students
        3.8    Legal Rights and Responsibilities of Parents
        3.9    Teachers and the Law
4.0    Conclusion
5.0    Summary
6.0    Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0    References/Further Reading

# 15.0  INTRODUCTION

The interaction of issues of law and schooling are becoming more pronounced by the day as our society continues to witness significant and rapid socio-political and economic changes (Fayokun & Adedeji, 2006). Ndu (1997) stressed that educational administrators operate within the school organisation which is a social as well as a formal system existing within a larger system, the society.

Education law is therefore a heterogeneous body of regulations meant to control practically school administrators, teachers, students, parents, the community leaders, the government and all who are stakeholders in the education enterprise. The education system as a social organisation is exposed to reasonable rules and regulations that are meant to guide its operations to avoid litigation and provide environment conducive to learning.  Law has to get involved in education to provide focus for large members of people from different backgrounds towards achieving the goals of education.

## 16.0  OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of law and state the purposes of education law.
- identify the sources of education law
- outline the need for education law
- discuss UPE laws and the UN Human Rights
- outline the legal rights of pupils/students
- discuss the law of primary education
- describe the legal rights and responsibilities of parents
- discuss the teachers and the law.

## 3.0  MAIN CONTENT

## 3.1  Concept and Purpose of Education Law

Law has no universally accepted definition, but it is clearly that law consists of a body of rules that guide or control human conduct. Law is a generic term covering a wide range of legal subjects be they (contracts) property, torts, constitutional and other areas both civil and criminal, to control the operations of the society and its institutions.

Education law is an aspect of a formal means of social control. Education law involves reasonable rules and regulations, prescribed code of conduct and prohibited modes of social behaviour. Education laws are intended to regulate and control relations; ensures peace, stability, order and justice in the entire education enterprise.

Education law is of extreme importance for safe practice and efficiency. Knowledge of education law is needed for-on-the-job survival of school administrators and teachers who need to be clearly aware of legal implications of issues connected with their job and who should play safe by acting  within the ambits of law to avoid litigation. The knowledge of legal issues in education exposes education officials to basic principles of law and makes them to develop some degree of competence in applying them to educational problems, recognise situations that require legal advice and educational decisions that have legal implications that can be made in community with laid down guidelines without advice for a lawyer.

**SELF   ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1**

In your words, define law and education law?

### 3.2    What is Law and Education Law

**What is Law?**

There are so many definitions of law. Jeremy in (Ogunu, 2000) defines law as "an assemblage of signs, declarative of violations, conceived or adopted by sovereign in a state, concerning the conduct to be observed in a case by a certain person or class of persons who in a case in question are or are supposed to be the subject of his power".

The Encyclopaedia World Dictionary gives a rather classical definition of law as "the principles and regulations emanating from a government and applicable to a people whether in the form of legislation or of customs and policies recognised and enforced by judicial decisions.''

It was Harms (1968) who simply defined law (in part) as the rules by which a society regulates or controls the actions of its members.

Tella (2006) went further to say that its essence is protection of interests and its divisions are mainly two:

•    International law deals with interests among sovereign and independent states and
•    Municipal or National laws deals with interests within national state or sub-division there-off.

There are two divisions of municipal laws:

•    Public and
•    Private laws

Public laws are subdivided into three:

•    Constitutional, which implies the functioning of the state.
•    Administrative, which implies the interest of individual vis-à-vis government.
•    Criminal which implies the absolute duties of each individual to the community and emphasises protection of community interest by the state.

Private laws are also focused on three types of rights:

•    Personal; which implies right on personal interest, life, physical integrity, health, humour, personal liberty and relationship (marriage, parentage, guardianship, legal, liability, infancy, alienage).

