

**MANAGEMENT, ADMINISTRATION AND
PLANNING IN EDUCATION**

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DEDICATION

**This work is dedicated to my father:
Francis Nnagbo Ogbonna, who was
greatly passionate about education and
my mother: Bridget Oduagu Ogbonna
who was also an amazing educational
leader and trainer.**

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I begin this gratitude message by acknowledging the benevolence and strengthening power of God in the publication of this work.

In a special way, I appreciate my amazing family members; the Mogboh family for believing in my propensity as an educational administrator and leader. I acknowledge their endless support and care.

I equally recognize the strength of my amazing school; Foreham International School, Enugu for believing in my service as the proprietor of the institution.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	vm
Foreword	1x
Introduction	
Chapter One - The Concept of Participatory Leadership in Education and Management	1
1.1 Introduction -	1
1.2 Meaning of Administration -	2
1.3 What is Educational Administration -	5
1.4 Meaning of Management	7
1.5 What is Educational Management	8
1.6 Various aspect of Educational Management	8
1.6.1 Planning	9
1.6.2 Organizing	12
1.6.3 Directing and Controlling	13
1.7 Administration as a science -	19
1.7.1 Administration as a science -	19
1.7.2 Administration as an Art	20
1.7.3 Types of Education Administrators -	21
Chapter Two - The Education Administration and Management Procedure	23
2.1 Introduction -	23
2.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	24
2.2.2 The Three Motives Theory of Mc Clelland	25

2.2.3	Alderfer's ERG Theory	26
2.2.4	The Two-Factor Theory of Herzberg -	27
2.3	System Approach	28
2.3.1	System Types -	29
2.3.2	Systems Approach to Educational System	31
2.3.3	Structure of Educational System	31
2.3.4	Objectives of System Approach to Education	32
2.3.5	The System Approach Steps -	32
2.3.6	Steps Involved in Curriculum Design- Using a System Approach	33
2.3.7	Putting the System Approach to work	37
2.3.8	Importance of System Approach For Education	37
2.4	Decision Making in Educational Administration: Specific Trends:	38
2.4.1	Making Decision	39
2.4.2	Educational Organization and Decision Making	40
2.4.3	Decision Making Process in Educational	41
2.4.4	The decision-Making Process	43
2.4.5	Basic Decision-Making Strategies	47
2.5	Compliance in the Workplace-	49
2.5.1	Organizational Compliance Program Key Components	52
2.5.2	Organizational compliance objectives	57
2.5.3	Organizational Compliance Principles	58
2.5.4	Limitations in Success of Organizational Compliance Programmes	61

Chapter Three -	67
Leadership Hierarchy in Education Management	
Chapter Four -	85
Strategies in Education Administration and Management	
Chapter Five -	102
Policy Making, Education Laws, Planning and Implementation Strategies	
Chapter Six	132
School Plant, Infrastructure, Equipment, Curriculum and supervision Teaching	
Chapter Seven	16
Evaluation Processes in Education	

PREFACE

Education serves as the bedrock of societal growth and transformation, and its administration and management play a crucial role in shaping its effectiveness. As the landscape of education evolves, the demand for participatory leadership and strategic governance in educational institutions becomes increasingly significant. This book, *Management, Administration and Planning in Education*, provides a comprehensive exploration of the principles, strategies, and frameworks that define modern educational administration and management.

At the heart of this work is the belief that leadership in education should not be confined to a select few but should be a collaborative process that engages all stakeholders—educators, administrators, policymakers, and learners. Through a structured approach, the book delves into key aspects such as planning, organizing, directing, and controlling within the educational sector. It also examines the interplay between administration as a science and an art, offering insights into the types of educational administrators and their roles.

Drawing from well-established theories, including Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, McClelland's Three Motives Theory, and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, this book bridges the gap between theoretical frameworks and practical applications in educational leadership. Additionally, it explores the system approach to education, emphasizing decision-making strategies, compliance frameworks, policy implementation, and infrastructural planning.

One of the distinguishing features of this book is its emphasis on strategies for effective education management, including leadership hierarchy, policy formulation, curriculum supervision, and evaluation processes. These discussions provide a roadmap for fostering a well-structured and results-driven education system.

This book is a valuable resource for educational administrators, policymakers, researchers, and students in the field of education. It aims to equip readers with the knowledge and tools necessary to navigate the complexities of educational leadership and management while promoting a participatory approach that fosters institutional excellence.

It is my hope that this work inspires a deeper understanding of the fundamental principles that drive effective education administration and management. May it serve as a guide to those committed to the advancement of educational leadership and the continuous improvement of learning institutions.

Veronica Egonekwu Mogboh

FOREWORD

Education stands as the foundation of societal progress, and effective leadership in educational administration is essential for fostering institutional excellence. This book, *Management, Administration and Planning in Education*, is a timely contribution to the evolving discourse on leadership in education. It is a valuable resource for education leaders, administrators, managers, supervisors, policymakers, and students in educational institutions who seek to understand and apply participatory leadership principles.

In this seven-chapter book, the author masterfully examines the crucial role of participatory leadership in shaping educational institutions. Leadership in education should not be a solitary endeavor but a collaborative effort that involves educators, administrators, and other stakeholders. Through a well-structured exploration of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling within educational management, this book highlights the significance of strategic decision-making, policy implementation, and institutional governance.

Drawing from established leadership and management theories, the book bridges the gap between theoretical perspectives and practical applications. It also emphasizes the need for a system-based approach to education, offering insights into leadership hierarchies, curriculum supervision, policy formulation, and evaluation processes. The author's extensive experience as a teacher, administrator, and education manager is evident throughout the text, making it a relevant and functional guide for education professionals.

The relevance, depth, and practicality of this book make it a significant addition to the field of educational leadership and management. I highly recommend it to education leaders, administrators, practicing teachers, students, and professionals in various disciplines seeking to enhance their understanding of participatory leadership in education.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE CONCEPT OF PARTICIPATORY LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION AND MANAGEMENT

1.1 Introduction

Appropriate management is required to guarantee that an institution accomplishes its defined goals and objectives. Many variables must be engaged in the management process in order for administration to be functional, successful, and progressive. This element of management is frequently characterized as the process through which a company or organization guides its shared actions toward an objective.

In order for any company or organization to run effectively and efficiently, management also known as organization, care, coordination, or governance is not only important, but absolutely necessary. As a result, Mogboh (2023) held that the absence of management in any organization may lead to not only the derailment of the organization's goals, but also the collapse of law and order. Therefore, management is important in any organized society, especially when sophisticated assignments must be accomplished and more people are involved.

Administration must be in place for management to be effective as management plans and decisions cannot be fully implemented without competent administration. This chapter takes a look at the definitions

of administration and management, as well as how these concepts apply to educational institutions.

Education defines, transforms, proposes and promotes human development, Mogboh (2023). This is especially true when it is integrated into the many facets of daily life in a technologically exposed and dynamic manner. Since the invention of electronic gadgets, education has been forced to explore new ground and requires professional, ethical, and social reengineering. It is the new turning point for management and administration in general, particularly in the field of education where liberalizing educational literacy is concerned. Leadership is a fundamental pillar of societal development. It is a dynamic force that continuously evolves to align with emerging trends in accessibility, efficiency, and governance. In education, leadership has transitioned from a predominantly authoritative model to a more inclusive and participatory approach. Participatory leadership in educational management fosters collaboration, shared decision-making, and collective responsibility among educators, administrators, and stakeholders. This shift enhances innovation, adaptability, and overall institutional effectiveness. As educational systems evolve, participatory leadership remains a crucial strategy for fostering engagement, transparency, and sustainable development in learning environments. There are several management theories proffered by Fayol's fourteen principles of management, Taylor's scientific management, Mayo and the Hawthorne's experiments, Drucker's functions of management. These have impacted writings on management for several decades. The most consistent message from these theories is often contradictory because of variances in people and situations. One cannot expect one's approach to be successful in every situation or

with every person.

But an educational manager, according to James McGrath and Bob Bates (2017) has to always remember that his job is to organize, co-ordinate work or studies of staff or students, and not to fill forms like an administrator.

1.2 Meaning of Administration?

Whenever the question, "what is administration?", is posed, there arises a variety of responses. This is to imply that the notion of administration is so broad in scope that different authors and experts have come up with

different definitions. Firstly, efforts will be made to provide different definitions, and examine the essential parts of each definition in order to discover the common aspects among them for a better grasp of the idea of administration.

In a general milieu, administration is a participatory activity, an enterprise that is best achieved in a cooperative competence. Administration can also be viewed in terms of the cooperative process of human action or cooperative group behavior for a defined objective, target or product.

The term, "cooperative", is a powerful element in the above definition. Human action is a collective enterprise for the good of society, its effect would not be felt in the absence of the cooperation and the collective efforts of the members. For example, a common goal may be to educate a group of people as professionals, these are brought together to work as a team or class towards achieving production of such specialists. They require cooperation to succeed.

Administration may also be understood as the process or act of governing, managing, utilizing and employing resources, tools, and ways to actualize specific ends and objectives

Once again, the concept of objective achievement is crucial to this definition. Administration is primarily concerned with the means required to achieve predetermined goals, as the definition makes abundantly evident. It appears that a new element is being added here, which is the idea of method, process, or procedure. The means refers to the method used to carry out or complete a task.

Administration is defined as the capacity to allocate both material and human resources in order to accomplish organizational objectives. Many different tasks fall under the umbrella of administration. Administration is defined as the deliberate and methodical choice, organizational structure in the utilization of material and human resources, circumstances, and chances for the accomplishment of particular goals. Being governed by time, place, and circumstances is extraordinary.

Thus, the core responsibilities of administration include goal-setting, enforcing rules and regulations, and interpreting plans, policies, and procedures. The basic structure of a company is established by administration, and it is within this framework that management operates. Management is sometimes referred to as the "how" and administration as the "what" of an organization. The 'what' refers to principles and 'how' refers to the process or procedure of implementation.

In a typical organization, there are Principal Officers who formulate plans and policies, and the management team who implement plans and policies. Therefore, the 'what' is the broad framework provided by plans and policies as done by Principal Officers bent on streamlining the principles of the organization. The 'how' is carried out by management teams through formulating or devising rules, regulations, processes and procedures for implementing such principles laid down by the Principal Officers. The principles and implementation procedures have interfaced guidelines, aptly provided at re-assessment or evaluation points/platforms. The joint meeting of principal officers (owners or hired to represent owners of such

outfits/organization) and the management team (mainly hired paid representatives) provides such evaluation platforms. It is advisable for such managements to be done periodically for synergy and productivity.

Administrations are by their very nature bureaucratic. It is a more general term because it includes prediction, organization, preparation, and decision-making at the highest levels of the company. The top tier of the organizational management hierarchy is represented by administration. These high-ranking officials are the proprietors or business associates who contribute funds to launch the enterprise.

1.3 What is Educational Administration?

The process of organizing the personnel and resources required for successful teaching and learning in the classroom is known as educational administration. Improving teaching and learning is the main goal of educational administration. The process through which school administrators organize and coordinate the resources available to education in order to meet systemic objectives is known as educational administration.

In order for teachers, students, non-teaching staff, and resources to work harmoniously in accordance with the educational plan, effective organization, monitoring, and control of these elements is crucial to the achievement of the goals and visions of school. As a result, the success of the educational system as a whole is dependent on careful planning, efficient administration, sufficient funding, and the use of evolving technology.

The process of establishing, sustaining, and growing educational institutions in relation to the overarching objectives of education and institutions is known as educational administration. It involves applying the concepts, procedures, and practices of administration to educational institutions. Control over human and material resources is necessary for the institution's programs to be implemented, which leads to the necessity for administration.

Therefore, the role of an educational administrator is primarily to create and carry out plans, policies, and programs that are intended to achieve particular educational goals. This role can be found in the ministry of education, the schools board, or a particular school. While the educational administrator may have some involvement in planning, policy creation, and program design, his primary responsibility is to ensure that these plans, policies, and programs are carried out effectively and efficiently for the good of society. When viewed from this perspective, the organization and implementation of educational programs fall under the general categories of:

1. Planning and Policy
11. Implementation

It is conceivable to distinguish between the administrative and planning and policy-making duties in education, despite the fact that these administrative components are closely connected, interdependent, and inductive, and that such a classification is inherently arbitrary and broad. For instance, creating broad plans and policies for education is the responsibility of the ministry of education's administrator, who is effectively a planner and policy

maker. With a diverse staff of implementers, the school administrator handles additional managerial tasks (academic and academia)

1.4 Meaning of Management

The word "management" originates from the Italian verb "maneggiare," which meaning "to handle" or "to control," especially when referring to managing horses. The Latin word "manus," which means "hand," is the source of the Italian word "maneggiare" itself (Harper, 2023). This origin portrays the early notion of management as the act of managing, directing, or overseeing, which subsequently broadened to include the context of organizing and coordinating people and tasks.

Authorized personnel establish, maintain, and run an organization in order to choose and fulfill its goals through the integrating process of management. Managing involves completing tasks with the help of others. In order to accomplish educational objectives, management is the coordination of all organizational resources through the planning, organizing, directing, and controlling activities. It is the direction or steering of personnel towards corporate goals and objectives using control methods that can be configured according to functions, product attributes, geographical attributes, and overall strategic and financial elements.

The company plan, needs analysis, budgets, audits, pricing communication, training, performance assessments, and staff incentives all include information about these control systems. Managers and administrators can monitor the effectiveness of the organization with the use of such

organizational control systems. These control systems are known as output, behavioral and clan controls.

Whereas, the efficient arrangement and application of material and human resources within a specific system to accomplish predetermined goals is known as management. Similarly, management can be defined as the process of evaluating and upholding a setting that enables people to collaborate in groups to successfully and efficiently complete predetermined goals and objectives.

1.5 What is Educational Management?

In the education sector, management of resources and procedures are essential for actualization of institutional goals and objectives. Thus, educational management is both the art and acts, the process of planning, organizing and controlling a learning institution's units and its resources in order to actualize institutional goals and objectives.

Professional educational management is to produce the best possible outcomes with the least amount of labor. It is commonly known that effective educational management produces the best human resources for the country's development in addition to the achievement of learning objectives. The steps in the educational administration process that go into accomplishing the preset aims and objectives of educational establishments are planning, organizing, directing, and controlling.

1.6 Various aspects of Educational Management

The five fundamental tasks that make up the management process are, planning, staffing, organizing, directing, and controlling, James Stoner, (1995). To actualize the aims and

objectives of the organization or company, a manager needs to make use of all these roles. The following describes the relationship between these functions.

1.6.1 Planning:

Planning is a crucial management task that aids in establishing corporate objectives that aid in achieving the intended outcome and are utilized to evaluate performance. Planning assists managers in determining the goals of the organization and in making sure that internal policies, duties, performance, organization, structure, and costs all contribute to the desired results. An essential part of management is planning. It supports the definition of strategies and goal-setting. Having a solid plan in place is essential to making and carrying out decisions.

Planning, which involves choosing future courses of action, is a rational and systematic approach to forecast a company's future and aids in change readiness. Managers can more effectively and efficiently oversee company goals when they plan ahead. It serves as a list of objectives to be accomplished in the future by specific methods; in other words, it functions as a guide for action. Generally speaking, there are four types of plans: target, ad hoc, long-term, and short-term.

Definitions of Planning

Planning has been defined by various experts, but among the popular ones are as follows:

- According to Fayol (2008): 'The plan of action is, at one and the same time, the result envisaged, the line of

action to be followed, the stages to go through, and the methods to use. It is a kind of future picture wherein proximate events are outlined with some distinctness'.

- According to Louis (2012): 'Management planning involves the development of forecasts, objectives, policies, programs, procedures, schedules and budgets.
- According to Theo (2002): 'Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. When a manager plans, he projects a course of action, for the future, attempting to achieve a consistent, coordinated structure of operations aimed at the desired results.
- According to Koontz (2009): 'Planning is an intellectual process, the conscious determination of courses of action, the basing of decisions on purpose, acts and considered estimates.

We can analyze these definitions as follows:

Planning as pre-selection:

Planning, in other words, is the process of choosing a mission, goals, and the actual strategies, policies, programs, and procedures that will help you achieve them. Planning is the pre-selection of objectives and outlines the action before starting any organization.

Planning as advanced decision-making:

For George (1960), planning is decision making in advance or in other words choosing the alternatives and making the decision.

Types of Planning

Plans are classified as follows:

1. ***Purpose, missions and objectives:*** An essential component of a mission's plan of action for achieving a goal is its purpose. An educational institution's general tasks are identified by its mission, whereas its goals are the results of specific activities, such as staffing, organizing, directing, and controlling. Goals are made up of a hierarchy of personal and fundamental objectives.
11. ***Strategies and policies:*** Strategies and policies that determine the parameters of every future action can also serve as the foundation for planning. Both provide guidance and are closely related. The word "strategic" comes from the Greek word "strategis" which means "general." Strategies specify the primary long-term objectives that a company pursues as well as the course of action and resource allocation needed to achieve these objectives. Policies are fundamental assertions or aspects of intellectual ideas that guide managers' considerations and choices.
- iii. ***Procedure and rules:*** Procedures are planned activities that establish a required method of handling future activities in similar context. Rules are those required actions or non-actions allowing no discretion in prescribed activities and contexts. Rules are basically called simple plans whereas procedures guide actions.
- 1v. ***Programs:*** Programs are a complicated collection of objectives, guidelines, practices, regulations, tasks and actions to be completed, resources to be used, and

other components required to carry out a certain course of action. Typically, programs are backed by capital and operating budgets. They are scheduled tasks or portions of an enterprise's larger strategy.

- v. ***Budget:*** A budget is a statement of plans and expected results expressed in numerical terms or forms expressed fiscally or in monetary terms. The budget of an enterprise represents the sum total of income and expenses with profit or surplus.

1.6.2 Organizing

The goal of education is to maximize student learning via the use of all human and material resources. This entails developing strategies, tactics, and processes. In order to maximize productivity, learning must be arranged according to assessment, quality, and relevance to the nation's development goal. The important component of success in educational institutions is performance expectations, which must be understood by every operational unit of an educational institution, from the classroom instructor to the board of control, in order to meet this aim. The function of organizing is an effective and efficient way to arrange all linked actions and activities to accomplish the prearranged or planned goals.

Effectiveness in organizing an enterprise requires such details as an organogram that stipulates duty posts and terms of reference required in each post. Effectiveness in organizing an enterprise requires such details as an organogram that stipulates duty posts and terms of reference required in each post. It is a prime managerial function and a manager has to perform the following duties:

- Outlining the organization's structure, including the roles and connections.
- Specifying how employees should be positioned in accordance with the law and custom.
- Assigning roles and responsibilities;
- ensuring that group members behave in a way that advances goals through procedure, action, evaluation, and communication.
- Ensuring the group's stability and security through amicable interactions, support, self-expression, and self-direction.
- Ensuring the continuous and steadfast collaboration of every employee.
- Establishing a democratic work environment through interpersonal interactions, active engagement, responsibility and power sharing.
- Ensuring group and individual satisfaction through discussion and engagement within the group.
- Encouraging efficiency and effectiveness in order to achieve goals.
- Preserving confidence, cooperation, and respect for the employees.

According to Mills, P. K., & Standingford, J. (1964), organization is a man-made system designed to combine a complex concept of men, materials, machines and other resources into an efficient, effective and variable enterprise.

1.6.3 Directing and Controlling

Two key components of the managerial process are controlling and directing, which ensure that an organization

operates effectively and meets its goals. Directing is regarded as the lifeblood of an educational institution since it sets the tone for the classroom and guides concerned parties in the appropriate direction. Certain tasks, including staffing, organizing, and planning, are required in order to successfully integrate concerned individuals with the organization and obtain their full cooperation for the attainment of educational objectives. Teachers are motivated by this process to successfully and efficiently support the attainment of organizational goals and their integration with those of people and groups. In an educational setting, as Sonal C. (2016) posits, process of directing deals more with the human element. Therefore, it is a very delicate and sensitive function for an educational manager.

Directing

Directing is an important component of management. It is a managerial process of facilitating and coordinating all the related activities in order to achieve the desired objectives, Sonal Chabra, (2016). Good direction involves getting the best work done by utilizing all available human and infrastructural resources. Directing involves developing a willingness to work with zeal and confidence, providing adequate guidelines to complete the task, motivating people to achieve the desired goals, exercising leadership, determining accountability, and developing guidelines for action. Determinant factors include prevalent circumstances, staff, equipment, finance, etc., but the most important part is the knowledge, skill, and competency of the administrator. Agents must coordinate all these components.

The process of directing involves influencing, guiding, supervising, motivating employees to achieve organizational goals. In details, the major elements of directing are:

- **Supervision:** It is an act or function of overseeing something or somebody. It is the work of an expert amongst colleagues, monitoring, evaluation, critic, find solutions and direct workers. For example, in education, in virtual and traditional classroom, and correlating quality standard with policies and objectives.
- **Motivation:** Giving accurate feedback, compliments, and rewards for exceptional work is an act of motivating and inspiring coworkers and employees to perform better. The mechanism that starts, directs, and sustains behavior that is goal-oriented is known as motivation.
- **Leadership:** It's a strategy used by managers to steer and impact employees' performance in the right direction by exhibiting the proper attitude, creativity, dedication, empathy, and inventive drive. There are up to seven leadership styles that a manager can use to influence or inspire co-workers to carry out a particular assignment or task. They are as: autocratic, authoritative, pace setting, democratic, coaching, afflictive, laissez-faire
- **Communication:** It may be summed up as a mechanism for employees and coworkers to exchange knowledge and insights in an elegant way that increases understanding and knowledge. Communication can be verbal or non-verbal or visual using the five senses of taste, smell, see, hear and feel. It can be given in the form of grapevine, tabloid, drama etc. These take the

style of passive, aggressive, passive-aggressive and assertive (Online, altemia.edu).

Importance of Directing

Directing is a very important function of managerial process and helps in the following ways:

1. Initiating action by directing and guiding workers and co-workers towards organizational goals.
11. Ensuring maximum results from individuals by utilizing the talent and capabilities of employees to the fullest.
111. Simplify changes by introducing external and internal changes in the firm and enabling workers and co-workers contribute their best to achieve organizational goals.

The art or act of directing is essential to achieve goals or objectives of an institution or organization. In an educational setting, efficient teaching or learning process, formulation of curriculum and use of teaching aids to teach in a classroom setting can only be ensured through the art or act of directing.

Importance of Controlling

Major functions of managerial process include controlling and monitoring of various operations or activities. In a general sense, control is an autocratic term. In other words, it means the imposition of orders over issues, situations and persons. This has a negative explanation to this concept of control. If we look at concept of control positively, we will find a totally different meaning. Process of control involves the monitoring of all activities in a way that focus on

achieving objectives of the organization. Effective control and monitoring of all actions must be in accordance with plans and objectives as necessary components to achieve success.

Types of Control

Control is generally classified into the following types:

- a. Pre controls (creative control)
 - b. Preliminary control
 - c. Steering control (concurrent control) and
 - d. Feedback or critic control
- ***Pre-controls:*** Pre-action or creative control includes the planning of preventive measures aimed to check problems before they arrive. They are also known as pre- action or creative controls. The best example of pre-control is to check both human and material resources as well as future financial expenditure. When an educational planner knows the fiscal and financial limitations of an institution, he will determine creatively the most appropriate way/plan to embark on the project.
 - ***Preliminary control (Feed forward control):*** It is control over anticipated problems or deviations of system before the task operation starts. This kind of control is an essential part of every kind of planning. In this control mechanism, managers identify the issues and the prospective action plans to meet the anticipated problems. For example, if you are a principal of a school, you ought to know in a year which particular month has more student admissions and during which month is evaluation. You would develop a proper mechanism to meet with the issues. Preliminary control

acts as an alert mechanism for educational managers about the probable hurdles that may affect the accomplishment of predetermined targets.

- ***Steering control (Concurrent control):*** It is a kind of control that is used during the work being done. Steering control ensures the accomplishment of work according to a laid down plan and takes necessary corrective action before any major problem appears due to violations of actions from pre-planned program. For example, each day a principal supervises all the activities to ensure maximum learning output. She/he monitors all the activities in order to ensure quality and takes necessary steps as and when required. For the effectiveness of concurrent control an educational manager must obtain the information on time and it should be accurate. Since concurrent control helps to take corrective action during the process, it is therefore one of most popular method of control and is used widely.
- ***Post action control (Feedback control):*** As the name suggests, post action control is used after completion of a task. It is a kind of critical review that is conducted to see whether the desired result has been achieved or not. It provides information about whether the objectives of the organizations are achieved or not. This kind of feedback control can be used for deciding the future action plan of an educational organization.

It is necessary to emphasize that all these types of control are complementary to each other. This categorization is based on the control at different stages and a good manager uses all or any of these controls to be effective in his work.

1.7 The Development of Administration

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

1.7.1 Administration as a Science

The view that administration is a science and not art emanated from the conception of administration as a technology a matter of applying administrative principles and rules to the solution of management or organizational problems. Exponents of this view, characterize the administrative process by such terms as human or social engineering, human management, resources optimization, or just management. It was argued that as a scientist, the administrators must know and apply the rules the Do's and Don'ts of administration. Scientist administrators must know what action leads to what result and what rule fits what action statistical formula. Those who viewed administration as a science believe that administrators are

made through scientific selection and training not through in-born traits or hereditary factors.