- Property; which protects economic interest of the individual on ownership, possession and kindred over material and immaterial things.
- Obligations; which protect personal rights in legal agreements (contract) or grant remedy by way of prevention or enforcing compensation in extra ordinary situation (tort, quasi-contracts or equity).
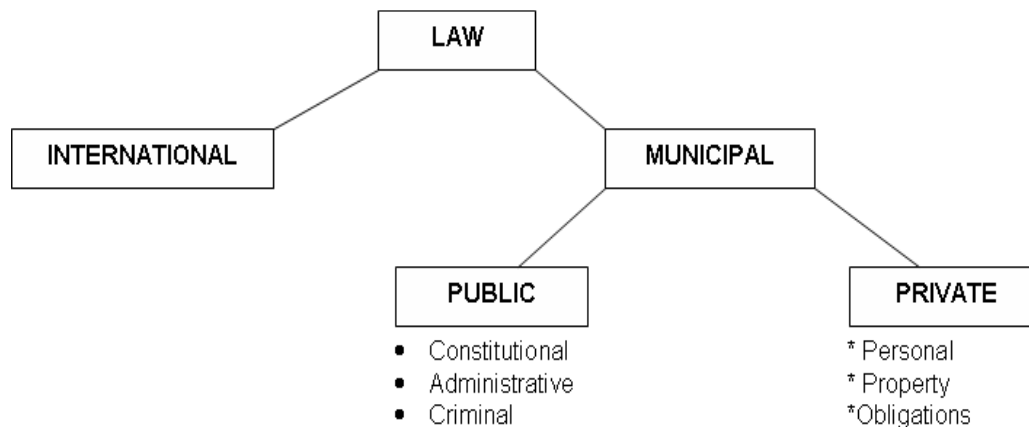


**Fig. 1:          Original Divisions and Sub-Divisions of Law**

*Source:*          Educational Management Thought & Practice (2006) J.B. Babalola, A.O. Ayeni, S.O. Adedeji, A.A. Suleiman & M.O Arikewuyo

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2**

In a diagram, illustrate the Subdivisions of law.

**What is Education Law?**

It refers to the rules and regulations enacted by government and enforceable through judicial processes to guide educational practice and development. They are rules meant to regulate the activities of school personnel and the various agencies connected with the school. Educational law includes Ordinances, Codes, Acts, Decrees and Edicts; each of these is explained below:

- **Ordinance**: Enactment or statute or legislation of the Nigeria legislatures before 1954 and those of the federal parliament since 1954 but before 1$^{st}$ October, 1960. An example is the 1887 Education Ordinance which made it possible to provide grants to schools.

- **Education Code**: An Education Code is a collection of practical guide for interpreting and executing a rule of administration.
- **Decree**: Enactment or statute or legislation promulgated by the Federal Military Government during a Military administration.
- **Act**: Enactment or statute or law passed by the Federal Legislature (the federal parliament) during civilian administration.
- **Edict**: Enactment or statute or legislation promulgated by the military government of a region or state during a military administration.

## 3.3 Sources of Education Law

Law has three main sources, they are:

- English law
- Customary law and
- Local legislation which is Nigerian case law or statute law

Local legislation or statues are the local legislations enacted at various times by various parliament or bodies which are enactments, statutes or legislations of the Nigerian legislature during the colonial era before 1954 and those of federal parliament since 1954 to 30th September 1960. They include Acts, Laws, Decrees and Edicts. Acts are enactments or statutes passed by the Federal legislature or parliament (the House of Assembly) during Civilian regime. Decrees are enactments or statutes promulgated or passed by the Federal Military Government during a military administration.

Customary law is a body of rules that regulates the life and value system of a people for maintenance of law, order and peaceful co-existence among people within an indigenous community.

English law with the three branches of common law, equity and statutory law was introduced into Nigeria by the British Colonial policy makers to preserve customary laws that were capable of serving English notion of justice.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3**

What are the three main sources of law?

In Nigeria, education law shares from a number of sources which include the following: the constitution, legislation, common law, administrative order, judicial precedents or court decisions, ordinances,

or regulation of the ministries of education at the federal, state or local levels, school rules and regulations (Ogbonna, 2008).

## 3.4     The Need for Education Laws

Every organisation needs to set up a viable system of social control in order to avoid confusion and chaos. The maintenance of order is achieved through the establishment of some standards of behaviour (norms, customs, traditions, mores etc.) and maintained through rules, laws and corresponding sanctions on deviants. For laws to be functional there is also need for a distribution of power and authority so as to define who can apply the sanctions and how.

Laws provide guides to actions and public officials are expected to respect the provisions of the law in whatever action they take in the performance of their official duties.

Laws help in the perpetuation of values, norms and traditions and it is only when laws are articulated and made known that members of the society know the boundaries of their actions, and so endeavour to operate within acceptable standards. The law provides not only the behavioural expectation but also the sanctions laid down against deviant behaviour.

Laws and regulations equip individual members of the society with the knowledge of their rights and obligations and also provide a check on possible arbitrary behaviour of leaders. The leader is expected to operate within the rule of law and must therefore anticipate the consequences of his action and avoid unnecessary excesses.

The educational administrator has the responsibility to plan and organise teaching and learning in the school. He performs this intricate and complicated task with the combination of human and material resources. These human beings (administrators and other personnel) need to have a good general knowledge and understanding of laws and regulations guiding their various actions. For these reasons, laws need to be made definite, clear and public.

## 3.5     UPE Laws and UN Human Rights

The United Nations (UN) Rights declaration of December 1948 guaranteed individuals the rights to liberty, equality and fraternity. The right to education in Article 26 of the declaration proclaimed as follows:

- Everyone has the right to education. This shall be free at least in the elementary and primary stages.
- Elementary education shall be compulsory while technical and professional education shall be made generally available.
- Higher Education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
- Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to the children.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) article 26 that came into force October 21, 1986 were hardly obeyed even by the signatories that ratified it but Nwagwu (1993), declares that it constituted a universal legal framework from which all countries of the world have drawn inspiration and guidance while designing their national constitution and educational policies.

The western region under the premiership of Chief Obafemi Awolowo in consonance with the 1952 ordinance to develop educational aesthetics, values, policies and systems along its own line introduced universal primary education (UPE). The programme was accompanied with a free and compulsory education.

By 1957 the Eastern Region gained proper planning. The Northern Region in 1956 had emphasised rapid expansion for universal primary education. However in 1976 the military regime of General Olusegun Obasanjo started the UPE Scheme all over again. Each state government tried to manage the programme as best as it could within its financial capability and local priorities following the 1997 National Policy on Education guideline.

## 3.6    Laws of Primary Education

There are legal instruments focused on the provision of basic literacy education and achievement of education for all (EFA).

Decree No. 31 of 1988: This decree established the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) to manage the development and financing of education throughout the federation. This was aimed at improving the organisation and administration of primary school teachers. In 1993 another decree was given to readjust the decree.

Decree No. 96 (1973): Re-established the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC). The new Decree specified the structure and functions of the state primary education boards (SPEB), and that of the local government education authority (LGEA). It also provided for the establishment of the national primary education fund (NPEF) and the

criteria for disbursing the fund. The ratio was 50% on equity of states, 30% on school enrolment and 20% for educationally disadvantaged states.

Decree No. 30 of 1989: Created the National Commission for Women. The aim was to reduce the high level of literacy among adult women by increasing access of girls to education at all levels to reduce the problem of lack of girl-child education. This was to ensure adherence to the UN Human Rights Declaration and to protect the fundamental rights of women who are considered one of the most marginalised and disadvantaged groups in our country. The decree was to ensure that the girl child enjoyed equal educational opportunities with the boys.

Decree No. 41 of 1989: Established the National Commission for Education. This was in the spirit of achieving education for all (EFA) as programmed by UNESCO and adopted by the Federal Government of Nigeria. The commission was to organise and manage the education of the migrant groups like fishermen and cattle herdsmen.