1.7.2 Administration as an Art

Those who view administration as an art believe that administration like art (painting, drawing, sculpture, etc.) belongs to those who have the natural gifts, traits or abilities for it or those trained in the social sciences like sociology, philosophy, psychology etc. This trait point of view holds that only those who have the in-born qualities for the practice of the art of administering succeed as administrators. Therefore, one becomes a good administrator not by training or the mastery of any special social knowledge or scientific techniques of administration but by possessing the essential in-born traits of administration. As one prominent university administrator argued, the successful administrator has skills which have not been reduced to order and codified in textbooks. Administration is an unqualified art. Therefore, the only way to learn administration is to administer. This implies that good administrators are not trained in any educational institution, rather they are born administrators. The problem of organizations, therefore, are how to identify and select good administrators rather than how to train them. Holistically administrators are both born and made. The latter through the study of theories from studies carried out.

In recent developments and many studies on administration tend to show that successful administrators today need more than inborn personality traits to manage modern complex organizations. Obviously, those who have the in-born capabilities for administration are blessed, but they, in addition, need appropriate training and techniques to

properly utilize these natural traits in the modern complex organizations in society.

1.7.3 Types of Education Administrators

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

1. ***School/Primary Administrators and Local government supervisors:*** This group consists of head of school and their assistants at the primary, secondary, teacher training and technical schools. They are appointed as the chief executive of their schools. At the primary schools, they are known as the headmaster/mistress and assistant headmaster/mistress while at the secondary school, levels they are known as principals and the vice principals. Both the assistant head teacher/mistress and vice/deputy principals assist the school head in executing the enormous administrative tasks, born out of the hierarchies in a school system. At the local government education board are supervisors who oversee the work done in school in relation to the mandate of its policies.
2. ***State and federal Ministry of Education Officials/Intermediary Level:*** This group comprises officials of state and federal ministry of education. They are external bodies working for the ministry of education to ensure that schools comply with educational policy and curriculum set by the government. They are intermediary between the government and the school. They are Inspectors of Education who monitor activities of teachers at both the primary and secondary schools. The monitor activities at the primary schools at the state/federal ministries of

education are inspectors who monitor activities of teachers at both primary and secondary schools, teachers training and technical colleges. At the Local Government level, they are referred to as Education Officers or Supervisors who monitor activities at the primary level of education. They in coordination with Inspectors establish schools and determine quality standards in schools. They organize in-service training/workshops, seminars and evaluation process. Inspectors of education at the State and Federal ministries monitor activities of secondary schools, teachers training and science/technical colleges.

3. ***Officials of Institutions of Higher Learning:*** This group comprises chief executives in institutions of higher learning for example, colleges of education, polytechnics, and universities. They are known as Provost at the College of Education, Rectors at the Polytechnic, and Vice-Chancellors at the Universities. These are chief executives of their various institutions and are appointed by the owner usually the government except the private owned institutions. They are also assisted by their Deputies, deans and heads of departments. Deputies are either of academic or administrative cadres. Officials in tertiary commissions/boards also determine policy adherence and quality in tertiary institutions. For example, in the National Universities Commission (NUC) such officials carry out approval inspections, accreditations and audit in universities while at the colleges of education officials from National Commission College of Education (NCCE) carry out similar duties.

CHAPTER TWO

THE EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT PROCEDURE

2.1 Introduction

Appropriate management is required to guarantee that a company accomplishes its defined goals and objectives. Many variables must be engaged in the management process in order for administration to be successful, functional, and progressive. The fundamental goal of education is to help students make desired changes in their lives by providing them with extensive learning opportunities.

The twentieth century saw the rise and development of a new form of society known as an "organizational society," in which we spend a significant portion of our time in various types of organizations. Many of these are big companies, and their structures and processes have an impact not just on the firms' own behavior, but also on the behavior of their employees and others who interact with them. A systems-based approach to administration is a modern approach to administration. Decision-making, organizational compliance, organizational growth, and current trends in educational management such as Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT) and Cost per mile (CPM)) are some of the emerging trends in educational administration.

Psychologically, workplace stress is a common and palpable reality for most business employees, and it's no different in the field of education. As a result, both employees and employers must deliberately participate in stress-relieving activities such as team work excursions, training sessions,

and other such activities. These activities assist the employer in gaining a better understanding of the psychological requirements of their employees and how they may be met. Employees who experience less stress are more likely to be motivated and hence more productive.

On a theoretical level, numerous specialists and psychologists have developed models and theories that describe and then meet the psychological requirements of workers. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy theory, McClelland's Theory of Needs, Alderfer's ERG theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, and others are examples of well-known theories. Let's take a quick look at each of these ideas to have a better understanding of what employees require a work procedure.

2.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Human beings are desirous of various determinant needs. According to Maslow they are driven to meet these needs such as Safety, Love, Ego, and Self-actualization, which are five primary hierarchical levels of human needs. Basic requirements like hunger and thirst are referred to as physiological needs. All types of security are required for safety. The urge to be connected to people is referred to as a love need. The demand for prestige and recognition is referred to as ego needs. Self-actualization refers to realizing one's full potential. Maslow proposed that these requirements based on a hierarchy, with certain needs being considered "lower-order" in comparison to "higher-order" need. He also stated that the higher-order need would not be functional unless the lower-order need is met, it may sometimes no longer motivate for higher order needs. Physiological needs are at the bottom of the priority list, followed by safety demands. Then comes the desire for love, followed by the

need for ego.

The highest-order of needs are those for self-actualization. Maslow's five needs are linked to many components of an organization. A paid job would be based on physiological requirements but seniority and job security would be the security requirements. Belonging to a nice work group is something that love requires. Status and advancement are examples of ego wants. Self-actualization refers to the desire to attain goals that are in line with one's self-image. Maslow makes a major contribution by bringing attention to the lower-order requirements that are sometimes overlooked in organizations. Maslow argues unequivocally that if lower-order requirements are not met, higher-order demands will not be met. The flaw in Maslow's hypothesis is that all requirements are met at the same time, and higher-order demands are not satisfied before lower-order needs are met.

2.2.2. The Three Motives Theory of McClelland

Achievement, connection, and power, according to McClelland, are three significant motivators for people. A concern for excellence, a tendency to compete with standards of excellence set by others or by oneself, the setting of challenging goals for oneself, awareness of the obstacles in the way of achieving one's goals, and persistence in trying out alternative paths to one's goals are all characteristics of the achievement motive. The affiliation (connection) motivation is defined by a desire to form and maintain strong personal ties, a high regard for friendship, and a proclivity to communicate one's emotions.

Achievement and affinity were easy factors for McClelland, but power was a complicated variable for him. According to

McClelland, the desire to dominate others (control motivation), the need to influence others (influence motive), and the desire to utilize power for the benefit of other people and organizations (extension motive) were all part of the power motive. A concern for orderliness, a want to keep informed, and a willingness to monitor a situation and take remedial action, if necessary, describe the control motivation. The influence motivation is defined by a need to make an impact on others, a drive to persuade others to do what one believes is good, and a desire to alter and grow others. The concern for others, an interest in a higher objective, and a desire to be relevant and beneficial to bigger groups, such as society as a whole, describe the extension motivation. Personalized power is the desire to exert control over others, whereas socialized power is the desire to exert influence and use power for the benefit of other people and groups.

2.2.3 Alderfer's ERG Theory

Maslow's idea is extended by Alderfer's ERG theory. Alderfer proposed three rather than five types of needs: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth. Maslow's physiological and safety requirements are comparable to existential needs.

Relatedness requirements are comparable to Maslow's love and ego needs in that they entail interpersonal connections. Growth needs are comparable to Maslow's self-actualization requirements in that they are concerned with realizing one's full potential.

Alderfer's ERG theory varies from Maslow's in two key ways. First, Alderfer's ERG theory does not imply that lower-order requirements must be met before higher-order

demands become motivating. According to Alderfer's ERG theory, if an individual's upper-order needs are not met, he or she would regress, and lower-order wants will become the primary motivators. As a result, Alderfer's ERG theory not only emphasizes the fulfillment of lower-order requirements, but also emphasizes the fulfillment of higher-order wants such as job challenge, promotion, innovation, and growth. Indeed, Alderfer thought that when a person's higher-order demands are met, they become more intense - the more power a person has, the more power he desires.

2.2.4 The Two-Factor Theory of Herzberg

Herzberg offered two sets of needs: one set generated discontent if it was not satisfied, while the other set caused dissatisfaction if it was not met. He referred to them as "hygiene factors." Safety, working environment, business policy, supervision, and work group are some of the hygiene aspects. If the second set of demands was satisfied, it produced good satisfaction. They were dubbed "motivators" by him.

Advancement, development, responsibility, recognition, success, and work itself are some of the motivators. Reducing discontent in the workplace, according to Herzberg, is not the same as delivering positive satisfactions. He went on to say that hygiene factors and motivators are fundamentally separate elements of work motivation, and that motivation can only be given if motivators, in addition to hygiene considerations, are employed in the workplace. Job enrichment programs, which involve job redesign, have resulted from Herzberg's thesis. Job enrichment aims to include motivators into the workplace.

2.3 SYSTEM APPROACH

A system is an aggregation of things connected by some sort of regular interaction or interdependence; an organic or organized whole like the solar system or a new telegraph system. According to Crunkilton and Finch, a system is a collection of interconnected and interdependent constituent pieces organized in a way that results in a cohesive whole.

Researchers began to examine organizations from a systems viewpoint based on the physical sciences in the 1960s. This is a modern approach that can be described as an intellectual discipline for utilizing science and technology to attack complex, large-scale problems with the goal of solving them using an objective, rational, comprehensive, and thoroughly professional method known as the 'systems approach,' also known as 'Management Technology.' It has introduced a scientific method to tackling educational administration challenges to educational management. Education is viewed as a system, and a systematic method to building an effective and cost-effective educational system is called a system approach. It begins with the definition of goals and objectives, followed by a description of a harmonious, optimal assembly of the required resources, namely humans and equipment in various categories, as well as a corollary network of information and material flow that will allow this system to operate and fill the need by solving the problem. Twelkier (2009) defines the Systems Approach as "a management tool that allows employees to evaluate all elements of the organization, to interrelate the impacts of one set of decisions to another, and to use all available resources to address the challenge optimally." The optional

effectiveness of the systems approach depends largely on its status - open or closed system.

2.3.1 System Types

The following are the two different sorts of systems:

- **Closed system:** A closed system is an organization that is neither impacted by or interacts with its external environment, and hence receives minimal input from it. It's self-contained and self-regulating. There is no tangible exchange with the environment. It's a system that doesn't adjust.
- **Open system:** In contrast to a closed system, an open system interacts with its surroundings on a continuous basis. Receives input from the outside world, processes it, and returns the results to the outside world. As a result, this system is always aware of different changes that occur in its environment, as well as its organizational renewal in relation to these changes. This is the new face of organizational procedure, the future tone of digital world.

A system has characteristics such as

Sub-system: An organization is a purposeful and integrated system made up of a number of linked, interacting, and interdependent constituent elements. Subsystems are the components of a system. Each subsystem has an impact on the other subsystems and the overall system.

Synergy: The power of each subsystem is derived from its interrelationships and interactions with other subsystems. As a consequence, the organization's overall contribution is higher than the sum of its subsystems' individual

contributions. Synergy is the term for this. It refers to a system's potential to be more than the sum of its parts.

System Elements: An organization is made up of four components, which are as follows:

- **Inputs:** Materials or human resources.
- **Transformation:** Technological and managerial processes applied to the input
- **Outputs:** Products or services that are created from the result of the transformational process.
- **Feedback/Evaluation review:** The impact of the output on the environment and society.

An organization requires resource inputs such as time, raw materials, money, technology, and human resources from the perspective of an organization. These inputs are transformed and manipulated in a process that includes planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling them in order to meet the organization's goals and objectives. The outputs are the goods or services that help customers/clients improve their quality of life or productivity. Customers or clients who are utilizing the goods provide feedback in the form of comments, reactions, responses and supply demands. Feedback is important for assessing and enhancing the system's performance. This general systems architecture may be applied to any societal department or initiative .t

Effectiveness, efficiency, reliability, adaptability, and acceptance are all characteristics of a successful system. This is pertinently valuable in the education system.

2.3.2 Systems approach to Education

Globally speaking, educational institutions are viewed as systems. It is believed that education is a complex system with institutional, administrative, social, and technical components. Because of this, the system approach to education sees learning and instruction as an input-output system with incredibly complex format requirements. Individuals whose performance or ideas have improved in some way have been seen as the output, whereas people, resources, and knowledge have all been seen as inputs to a particular teaching/learning style or system.

2.3.3 Structure of Educational System

The structure of educational system with its different components are observed in input, process and output is shown below in Figure 1.

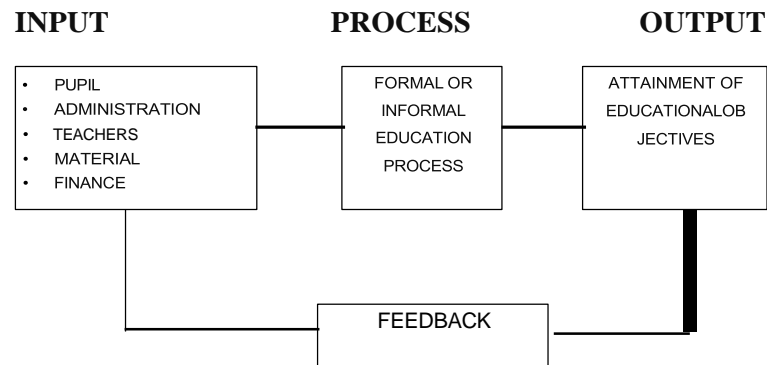


Fig.1.1 Structure of Educational System

2.3.4 Objectives of System Approach to Education

In adopting a system approach to Education, it is necessary to:

- Identify and express the desired outcomes
- Identify the procedures, methods, techniques, and strategies that are most appropriate for accomplishing the set objectives
- Establish a theoretical framework that justifies the importance of these processes in accomplishing the objectives
- Identify particular visual relationships that exist among many other input components
- Identify the various types of controls required in the overall system at various points

2.3.5 The System Approach Steps

Using the System approach, the focus is not only on the components or pieces, but on the study, analysis, and design of the complete system. This method stresses viewing an issue in its whole, taking into account all of the facts as well as all of the complex factors. It seeks to figure out how the various components interact with one another and how they may be brought into proper interrelationships to provide the greatest feasible answer to the situation at hand. The systems approach provides the foundation for combining technologies according to necessity, as well as social and technological elements. It begins with defining the problem and determining which criteria should guide the solution,

leading to the examination of several options.

A systems approach seeks to enhance the quality of the output by altering the course's input in a way that promotes the best possible assimilation of knowledge and abilities during the learning process. The following are the steps that make up a systems approach:

- Examine the current circumstances
- Establishing objectives for the desired environment
- Creating tools to assess whether or not objectives have been met.
- Coming up with alternate alternatives
- Using a cost-benefit analysis to select the best potential option
- Defining the system's design in detail
- Outlining the system's monitoring methods
- Preparing to introduce the solution

2.3.6 Steps Involved in Curriculum Design Using a System Approach

The following are some of the fundamental features of a system that may be utilized in the design and development of nearly any sort of teaching/learning situation:

- **Pre-assessment of the student's entering behavior:** The process of teaching and learning will be significantly impacted by the diversity of their educational

backgrounds, interests, knowledge, attitudes, and talents in regard to the specific course or topic. The teaching should be designed on previous knowledge, contextual relevance the implication and prevailing mindset. There is a likelihood that it will affect the sequencing, organization, and support systems of the learning process.

- **Content and instructional materials to be used:** The general focus of the course content must also be considered. The type of persons for whom the course is being designed, as well as the instructional content/materials to be utilized, should be taken into account.
- **Formulation of objectives or pre-determined learning outcomes:** The goals, objectives, and learning outcomes of the course or curriculum should make an effort to incorporate the new knowledge, abilities, and perspectives that the students are anticipated to gain as a transformative advantage. The school, an examining or professional organization, or a combination of these and other entities with an interest in the items' use may have developed them.
- **The cost factor:** The best feasible option is chosen based on the cost-benefit analysis, or the statistical project management technique (CPM).

Process/ Transformational Stage Items include;

a) Selecting Appropriate Teaching Strategies and Methods

- **Choosing relevant instructional media and material:**

Once the course designer has defined the objectives and learning outcomes, he or she may quickly choose appropriate teaching and learning techniques to ensure that the learning outcomes are satisfactory.

- **Development of a teaching-learning plan or schedule:** A framework of detailed programs/timetables for the system's operation in respect to its parameters and specified goals is currently being developed. It is decided how much time will be allocated to pupils in order for them to achieve their learning objectives.

- **Choosing appropriate assessment procedures:** The evaluation technique to be utilized to assess learners' achievements is also chosen ahead of time, such as whether a formative or summative evaluation is required.

(b) System Operation and Implementation:

The final component is the course's actual implementation and execution. This covers the logistics for administering the course, such as general arrangements as in time tabling, staff, classroom location etc., speed, execution of the specified teaching techniques, use of appropriate teaching aids and materials, and ensuring that each component of the course runs as efficiently as feasible.

(c) Assessment of learning outcomes and objectives:

(c) Evaluation of learning objectives and outcomes: As a consequence of the earlier phases, students are involved in

learning that seeks to enhance their knowledge, skills, and attitudes while taking into consideration the requirements and experiences of specific learners. Formative or summative assessments of students' performance can be used to gauge and plan for the effectiveness of the pre-planning and subsequent course of action. The learning outcomes and course objectives must be directly tied to these assessments. The system is allowed to continue if, upon analysis and evaluation of the learning outcomes, the objectives are achieved as intended. The system will need to be changed if the objectives are not reached.

When learning outcomes or objectives are not met to the required level, course designers should assess the system as a whole to determine which stages require modification. In this case, improving the system's performance may require rebuilding, redesigning, refurbishing, and rearranging how it operates. Changes to the course's specific objectives and learning outcomes, an updated assessment of students' prior knowledge, a critical analysis of the instructional strategies employed, a review of the course structure's inspection process, a reevaluation of the assessment techniques, or a combination of some or all of these could be included. These elements may be used to assess the general concept of the course, which can then be the basis for future research, along with feedback and comments on the course from faculty, students, employers, and others.

The systems approach is a tool that helps instructors think more systematically and logically about the goals that are suitable for their pupils, as well as the means and methods for achieving and evaluating these goals.

2.3.7 Putting the System Approach to Work

The systems approach is founded on logic and common sense, and it is built on a solid structure. This method allows for the examination of all needed facts, needs, and frequently conflicting variables that typically constitute the core of a complicated, real-life situation.

When using the systems approach, it's critical to remember that judgments made at each level are constantly influenced by decisions made earlier in the process, which may necessitate some of the prior decisions being altered. It's also crucial to remember that different phases of system and processing aren't the only options, and that a decision may always be revisited and altered if necessary. As a result, the method should be lively and iterative, allowing for future feedback as well as the modification or adjustment of concepts. The systems approach will not solve major issues all at once, and it will never solve them altogether. It makes no difference how talented the systems team is; this technique is merely a tool. It will never give us something for free. It can only assist in the creation of organized, timely, reasonable designs and judgments.

2.3.8 Importance Of System Approach For Education

- It provides a framework for planning, decision-making, controlling, and problem-solving;
- It illuminates the dynamic character of management.
- It gives institutions a unified focus on their activities.
- Seeing the institution as a totality rather than as a collection of components is beneficial.
- It aids the management in identifying important subsystems and their interrelationships.

- It contributes to the institution's improvement.
- It enables school administration and management to work more effectively and efficiently.
- It aids in the design of education and institutions in a methodical manner.
- It aids in the most efficient use of resources.
- It aids in the improvement of the examination and evaluation process.
- The guiding services are improved, maintained, and managed.
- Creating, managing, and developing a system of non-formal and adult education.
- It raises educational standards.
- Improving teacher training programs, including in-service and pre-service.

2.4 DECISION MAKING IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: SPECIFIC TRENDS:

A look at some specific educational administration trends, such as decision-making, organizational compliance, organizational growth, PERT, and CPM which are current educational management trends.

2.4.1 Making a Decision

To put it simply, decision-making is the mental process of choosing an appropriate course of action from a multitude

of possibilities. Every choice has an ultimate result that can be stated as an opinion or an action. Thus, making decisions involves interpreting information, which may be done in a logical or illogical manner and may or may not be predicated on explicit or implicit assumptions. There are various ways to approach making decisions.

Newman and Sumber (1961), see "decision-making" is a synonym for "planning.",

Dorsey (1957), observes decision-making as the culmination of a sequence of interconnected communication events.

But Simon (1960) considers decision-making to be "synonymous with management."

Decision-making is defined by Tarter and Hoy (2010) as "rational, thoughtful, intentional action, beginning with the creation of a decision strategy and progressing through execution and evaluation of results."

The decision-making process usually ends with a series of options or a single conclusion that supports certain actions. Organizational decision-making results in the establishment of specific norms, regulations, and policies that govern employee behavior and attitude. There are several characteristics of decision-making:

- It has to do with employee happiness and morale.
- It aspires to improve and expand.
- It is efficient in and of itself
- In order to survive, it has a competitive behavior style with others.
- It attempts to keep itself from exploding from within.

The goal of decision-making is to accomplish desired outcomes while avoiding unforeseen negative effects. The consequences of actions will differ depending on the

environment in which they are made. Intelligent decision-making is required for effective administration. Decisions are intelligent when they are made in the context of achieving specified objectives. The school, like all formal organizations, is essentially a decision-making structure, school managers must comprehend the decision-making process.

2.4.2 Educational Organization and Decision-Making

Educational institutions are currently confronted with contemporary problems such as fast technological change, globalization, hyper-competition, and a variety of other social, cultural, and economic changes. As a result, more effective decision-making methods are seen as critical. Barrett et al. (2005) alludes to a "paradigm shift in decision-making" prompted by the need to adapt to such problems, arguing that decision-making requires more creativity and teamwork. Alternative kinds of decision-making are currently being pushed in educational leadership, which may call into question the leader's conventional established role as the ultimate or only decision maker, and instead make the leader more of a "ratifier" of choices reached in collaborative settings (Law and Glover, 2000).

Making decisions is a crucial and practical element of working in an organization. Its significance in leadership is generally recognized. Decision-making, according to Simon (1987), is a critical component of organizational leadership.

The importance of decision-making in educational institutions is highlighted by the following points:

- Every member of the organization must identify themselves, their duties, and what they expect from one another. Because there is a greater human aspect involved in complicated situations like education, this becomes even more crucial. Decision-making is a crucial component of job definition and delineation.

- To accomplish intended aims and avoid unfavorable unintentional outcomes, decision-making is required. In essence, the ability to make decisions provides us a sense of control over what is going on around us and what we are meant or obliged to do.

- People in companies have a tendency to "think and behave in decision-making terms." It is simpler for employees to execute their jobs and contribute to the organization's effective running when roles and responsibilities are clearly defined.

- One of the eight essential aspects of educational leadership is decision-making Dimmock and Walker, (2002). Regardless of the type of the institution, whether it is a creche, a primary school, a senior secondary school, or a college, administrators' decision-making is at the heart of their educational leadership.

2.4.3 Decision-Making Processes in Educational Organizations

Decisions are frequently defined and understood as intentional conscious decisions made by an individual at the end of a process that is traditionally considered to be reasonable. This premise of deliberation and reason, however, is not ubiquitous. There are differences in the type

of decisions to be made by persons in various levels in a hierarchical structure. The wider the scope of the choice to be taken, the higher the obligation of the decision makers. There are decisions to be made about the goals and methods for achieving the goals, as well as decisions to be made about putting the program in place to achieve the goals. Then there are decisions on the organization's day-to-day operations.

The following are the many types of decisions made in an organization:

Strategic decision: Strategic decisions are those that have a long-term influence on the company, such as decisions on which strategy to pursue. Such important choices will be made by people in positions of power in a company.

Tactical choices: Tactical decisions, as the name implies, are those that must be taken during execution. Decisions of this nature are made at the intermediate level of management. These might include things like the sort of resources available, their quality and quantity, and giving incentives to staff, among other things.

Operational choices: Operational decisions are those that aid in the smooth operation of activities to be carried out in order to achieve the strategies on a day-to-day basis.

Programmed vs. non-programmed decisions: There are simple regular decisions where the decision maker is aware of both the solution and the consequence, such as purchasing textbooks, choosing which reference books to use, deciding on an employee's yearly increase, and so on.

Programed decisions are what they're called. They are created in accordance with corporate policies and procedures. There are, on the other hand, judgments that must be taken in situations where neither the answer nor the consequence are known. Non-programmed choices are those that are made without the use of a computer. They're useful for resolving uncommon and unique situations. In a catastrophe event, for example, an institution's actions are a non-programmed choice. Exams being canceled owing to question-paper leaks, entrance tests being postponed due to a sudden flood, and other similar scenarios are examples of this sort.

2.4.4 The Decision-Making Process

An important process of decision making is the issue of choice. A choice, according to Felix M. Lopez, is "a definitive resolution of a conflict of needs, means, or goals; and a commitment to action made in the face of ambiguity and complexity." Any human being must make decisions on a daily basis. There are no exceptions to this rule. When it comes to educational institutions, choosing decisions is both a habit and a process. A variety of intricate interactions of events are involved in decision-making processes. Decisions are made in complicated and dependent social systems, ranging from mundane administrative tasks to value-laden problems, and are subject to many and competing demands. As a result, there are several interactions engaged in the decision-making process. Let's take a closer look at these interactions and their many stages.