Decree No. 17 of 1990: Established the National Commission for Mass Literacy and Non-formal Education and Non- Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to eliminate illiteracy in the country.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 4**

Outline the laws of primary education.

## 3.7 Legal Rights of Pupils/Students

There are regulations binding daily activities in schools and students are bound to obey these rules and regulations so long as they are reasonable. Reasonable rules and regulations are enforceable by the law. The students depend on the policy of the school and practices of the employers. Until the mid 1960s students have very limited rights in our institutions. Traditionally young people are under the control of parents and teachers at home and school respectively.

In the 1970s the youths became active and mounted pressure. Students have inalienable rights that must not be litigated. Chapter four of the 1989 constitution of Nigeria clearly states the fundamental rights of Nigerians and the conditions that may justify any restriction, deprivation or withdrawal of these rights. It is important for educational administrators and teachers to know the constitutional provisions and statues governing the regulation and control of the establishment of educational institutions in order to become familiar with the inalienable rights of those they must work within the educational system.

The Fundamental Rights as stated in chapter four (iv) sections 32-43 of the 1989 constitution include:

- Right to life
- Right to dignity of human persons
- Right to personal property
- Right to fair hearing
- Right to private life
- Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion
- Right to freedom of expression and the press
- Right to peaceful assembly and association
- Right to freedom of movement
- Right to freedom from compulsory acquisition of property.

These fundamental rights listed out are the ones that are repeatedly referred to in many of the education law cases. They are however not absolute, they can be restricted under some conditions. As the school relates to the child it should recognise and respect these fundamental human rights which may be abridged when such rights interfere with the proper education of the students.

Education is a fundamental right of every child according to Obi (2003). In November 29, 1959 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the following declaration among others as the Rights of children.

- The right to special care if there is any handicap
- The right to enjoy full opportunity for play and recreation
- The right to develop his abilities
- The right to learn to be useful member of the society
- The right to free education.

Nigeria endorsed the declaration in 1990.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 5**

Are you satisfied with the legal rights of pupils? Comment.

## 3.8    Legal Rights and Responsibilities of Parents

Schools are legal entities to which parents are both customers and partners in progress. Parents are partners in the process of educating the child.

According to Obi (2003) parents are partners in the process of educating the child and are willing to share:

a.      sense of purpose
b.      mutual respect and
c.      willingness to negotiate

Parents are resources teachers should use. As clients buying a service, they will want to get values for the money they spend and the school should be willing to display and demonstrate what it is offering by operating an open door policy to help the parents to make contribution to their children's education since children are learning all time. Cave (1970) in Obi (2003) rightly observed that parents cannot delegate their responsibility for guiding their children because the school cannot do the job alone.

Parents have legal rights and responsibilities in respect of the legal rights and upbringing of their children and wards. Parents can sue public school or any of its employees for the violation of the right of the child. Management of school has become increasingly complex because of staff and students indiscipline, technology influence, enrolment explosion, increasing cost of education. Parents should be involved in the work of the school.

## 3.9     Teachers and the Law

Teachers enjoy both constitutional rights and benefits provided by law as employees of schools boards. As citizens they enjoy the fundamental rights provided in chapter IV of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. They also enjoy the privileges and benefits or advantages available to a teacher by virtue of his position as a civil servant. As containment in a handbook by the personnel management department of the Federal Ministry of Education Lagos, the entitlements include:

•       Salary advance which an officer on first appointment can access but it must not be more than his/her one month salary.
•       Car loan or motor vehicle refurbishing loan repayable within four years.
•       Kilometre allowance given to an officer that travels on duty outside his place of work in his own car.
•       Travelling allowance: paid to an officer who is away from his station, it is for hotel bills.
•       Annual leave and leave grant varies with salary grade and the grant.