Stage 1: Thorough examination of the current situation: A good administrator examines his surroundings to discover

issues and potential solutions. He must also assess his employees on a regular basis. He must be constantly informed on the happenings at his school. As a result, he must be fully informed on instructor activities, student affairs, and parent perceptions of the school. He must have detailed information about student achievement, teaching aid availability, school discipline, teacher performance, school food services, and school community relations. In order to identify problems and make successful decisions, the administrator must be well-versed in the school's circumstances.

Stage 2: Recognize and characterize the problem: Once the problem has been identified, the decision-making process may begin. Once the problem has been identified, efforts to solve it be initiated. A competent administrator is always on the lookout for activities inside the establishment that are detrimental to its overall health. As a result, he must be vigilant at all times in order to spot possible issues and respond appropriately in order to avoid them in the future. For successful decision-making, it is critical to identify and analyze the difficulties, and the administrator must approach for example, indiscipline with a clear grasp of the situation.

Stage 3: Investigate the specifics of the problem in the current situation: During this stage, the administrator must classify the issue. He must analyze the problem's nature, determining if it is exceptional or complex. Occasionally, the establishment develops a method to address issues that arise from the application of current school regulations. The administrator must have a thorough understanding of the problem's jurisdiction. Will the administration, for instance, assume responsibility for a student's expulsion from school? It

is preferable to refrain from making a judgment if it does not fall under the administrator's jurisdiction.

Decide on the criteria for resolving the problem at stage 4: Decision-makers must choose an appropriate solution for the problem when the process of problem definition, analysis, and specification is finished. A few issues have been raised about the solution's appropriateness. What elements or variables should be considered before making a decision? What are the criteria for determining if a choice is acceptable? Are the variables deemed acceptable by the employees? What are the bare minimum goals that must be met? It is recommended that decision-makers or administrators rank their criteria and probable outcomes on a scale of least to maximum satisfaction. The criteria used to make judgments must be in line with the organization's aims, or in this example, school rules.

Stage 5: Create an action plan: Identification of various problem-solving techniques, appraisal of the cost and implications of each alternative, and selection of the most appropriate solution are all done at this step. The administrator should now ask the following questions:

- How much does each solution cost?
- What are the many alternatives accessible to you?
- What's the most likely outcome?
- What is the most suitable option?

The administrator creates a plan of action based on a simplified image of reality, picking the aspects that he considers to be the most important and suitable.

Stage 6: Begin implementing the action plan: This step entails putting the chosen plan of action into effect. During this stage, the selected program, policy or decision, resource allocation, and staff motivation are just a few of the tasks that must be completed. When a smart choice is done incorrectly, it might backfire. As a result, it's a good idea to think about the following ideas for a successful implementation:

- It is the responsibility of school officials to ensure that the alternative is well recognized.
- School officials must encourage students to consider the alternative as a viable option.
- School officials must allocate sufficient resources to ensure that the alternative succeeds.
- Timelines must be established by school officials.
- School officials must explicitly allocate roles.

We also develop controls, checks and balances, targets, draw lines to monitor the plan's performance, evaluate its degree of success, and discover the causes for any deviations from planned outcomes throughout the implementation stage. Because decision-making is a never-ending process, evaluation is critical. The reasons for success or failure must be determined. If the choice was a failure, action must be made to rectify the situation.

The decision-making procedure described above may appear to be straightforward. It is not the case, however, when a wide range of elements are engaged in any educational institution. The nature and complexity of the decision-making process is

unique to each person and is influenced by a variety of circumstances.

2.4.5 Basic Decision-Making Strategies

Decision-making has become a more important part of administration in the previous decade. It is a well-known truth that the decision-making process varies based on a variety of elements such as the nature of the problem, the urgency of the problem, the impact of the solution, and the context of the situation. The suitability of a model in decision-making in educational settings is determined by the context specificity that determines model selection. The following are the most commonly used models in the decision-making process:

1) The Classical Model: The decision-making process is described as a set of consecutive phases in the classical model. An optimization method is used in this model. It commits to making totally reasonable judgments, and it uses an inflecting method to find the greatest feasible option to optimize the attainment of goals and objectives.

2) The Administrative Model: Due to the complexity of most organizational issues and the human mind's limited ability, using an optimal approach on anything but the simplest problems is nearly difficult. As a result, the demand for more effective tactics arose. Herbert Simon (1974) was the first to propose the satisfaction approach (searching for satisfactory; alternatives rather than optimal ones). It's also known as the "pleasing method." This is a circumstance in which decision-making is based on both theory and experience.

3) The Incremental Model: In educational contexts, there may be times when neither the traditional nor administrative

models are effective, necessitating the use of alternative techniques. These conditions may necessitate an incremental method, which is a series of restricted comparisons. If the collection of relevant options is indefinable and the implications of each alternative are unexpected, this method works. What additional activities, for example, should a school administrator devote greater resources to? David Bray Brooke and Charles Lindblom (1963), as well as Lindblom and Cohen, were the first to propose the incremental technique (1979). Their decision-making strategy was dubbed "the science of muddle through." They believe that when there is a high level of ambiguity and complicated issues at hand, this is the only acceptable way to systemic decision-making. This type of decision-making does not need a thorough examination of options or a prior choice of acceptable outcomes. It only analyzes alternatives that are comparable to the current ones, dismissing outcomes that are beyond the decision-makers' restricted range of interest.

4) Adaptive Decision-Making or Mixed Scanning: When circumstances requiring complicated decisions arise, the mixed scanning decision-making paradigm is suggested. Mixed scanning is a model that combines the advantages of both administrative and incremental scanning. In 1967, Amitai Etzioni presented a decision-making paradigm known as "humble decision-making," which deals with the uncertainty that modern administrators encounter. Adaptive or mixed scanning decision-making, on the other hand, might be a more descriptive term. Two sets of judgment are used in mixed scanning decision-making:

(a) Decisions made in little steps that drive the company in the policy's direction

(b) Alternatives to the organization's basic mission and policy

The flexibility of hybrid scanning is combined with the rationalization of the administrative paradigm. The following are the rules for mixed scanning:

- Fractionalizing
- Tentativeness
- Decisions are made in stages.
- Experimentation with a specific goal in mind

Administrators show a proclivity for employing these methods deftly, demonstrating a willingness to operate with limited information, flexibility, and prudence.

Capturing decision-making as an emerging process, with more immediate and proximal observation and data collection, may offer a more accurate picture of it in context. That would plainly show that the simpler models are only employed in a small number of instances when making judgments. For more effective and workable judgments, most circumstances necessitate sophisticated models. In fact, according to Simon (1987), decision-making may be thought of as a continuum of styles, with rational and non-rational components working together in effective decision-making. The combination of styles is determined by the nature of the choice.

2.5 Compliance in the Workplace

A robust and well-communicated code of ethics and conformity lies at the heart of every effective establishment

compliance program. The anticipated behavior inside an organization should be defined by this code. A well-crafted code should establish the appropriate tone and support the organization's management's strength and capacity to lead by example. When an establishment develops and refines its programs, it should evaluate, renew, and update its code of ethics to match the establishment's ethical practices.

The term "organizational compliance" refers to an organization's tangible attempts to prevent, identify, and/or otherwise respond appropriately to unlawful behavior associated with the actions of people working on its behalf. Administrators, managers, executives, workers, agents, and freelancers make up this group.

Furthermore, on a practical level, a compliance program supports the organization's goals, recognizes the limits of legal and moral activities, and establishes a system to alert management when the organization is approaching or crossing a limit, or approaching any complication that would prevent the achievement of an objective.

To prevent or penalize noncompliance, organizations have bylaws governing lawful and permitted behavior and practice. The majority of these regulations are plain sense, such as banning physical assault on a coworker or financial mismanagement. Some of them, however, are less obvious, such as the quantity of a gift given or received, while others are a question of interpretation, such as what constitutes an improper statement to a colleague or subordinate.

Without regard to their size or purpose, all businesses are obliged to use a compliance program to check themselves and avoid unfair practices. Organizational compliance

programs indicate that a company is attempting to be a good corporate citizen. If problems arise, the existence (or lack thereof) of a compliance program might have a justifying (or frustrating) effect on social and criminal accountability.

Organizational compliance can be linked to a variety of regulatory systems of various types and degrees. Organizational units, projects, and officials must all follow international and local rules and regulations, industry-specific standards and best practices, organizational laws and processes, and models.

Academicians have been interested in the issue of compliance for ages. In the 1600s, Thomas Hobbes reflected on the sensitive subject of compliance. He noted that while contract compliance may be beneficial to the business as a whole, it may be in an individual's or organization's best interest to agree to contracts, may not be in his best interest to actually follow through.

This is also true in the context of an organization, when conformity with standards may be in the best interests of the organization as a whole, it may not be producing the greatest outcomes for the conforming people or projects. This is not merely a philosophical position as several studies have shown that non-compliance in companies is widespread. This makes compliance a strategic problem in the modern period, especially because high-cost businesses must pay a penalty for non-compliance. The use of compliance programs to advance a company's long-term interests is appealing.

2.5.1 Organizational Compliance Program Key Components

An organization must create and maintain an organizational culture that "encourages ethical behaviour and a commitment to compliance with the law" in order to have a successful compliance program.

An effective ethical and compliance program has eight components. Government billings and receipts; fraud; HR; accounting; disclosures; environmental; quality assurance such as with respect to products, materials, services, or care; bribes; and other areas of potential liability and risk exposure should be developed to meet the requirements of the specific organization. The following are some of the most important aspects of a compliance program for an organization:

1. Personnel at the top of the organization who are responsible for effective oversight include:

- Any organization's senior management should guarantee that a strict ethics and compliance policy is in place for its employees. The whole duty for supervising this program should be delegated to a team or a single individual in its management.
- Officials who have significant authority over organizational management decisions and play a key role in organizational policy-making are referred to as "high-level people of an organization."
- An organization's controlling authority should have comprehensive knowledge about the operation as well as the program's contents. They should be in charge of its

efficacy and execution.

- Daily operation responsibility for the compliance and ethics program will be allocated to a single individual or team, and they will be required to report on the program's operation and outcome on a regular basis to high-level people and management authorities. The persons who are given responsibility must be given enough resources, suitable power, and direct access to the governing authorities.

2. Policies and procedures

The creation and dissemination of written standards of conduct, including rules and procedures that encourage corporate compliance and target specific areas of possible fraud.

3. Communication channels:

- Keeping a system in place for reporting exceptions.
- Define reporting and authority lines that are designed to efficiently achieve the compliance and ethics program's goals and objectives.

4. Education and training:

- Create and execute policies and procedural education and training programs.
- Create a mechanism for responding to complaints of wrongdoing and enforcing appropriate discipline.

5. Discipline rules are well-publicized and enforced standards:

- From time to time, provide information to governing personnel, considerable authority personnel, and the organization's workers about the standards and processes, as well as other components of the compliance and ethics program.
- Create the software in such a way that any misbehavior or non-compliance may be detected.
- Have and use an effective disciplinary mechanism to ensure that the program's objectives are met.
- Implementation of processes and policies to improve the organization's ability to respond quickly to possible damage mitigation, unlawful activity, control, and remedy.
- The implementation of various standards and processes.
- Making the system public, with procedures in place to ensure anonymity, so that workers may seek advice on potential or actual illegal behavior without fear of penalties.
- Encouraging people to follow the program and fostering a culture of adherence to the laws and regulations, as well as guaranteeing ethical behavior in the workplace.
- Consistent application of the program's criteria throughout the company. Individuals found guilty of unlawful behavior or failing to identify or prevent criminal conduct would face appropriate disciplinary sanctions.

6. Internal compliance checks:

- Periodically assessing the effectiveness of standards and processes in order to discover and counteract unlawful activity in an organization.
- Ongoing auditing of the programs to verify that they are in compliance with identifying and dealing with illegal activity.
- The organization's rules and processes are always being reviewed.
- Creating a mechanism for evaluating and examining these rules and processes.

7. Corrective action strategies and responses to discovered offenses:

- Investigating and resolving identified systemic issues, as well as developing strategies to handle the non-employment or retention of approved personnel.
- Once illegal activity has been found, take the appropriate actions to investigate it and avoid such behavior in the future, including making any necessary changes to the organization's compliance and ethics program.

8. Risk Assessment on a Regular Basis:

Assess and review the risk of criminal behavior on a regular basis, and take necessary actions to develop, execute, or change each program requirement to decrease the risk of criminal behavior identified via this process.

9. Organizational Compliance Program Success Requirements

However, in order to qualify as a genuine compliance program, it must be implemented and enforced in such a way that it is generally effective. Ineffective organizational compliance programs can have a significant impact on decisions, resulting in wrongdoing for which corporations bear responsibility. Each ethics and compliance program should have the following basic elements in order to be effective:

1. The initiative must receive the active backing of the organization's top management. It is hard to instill a commitment to ethics and compliance programs without the organization's executives' open and honest commitment to such goals.
2. An ethics and compliance program is fundamentally about developing a commitment to follow the law and, more broadly, to do the right thing in an organization's culture.
3. Operational management is responsible for ethics and compliance. Despite the fact that authorities such as compliance officers are obligated to provide the necessary resources and develop the program, they are unable to accomplish implementation and execution. Only operations managers have the authority to do so.
4. An effort at ethics and compliance should be about people's behavior; it should be about people understanding what is required of them on a daily basis and doing it, and never sacrificing integrity, regardless of the circumstances

they encounter.

2.5.2 Organizational compliance objectives

Every company is unique, with its own set of aims and objectives. Similarly, many of the compliance and ethics program's objectives will be unique. There are, nevertheless, some basic goals that any compliance and ethical program should possibly achieve. Avoidance of non-compliance, preparation for the time when non-compliance occurs, protection from negative consequences to the greatest extent possible, recognition and response to non-compliance, and development of the program to better prevent, protect, prepare, detect, and respond to non-compliance are among these.

As previously said, various companies' compliance programs have varied aims and objectives depending on their goals and objectives; nonetheless, a compliance and ethics program serves two essential purposes:

- (a) Ensuring that all employees in a company follow all applicable rules and regulations in their work; and
- (b) Developing a broader set of aspiration-related ethical norms that are well-understood inside the organization and serve as practical guidance for members making decisions that raise ethical problems.

The subject of corporate ethics and compliance was created to assist businesses:

- Be aware of ethical and legal norms and follow them.
- Avoid behaviors that are obnoxious or unlawful.

- Minimize or eliminate financial and reputational risks that might be devastating.

2.5.3 Organizational Compliance Principles

In 1996, the American National Center for Preventive Law established Corporate Compliance Principles. These compliance principles, which are outlined below, indicate a number of excellent managerial practices for ensuring compliance. There are twenty corporate compliance principles that are grouped into four main groups as follows:

- **Implementing Compliance Programs**

Setting up Compliance Programs

Principle 1: Manage Compliance: Businesses must practice compliance by establishing and maintaining an effective compliance program.

Principle2: Prevent, Identify, and Respond to Legal Hazards: Effective compliance programs are designed to avoid, identify, and respond to legal risks while also encouraging adherence to the law.

Principle 3: Respond to Change: Effective compliance programs are dynamic in nature, with the ability to be changed as needed to reflect changing conditions.

Principle 4: State Compliance Policy: Effective compliance programs state that it is the policy of the business to follow all applicable laws.

Principle 5: Top-Level Endorsement: An organization's compliance program should be endorsed by the highest governing authority within the organization.

Principle 6: Establish Compliance Accountability: Effective compliance programs identify compliance responsibilities across the company.

Principle 7: Ensure Program Fairness: Effective compliance programs are built to operate in a fair and honest manner.

- **Control and structure**

Control and Structure

Principle 8: Maintain High-Level Oversight: The compliance program should be implemented and monitored by certain high-level individuals inside the organization.

Principle 9: Assign Individual Responsibility: An organization's compliance program must have the backing of senior executives. Everyone in the company is responsible for supporting and adhering to the compliance program's standards and measures.

Principle 10: Delegate Authority Responsibly: The organization must exercise due vigilance to prevent the delegation of wide flexible authority to individuals who are prone to engaging in unlawful activity.

Principle 11: Enforce internally: The company takes reasonable efforts to ensure that its standards and the law are followed.

Principle 12: Reward Success: Rewarding and punishing compliance are key strategies.

- **Training and communication**

Training and communication

Principle 13: Communicate the Standard: The organization's compliance program includes a communication component, with the goal of making workers and other agents aware of relevant behavior standards and encouraging compliance.

Principle 14: Match Training to Tasks: Effective compliance programs provide employees and other organization officials with relevant compliance information and motivation.

Principle 15: Tailor Training to Audience: Successful compliance programs are designed to reach the target audience.

Principle 16: Identify Communication Responsibilities: An organization's compliance communications program is accountable to all levels of management.

- **Violations and Reactions**

Responses to Violations

Principle 17: Respond proactively: To successfully deal with incidences of non-compliance, effective compliance programs must be practical in their approach.

Principle 18: Collect Compliance Data: Effective

compliance programs have access to resources for investigation, assessment, and reporting, and they use these resources to track compliance.

Principle 19: Take Offense Reporting into Account: Effective compliance programs handle the need for external reporting of legal violations.

Principle 20: Evaluate Program Performance: Effective compliance programs utilize non-compliance incidents to analyze their own effectiveness, rectify deficiencies, and make changes.

Corporate executives should use these concepts as a starting point for their own compliance program frameworks, and they should be well on their way to implementing successful compliance programs that provide significant business advantages.

Following the compliance principles outlined below will assist businesses in developing and implementing successful compliance programs. Organizational procedures that are generally successful in ensuring compliance with legal requirements and corporate values are referred to as an effective compliance program.

2.5.4 Limitations in Success of Organizational Compliance Programmes

Compliance programs are a way to effectively and efficiently fulfill requirements. These programs are systems for identifying and addressing compliance issues using well-established management techniques. However, there are significant limits to these programs that must be considered while implementing the compliance rules.

- Compliance programs, no matter how comprehensive or well-run, cannot prevent or correct every infringement of law or company values.

- Compliance programs may primarily expose more infringements than were previously detected, resulting in a temporary effectiveness of obvious poor compliance.

Even the best-designed compliance programs will have little impact unless they are backed up by personnel at all levels of the organization.

Modern Educational Management Trends

We are in the midst of the globalization age. We all know that the goal of the twenty-first century is to expand our horizons beyond our immediate surroundings in order to develop excellent cross-cultural communication, whether in education, technology, politics, management, or the humanities. Education management is at the top of any country's priority. The majority of developing countries have set a goal of achieving 100% literacy as soon as practicable. Countries have made significant efforts to establish new policies, plans, and educate their populations in order to achieve this goal. Managing such a difficult task is, of course, a top concern for school administrators and managers.

Following the adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration, the United Nations Millennium Summit (2000) created eight worldwide development objectives known as Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The objective was agreed upon by all 193 United Nations member states and 23 international organizations to be met

by 2015. The following are the eight Millennium Development Goals:

1. Putting an end to severe poverty and hunger
2. Ensuring that all children have access to primary education
3. Advancing gender equality and women's empowerment
4. Lowering infant and child death rates
5. Improving the health of mothers
6. HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other illnesses are being combated.
7. Ensuring the environment's long-term viability
8. Creating a global development alliance

The eight aims listed above are critical for human society's existence. Many nations have begun to raise cash and adopt new legislation in order to improve their governance. In this sense, if we look at the Millennium Goals, we can see that the second target, establishing universal primary education, is a difficult task for everyone. In the Right to Education Act of 2009, India took a big step forward in making primary education a fundamental right for children. Except for Jammu & Kashmir, almost all Indian states have adopted the Act. India has set a goal of providing free basic education to children aged six to fourteen years by 2015. Huge monetary resources have been made in this respect to provide high-quality primary education. In addition to creating strong infrastructure in schools, a number of states

make large-scale teacher appointments. According to the 2011 census, India's average literacy rate is presently slightly over 75% across the country, with predictions that it would approach 100% by the next census.

A question concerning school administration with huge duties emerges here. The school administration must remain vigilant in order to meet the deadline. The whole management team must be involved in the system for the Act to be implemented in its true sense. It is not only about school education; higher and technical education are also on track to meet their goals for the twenty-first century. Professor Yeshpal's Committee recently proposed reforms in Indian higher education. It has been proposed that the whole higher education framework in the country be managed by a single council. The National Council of Higher Education and Research (NCHER) principles are being developed, and a significant change in Indian higher education is envisaged. The National Knowledge Commission (NKC), which was established in 2005, proposed a number of reforms ranging from school education to higher and technical education. It also emphasized the need of educational institute quality management. Many new central universities have been formed around the country as a result of its recommendations, and a few more are in the process of being built. The development of private universities has also been emphasized by the Commission. In various regions of the nation, several private institutes, self-financing colleges, medical, engineering, and management institutes have been created.

The concept of Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) is emerging as a follow-up to the Right to Education Act of 2009. It aims to make secondary education free and obligatory. Class XI and X will be included in this plan.

All of the preceding discussion has emphasized the need of good educational management. The world has altered dramatically. Citizens have grown more informed and have begun to cope with the shifting global society. People have begun to consider the growth of other countries and make comparisons. The function of educational management is critical in this circumstance. It is not just about maintaining the amount of education, but also about ensuring that it is of high quality. It is challenging for any organization to manage both quantity and quality, but it is not impossible. The management's job is to figure out how to give high-quality education to a large number of pupils at the same time. Academic exchange programs are likewise high on the educational management system's priority list. Many countries have distinct fellowship programs in this area. In this context, full scholarship programmes created by the United States and India are examples.

As a result, the institute must be well-equipped and the management system must function in order to provide high-quality, international-standard education. Managing infrastructure and human resources is a major problem for educational administrators in our nation. This is a difficulty that no effective educational administration should ignore. Rather, it should adapt to changing societal requirements by becoming healthy and well-equipped and making all facilities available to students. We may be able to fulfill the

major aims of education institutes in the twenty-first century in this manner.

3. Educational administration and management strategies

4. Education policy, legislation, planning, and implementation techniques

5. The physical plant, infrastructure, and equipment of the school, as well as the curriculum, supervision, and teaching and assessment processes.

CHAPTER THREE

LEADERSHIP HIERARCHY IN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

Introduction

Leadership is the driving force behind every organization, whether it is in education or industry. It is the leader's responsibility to ensure that the organization is managed effectively while also keeping the subordinates and followers as a team happy, hardworking and motivated. The headmaster is a leader at the primary school level, the principal is a leader at the secondary school level, and provosts, rectors, and vice-chancellors are leaders at higher educational institutions, polytechnics, and universities. So also at the local, states and federal government levels, we have local and state supervisors and inspectors of education, commissioners of education and ministers of education as the leaders. It is pertinent and imperative for educational administrators to understand the various leadership hierarchies.

Concept of leadership

Attempt at one definition of leadership has not been possible due to diverse opinions of social scientists, managers and researchers, hence various definitions of the concept abound.

Leadership is the ability to awaken in the followers the desire to follow a common objective and the act of influencing the followers to cooperate towards achieving some desirable goals. To Ukeje and Okorie (1990), leadership is the process of influencing, directing and

coordinating the activities of other people in an organization. In the educational organizations leadership involves the capacity to influence others in the school toward the achievement of school goals/objectives. Furthermore, leadership always involves attempts of a leader to affect or influence the behaviour of followers in a specific activity. Therefore, a leader is always in a position to direct the groups or individuals towards the achievement of some goals.

From the foregoing explanations on leadership, it could be discerned that leadership is more than just influencing others. It also involves the maintenance of the organization in terms of:

- Keeping organization together.
- Satisfying individual's needs.
- Encouraging self-direction of personnel
- Promoting interdependence and
- Preserving harmony.

Onifade (2019) defines leadership as ability to lead a group of people in an organization for the attainment of the organizational objectives. It is the procedure for accomplishing the organizations' goals or objective. At this point, the central theme on the concept of leadership is getting things accomplished through people. It is influencing peoples' behavior so that they will work towards given objectives.

It can be seen therefore that leadership involves the achievement of an organization's goals through the processes of directing and coordinating groups' activities to

make workers in the organization strive willingly towards the attainment of the set goals (Chike-Okoli, 2015).

It is generally known that the success or failure of an organization hinges on quality of its leadership. For this reason, leadership could be seen as an input into organization success deeply influenced by interpersonal relations whereby productivity of such organization is judged.

Most often, the heads of educational organizations are "appointed" based on certain criteria (leadership involves the capacity to influence others in the school organizations) deemed to be effective towards the achievement of school goals. Furthermore, education leadership always involves attempt of a leader to influence the behavior of school personnel in specific activity for objective accomplishment. The school manager (leader) is therefore in a position to direct the group or individuals towards the achievement of some goal or all goals. Educational leadership is a process of influencing others in making and taking decision, setting goals and achieving goals; and keeping the group voluntarily together for the purpose of its establishment.

Overview of Hierarchy

What is hierarchy?

Hierarchy is a system that organizes or arranges things, usually according to power or significance. A hierarchy is also known as a pecking order or power structure, is a codified or merely implied concept of who is at particular status on the work chain or what is most essential in a specified model of work composite or environment.