- Disturbance allowance: granted in compensation for out of pocket expenses incurred by officer in the course of transfer. It is also graduated accordingly to grade levels.
- Housing loan; this may be granted subject to an officer being qualified at the rate of his/her eight years salary.
- House rent allowance varies depending on salary grade level.
- Promotion: Granted based on merit and vacancies.
- Casual leave: This should not be more than seven days in a year.
- Examination leave is granted for the purpose of taking examination.
- Leave for cultural and sports events is granted to staff to take part in such activities but transport is not at government expense but by the organising body.
- Sick leave: This is granted with full salary when officer is hospitalised, sick leave is for six weeks in a year.
- Maternity leave: is granted to prepare women for a period of twelve weeks with full pay but the annual leave for the year in question is regarded as part of the maternity leave.
- Study Leave: granted to confirmed teachers by the school management board with or without pay depending on the policy and needs of the states.
- Medical care provided by Government for all public officers and their families by government medical facilities. He gets refunded for treatment outside government medical facilities on the advice of Government chief medical officer.
- Salary Increments: Normally done annually.
- Compulsory and Voluntary Retirement: The compulsory retirement age is sixty years or thirty five years of service.

The law is binding on teachers to perform some duties and obligations. Article XXXV of the Imo State Teachers Service manual 1974 outlined the duties and obligations of teachers thus:

- Teach diligently and resourcefully the subject(s) he or she has been assigned to teach.
- To encourage and guide the pupils in the pursuit of learning and in all school activities.
- To inculcate the precept and example of good conduct and behaviour among the pupils in and out of school.
- To maintain proper order and discipline in the classroom and while on duty in the school and on the playground.
- To be in the classroom or on the school premises at least ten minutes before the time prescribed for the opening of the school and shall remain in the school throughout the official period except for unavoidable causes.

A teacher shall not be absent from school except for reasons acceptable to the board or in the case of illness in which case his absence should be reported to the principal/headmaster who should transmit this to the board.

A teacher shall conduct his class in accordance with the timetable, which shall be accessible to the pupils and to the principal and supervisory officers.

On any day of the school year, a teacher may be expected to be on duty either by the board or the principal/headmaster for a special purpose for reasonable periods beyond the prescribed hours of instructions.

A teacher shall attend all meetings or conference called by the principal/headmaster on the consideration of matters that will promote the advancement of education.

Each teacher shall test/evaluate periodically the attainment of his pupils and render assistance required of him by board, Ministry of Education, principal/headmaster of his school in promoting, examining or classifying pupils.

Principals, headmasters and teachers shall provide parents or guardians with information in writing on the pupils' school progress, attendance and punctuality, at least, three times during the school year on an approved report form.

Finally, every teacher is required to discharge conscientiously and to the best of his/her ability the normal duties of the post to which he/she is appointed as well as such other related duties as the principal/headmaster, Board or Ministry of Education may from time to time assign to him/her.

**SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 6**

What are the laws binding on teachers?

## 6.0    CONCLUSION

Knowledge of education law is very important for all teachers and school administrators. They should acquaint themselves with the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in which the education law is subsumed. Knowledge of education law is needed for on-the-job survival of school administrators and teachers who need to be clearly aware of the legal implications of issues connected with their job and

who should play safe by acting within the ambits of law to avoid litigation.

## 7.0 SUMMARY

This unit has exposed you to comprehensive rudiments of education law. You have learnt the concepts, definitions, purpose and sources of education law. UPE human rights and UN Human Rights were also discussed. Laws of primary education, legal rights of pupils/students, legal rights and responsibilities of parents, as well as teachers and the law were fully discussed.

## 8.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Define law and education law.
2. Outline the purposes of law.
3. Write down the sources of law.
4. Outline the need for education law
5. Do pupils/students have legal rights? Discuss
6. Discuss the law of primary education
7. Should teachers obey the law? Why?

## 9.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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