In the education environment, hierarchy can be defined as the chain of command that clearly shows the chain of authority, control and area of specialization of each unit and the individuals that work within the education environment. Hierarchy exists in every education environment and it is used to initiate control and clarify the various levels of leadership. This is because management roles are more clearly defined in this type of pyramid structure. But in contemporary practical term, hierarchies are having various levels of control, operations run more smoothly.

The Structure of the Federal Ministry of Education

Federal ministry of education is the organ of federal government that is responsible for the administration, financing and controlling of the federal government-owned education institutions both at the secondary and higher institutional levels. There are vertical and horizontal flows of authority and responsibility in the ministry of education. This will be seen in the hierarchical structure.

The ministry is headed by a minister of education who is nominated for appointment by the president subject to the approval of the National Assembly in a civilian government or approval of the supreme military council in a military government. At the ministry of education there are seasoned educational administrators and civil servants who work directly or indirectly with the minister in various capacities. The ministry comprises eight different departments and several agencies. The departments are:

1. Personnel
11. Finance
111. Planning Research and Statistics

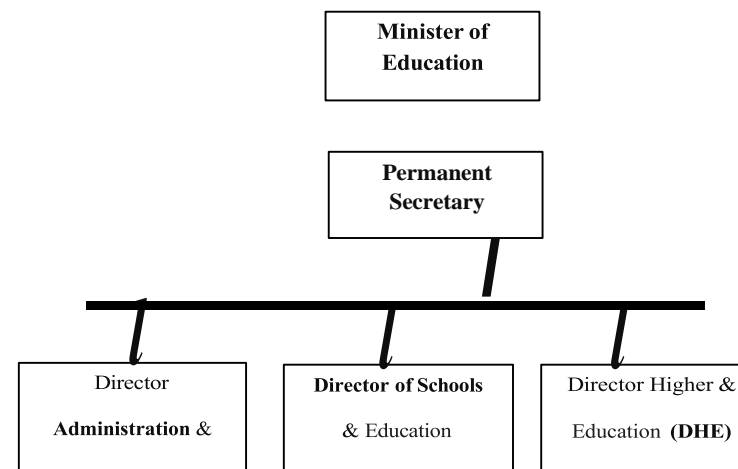
- IV. Primary and Secondary
- V. Post Secondary and Higher education
- VI. Technology and Science
- VII. Inspectorate
- VIII. Education Support Service

Some of the agencies under the supervision of the ministry of education are:

- I. The National Council of Education (NCE)
- II. The Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE)
- III. The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC)
- IV. The National Teachers Institution (NTI)
- V. Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB)
- VI. The National Universities Commission (NUC)
- VII. The National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)
- VIII. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE)

Organizational Structure of the Federal Ministry of Education

Below is the hierarchical structure/or organization chart of the federal ministry of education in Nigeria



Functions of the Federal Ministry of Education

The functions of the federal ministry of education are discussed below:

- i. **Formulation of National Policy on Education:** The federal government through the federal ministry of education lays down broad general education policies covering the various aspects of education in the country. These policies are handed over to various states ministries of education through the state government to implement. The federal ministry of education draws a

bench mark for some educational programmes at certain levels e. g. the minimum O level qualification(s) to be possessed by candidates before being admitted into the colleges of education, polytechnics and universities.

ii. Funding of Educational Institutions/ Agencies: The federal ministry of education solely finances all the educational institutions owned by the federal government (i.e. the federal unity schools popularly called federal government colleges, the federal colleges of education, federal polytechnics and federal universities). The federal ministry of education finances federal colleges of education through the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), also the ministry finances the federal polytechnics through the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and finances the federal universities through the National Universities Commission (NUC). The federal ministry of education also funds some special agencies and institutions under it such as Nigerian Education Research and Development Council (NERDC). The National Teachers Institute (NTI) the National Council on Education (NCE) etc.

iii. Provision of Statistical Data: Another major role of the federal ministry of education is the collection, collation and publication of students enrolment statistical data. This assists the government to make necessary budgetary allocation to schools, have first hand information about the total number of students in each school and all over the country. Educational information is disseminated throughout the country through newsletter, statistical digest, pamphlets, journals and periodicals. All educational plans are

based on the statistics provided by the federal ministry of education.

- iv. Quality Control:** The federal ministry of education formulates general guidelines and bench mark aimed at ensuring educational standards both at the state and federal levels. The guideline and benchmark set are complied with by both the states and federal government-owned institutions throughout the country.
- v. Development of Syllabuses/Curricular:** The federal ministry of education in conjunction with other relevant agencies/bodies develops uniform curricula and syllabuses for use by all educational institutions in Nigerian. The syllabuses/curricula developed are handed to state for implementation in the state-owned schools.
- vi. Provision of Consultancy Services:** In addition to all the above functions, the federal ministry of education also provides advisory and consultancy services to schools at the state levels and other interested organizations requiring educational information or advice

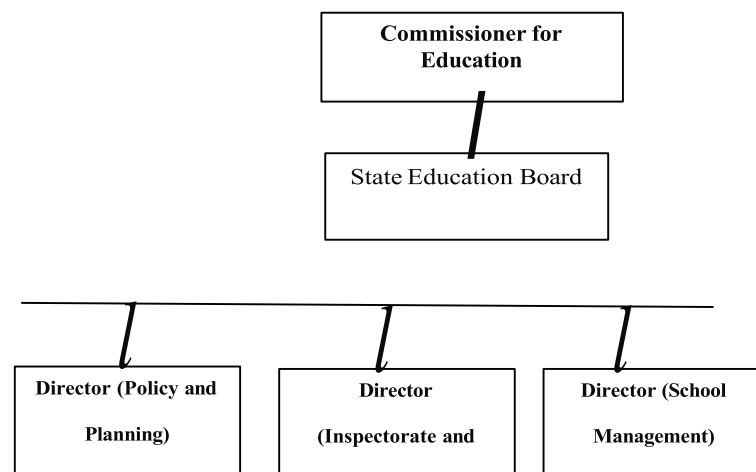
The State Ministries of Education

As at now, Nigeria is made up of 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory (AFbCuTja). All the states have their respective state ministries of education. This means that there are 36 states ministry of education in Nigeria, apart from the federal ministry of education. The state ministries of education are the organs of state government responsible for the administration, financing and controlling of the state government owned educational institutions both at the secondary school and higher institutional levels.

The state ministry of education is headed by a commissioner for education who is nominated by the Executive Governor subject to the ratification of the legislative arm of government at the state level (in Nigeria, it is called the House of Assembly). Apart from the commissioner for education, there are also seasoned educational administrations (Permanent Secretaries, Directors), and civil servants that work in his ministry of education who manage the affairs of various divisions, directorates, units and sections of the ministry. There are some statutory management agencies under the state ministry of education e.g. Secondary Schools Management Board (SSMB), the State Education Commission (SEC), and the Teaching Service Commission (TSC).

Organizational Structure of the State Ministry of Education

Below is the hierarchical structure/or organization chart of the state ministry of education in Nigeria



Functions of the State Ministry of Education

- i. **Implementation of Educational Policies:** The state governments through the state ministries of education implement national educational policies formulated by the federal government through federal ministry of education. State ministries formulate educational policies, based on the broad national policies on education set by the federal government through federal ministry of education.
- ii. **Funding of Educational Institutions/ Agencies:** The state ministry of education is the sole financier of all the educational institutions owned by the state. The ministry is responsible for recurrent and capital expenses on monthly, quarterly or yearly basis. Capital expenses are money expended on site acquisition, construction of school buildings, procurement of equipment and machinery. The state ministry of education also finances the statutory education agencies under the ministry. Some of the agencies are: Teaching Service Commission, State Education Commission, Secondary Management Board or Post Primary Schools Management Board.
- iii. **Coordination of Educational Activities:** The state ministries of education also coordinate educational activities within the states because of their leadership positions. They also ensure that different parts of the system and the people within it work harmoniously. The state ministry of education streamlines the structure of the state educational system to avoid multiple control, direction and management. In some

states, we have post primary school management board or the secondary education management board at zonal levels to monitor educational activities within the zone and report back to the parent body i.e. the state ministry of education

- iv. **Provision of Statistical Data:** This is another vital role of the state ministry of education. The ministry collects, collates and make available data on admission, enrolment, drop-out and other relevant data that will assist the state government in making adequate preparation on planning for smooth operation of educational system at the state level. Availability of correct data will enable the government to make adequate plan and vice versa
- v. **Regulations of Admission into Schools:** The States ministries of education provide regulation that guide the admission of students into the state-owned schools as well as student transfers and withdrawals
- vi. **Quality Control:** It is reasonable to argue that one of the most important functions of the state ministry of education is the maintenance of educational standards. The ministry inspects and supervise both the administrative and instruction components of the school and ensures that it meets the set standard
- vii. **Formulation of Educational Policies:** Based on the broad educational provision and practices within the context of the policies from the federal ministry of education, the state ministry of education formulates state education policies which are included in the state education laws and cover every aspect of educational provisions and practices at the state level.

- viii. **Recruitment and Payment of Teachers/Other Staff:** The statutory agencies in the state ministry of education e.g. Post-primary Education Board, Teaching Service Commission as the case may be, are responsible for the recruitment of teachers into the state-owned educational institution. The board also sees to the payment of teachers, and other staff salaries and allowances as at when due.

Hierarchy in Education management in Higher Institution

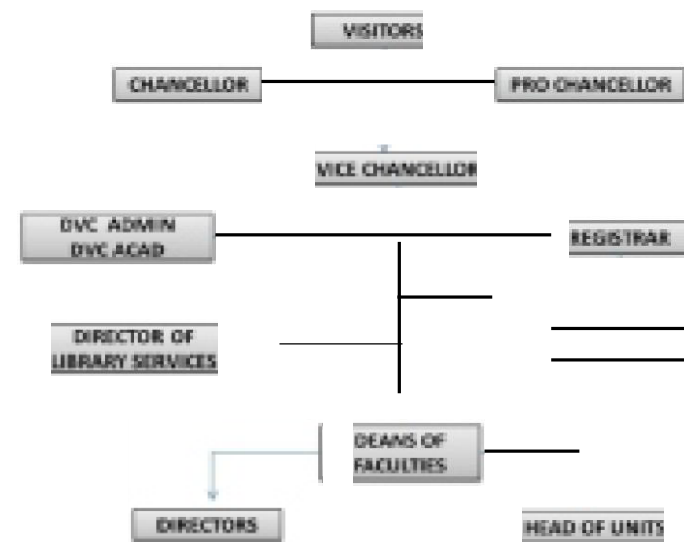
Depending on the country, higher education programmes in different institutions have management executives with unique titles that depict their positions/roles/office portfolios. Conway (2010) for instance, explained that the Chief executive, the administrative and educational head of a university, depending on tradition and location, may be termed the University president, the provost, the chancellor (as it is in the United States of America), the vice-chancellor (as it is in the United Kingdom and many Commonwealth countries), principal (Scotland and Canada), or rector (Europe, Russia, Asia and the Middle East).

In Nigeria, top university management executives include the Chancellor, Vice Chancellor (chief executive officer of the university); while in Colleges of Education and Polytechnics have Provosts and Rectors as their chief executive officers. These institutional leaders are answerable to the Governing Councils appointed by the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Moreover, an administrative executive in charge of a university department or of some schools may be termed a dean or some variation, such as dean emeritus or even provost (as the case may be). The chief executive of academic establishments other than universities, Colleges of Education and Polytechnics, may be termed principal, headmaster or head teacher (secondary/high/primary schools), and director (used to reflect various positions ranging from the head of an institution to the head of a programme). Academic administrations are structured in various ways at different institutions and in different countries saddled with different responsibilities (Okebukola, 2010).

Organizational Structure of University

The Organizational Structure of a university refers to the hierarchy through which delegation of responsibility is accomplished. This gives employees and students a sense of direction. The organizational structure consists of activities such as task allocation, coordination and supervision which are directed towards the achievement of organizational goals.(Gertrude, Ziwa, 2014). It can be also considered as the viewing glass of perspective through which individuals see their organization and environment.



(Source: Aitken, 2003)

In details, the typical hierarchies in Nigerian education management are as follows:

The Visitor: In the Nigerian University system, the Visitor in any Federal University is the President. In state universities, the Visitor is the Governor of that state, while in private universities, the Visitor is the founder of the university. The Visitor of any given university appoints the Chancellor, Pro-Chancellor, and some members of the Governing Council.

The Chancellor is the titular head of the University. He/She is an appointee of Government and is expected to

be a person of very high standing in the society, who can command the respect of both the University Community and the Government. He/She takes precedence over every other member of the University and presides over convocation for the award of degrees.

The Pro-Chancellor in relation to the University, by statute also takes precedence before all other members of the University, except the Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor when acting as Chairman of Congregation or Convocation. The Pro-Chancellor, when present, serves as Chairman at all meetings of the Council.

The Vice-Chancellor is the Chief Executive and Chief Academic Officer of the university. He/She is also the Chief Accounting Officer, the Chairman of Senate and, in relation to the University, takes precedence before all other members of the University except the Chancellor and the Pro-Chancellor, and any other person who for the time is acting as Chairman. He/She also serves as the Chairman of a congregation and an Ex-Officio member of Council. He provides leadership for the university and directs its affairs towards the actualization of its vision, mission and objectives.

The Vice-Chancellor is assisted in his/her functions by Deputy Vice-Chancellor(s), where applicable, and by other Principal Officers.

The Registrar is the Chief Administrative Officer of the University and He/She is responsible to the Vice-Chancellor for the day-to-day administrative work of the University except as regards matters for which the Bursar is responsible. He/She also serves as the Chief Scribe to the

University and as the Secretary to Council, Senate, Congregation and Convocation. By implication, the Registrar has Deputies from Administrative Assistants to Deputy Registrars. Depending on the university, the department within the office of The Registrar may include;

- Academic Affairs
- Exam and Records
- Establishment & Training Unit
- Filling Positions
- Appointments
- Promotions
- Non-Teaching Staff
- Discipline
- Welfare
- Staff Records

The Bursar is the Chief Financial Officer of the university and is responsible for the day-to-day administration and control of the financial affairs of the university.

The University Librarian is responsible to the Vice Chancellor for the administration of the University Library and the coordination of the library services in the University.

The Provost: Any university that has a College within usually makes provision for the Provost, the College Board, the Academic Board, the Academic Staff Assembly within the College.

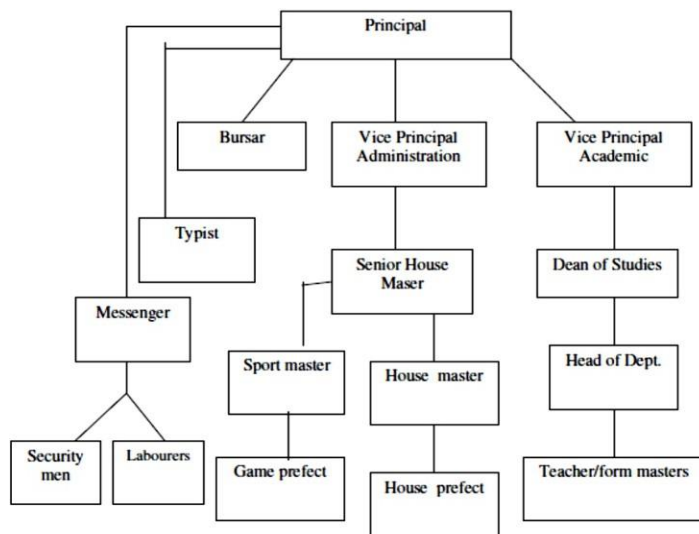
The Deans of Faculties are provided by law as being in charge of the Faculties. Where there is no Professor, the office is held in rotation by members of the Faculty holding

the rank of Reader or Senior Lecturer on the basis of seniority, or as determined by Senate. Provisions are made in the Act on how each of the foregoing officers shall be appointed.

The Heads of Departments/Units are in charge of the branches of the faculties. This means for every department within a faculty, there is a HOD who oversee the affairs of a department and report directly to The Deans of Faculty

Course Advisor is in charge of a particular level/year within a department. He/She is responsible to the Heads of Department in matters related to the students.

Organizational Structure in Secondary School



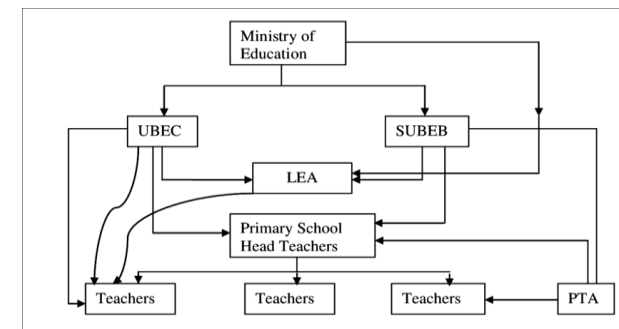
(Source: Aitken, 2003)

The above organogram shows that the principal is the board's chief executive in relation to the school control and management, and has complete discretion in day to day administration. In this capacity, the principal takes care of both the administrative and academic functions of the school, followed by other positions in the organizational structure, Aitken (2003).

He further stated that there are usually two vice principals, vice principal academic and vice principal administration. On the administrative ladder, a senior house master is below the vice principal, next are the house masters, the game master, game prefect and house prefect.

On the academic ladder, Dean of studies is the next to the vice principal followed by the heads of department, below are the teachers, most of them are also form masters and the least are class prefects. An organizational set up such as this provides a crucial base for delegation and decision in schools. Finally, bursar officially manages finance of the school, typist does all the secretarial works in the school, and others are messengers, security and laborers.

Primary School Management structure



CHAPTER FOUR

STRATEGIES IN EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

What Is Strategy

There are many different ways to define strategy, but it is still closely linked to planning and planning models. When it appeared in educational management literature in the 1990s, the word was not clearly defined and appeared to be a general reference to the long term, according to Fidler (1996) Every management activity now has the word "strategy" attached to it, giving it a false sense of importance. Devaluing and misrepresenting the concept is harmful to both theory and practice, as it diminishes its value. This also raises questions about the definition of strategy.

The word strategy, according to Tsiakkios and Pashiaridis (2002) is originated from the Greek word *strategos*, which means "*a general and the leader of the army*". As a result, strategy and strategy development are often assigned to a single person in an organization. For example, Johnson and Scholes in 2003 defined a strategic leader as: an individual upon whom strategy development and change are seen to be dependent. They are individuals personally identified with and central to the strategy of their organization: their personality or reputation may result in others willingly deferring to such an individual and seeing strategy development as his or her province.

In a simple term, strategy is a carefully developed plan or method for achieving a goal. Strategy can also be defined as a general plan or set of plans intended to achieve something, especially over a long period.

LEADERSHIP OR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Leadership strategy is the strategy and attitude to directing, planning, and motivating people that is called leadership strategy. William Shakespeare's remark, "Some are born great; some earn greatness; and others have greatness thrust upon them," can be used as a classic description of leadership strategies.

It's been a few decades since management experts' definition of leadership and approach to it underwent a major shift in the way they think about it. There was a time when they were really dictatorial, but now they have a much more collaborative and creative attitude. During this time, it was understood that old things aren't always bad, and new things aren't necessarily good. Rather, a variety of leadership strategies were required depending on the occasion, and each leader had to know when to demonstrate a certain approach. All leaders have not had the same attitude or outlook. Nothing is done in the same way by them in terms of strategy or execution. The leader's strategy changes depending on the personalities of the people he or she is dealing with. A leader's ideal leadership strategy is one that helps him or her get the best out of his or her subordinates:

At least 30% of a company's bottom line profitability may be attributed to a manager's leadership strategy, according to the report. It's difficult to deny how much is impacted by a manager's leadership strategy. Simply encouraging executives to be more dynamic with their leadership strategies can bring merely one percent to bottom line profitability compared to the amount of money and effort **from investments in establishing new processes, improving efficiency and using other cost-cutting strategies.**

While doing study in 1939, a psychologist by the name of Kurt Lewin and others identified distinct leadership strategies. The study done by Lewin was noteworthy, and three primary strategies of leadership were defined, although additional research recognizing some more precise sorts of leadership strategies. The authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire leadership strategies were tested on groups of schoolchildren in Lewin's research. Afterwards, researchers studied the children's reactions to different leadership strategies during an arts and crafts session. There are three basic forms of management strategies according to Kurt Lewin's research, these are authoritarian leadership strategy, participative leadership strategy and laissez-faire leadership strategy.

1. Authoritarian (Autocratic) Leadership Strategy

As a rule of thumb, this is regarded as the most traditional method. In this system, the manager holds the most power and authority feasible. The boss and subordinates appear to have a distinct divide. As a result of this type of leadership, the leader has complete control over his subordinates. Employees aren't given the opportunity to voice their opinions since the boss doesn't think it's necessary to discuss with them. Employees are obligated to follow orders without query or explanation, and they are not entitled to any. In the case of autocratic leaders, they provide a clear image of what they want from their subordinates, and how they expect it to be done. Even if their suggestions are the most beneficial to the group, employees are unable to voice their opinions. When it comes to getting things done, they have no say in how the leader does it.

In this type of leadership, the leader is the only one who can make decisions for the entire group, and he keeps all of the decisions he makes to himself until he deems it is time to share them with the rest of the group. Studies show that judgments made under authoritarian leadership are less inventive. The motivated environment is established by creating a systematic set of rewards and punishments. The supporters of authoritarian leaders are not allowed to debate with him, and they are not even allowed to ask for respect. When subordinates dissent, dispute, or simply question what they've been instructed to do, these leaders resort to punishment and force.

With extremely little time for collective decision-making, autocratic leadership works best in situations when the leader has a lot of information or expertise to share. For example, if the activity at hand is boring, unskilled, and routine in nature or if the duty has a short duration but is extremely risky, this leadership strategy may be appropriate.

Autocratic leadership is advantageous because it facilitates rapid decision-making and increased productivity under the direct supervision of the leader. This type of leadership has a number of drawbacks, including a greater rate of absenteeism and turnover. Teamwork advantages are also being lost since the team's output is not enriched by the collective wisdom, creativity, and experience of all of its members.

Transfers from autocracy to democracy are more difficult than transitions from democracy to autocracy.

Characteristics of Authoritarian Leadership Strategy

In an authoritarian leadership strategy, the following traits can be found:

- The leader makes his or her own decisions without consulting anybody else.
- Followers rely on the leader to an extreme degree.
- Having an authoritarian boss demotivates and alienates employees.
- In order to influence their workers, managers use threats and punishment.
- Employees are typically distrusted by their bosses.
- Employees are not allowed to provide any feedback.

However, there are certain benefits to being led by an autocrat. It's the best approach to use in certain scenarios because of its value and effectiveness. Included in this are the following terms and conditions:

- Quick and immediate action is required.
- Inexperienced workers that are unsure on how to do their duties or follow standard operating procedures
- The neighborhood was mismanaged and in need of improvement.
- Detailed directions and instructions are the sole means of providing effective supervision.
- On a daily basis, there are high-volume production requirements.
- The manager's power has been challenged by any

employee.

- It is necessary to coordinate your efforts with those of another department or company.

It is up to each person to decide how best to use their own resources in order to achieve the team's goals. While this technique works well when a team needs a new perspective because the circumstance has changed, it does not function well when the leader is working with an expert team.

2. Participative (Democratic) Leadership Strategy

The term "participative strategy" refers to this leadership strategy since it invites employees to participate in the decision-making process. When it comes to making decisions, the leader has the last say, yet participative leaders ask and encourage the group members to be involved. By keeping his subordinates well-informed about everything that might affect their job, a democratic leader empowers his employees to make their own decisions. While the boss sets the agenda, the team members are free to provide comments and opinion as they see fit. This method needs the leader to be a coach who provides the ultimate judgement, but seeks the opinions of his or her employees before making a final choice. Workers are more satisfied with their jobs when they are involved in all aspects of the company's operations. To encourage employees and team members, more than simply monetary incentives, the company must provide them a sense of control over their lives.

Participation is a time-consuming process, but it typically yields greater outcomes than an authoritarian approach. It's

best suited to situations in which teamwork and quality take precedence over strict adherence to deadlines.

This management strategy instills a sense of collective ownership in the organization's goals and objectives among its workers. How can you make someone creative, work in a team and solve hard problems? It's impossible to do so without a lot of effort. There is a lot of room for creativity in this type of leadership.

According to Lewin's findings, the most effective leadership strategy is one that encourages team participation rather than command and control. However, he retains the final authority to make all the final decisions for the group. Members of the team are more engaged in the process and more open to new ideas as a result. The benefits of this type of leadership are that it results in happier, more motivated, and better-trained workers. When the leader has to draw on the collective wisdom of the group, this method is ideal. The sole drawback of this leadership strategy is that it takes a long time to make decisions, which may be devastating during times of crisis.

Long-term, high-quality, high-quantity work may be generated under the direction of participatory leadership. They respond to their leader's trust and confidence with collaboration, team spirit, and a high level of morale.

Characteristics of Democratic Leadership Strategy

Some characteristics of democratic (participative) leadership include the following:

- Before making a decision, team members confer with each

other.

- To be persuasive, you must make decisions and then seek support from others for your choices.
- It might aid in the processes of conception, invention, inspiration, and participation.
- Employees have a sense of pride in the company and its mission.
- Planning for employees to evaluate their own performance might be aided by this method.
- As a result, people report feeling more content in their work roles.
- Accomplishment is praised and rewarded.

The democratic leadership strategy is most effective to use when:

- A leader's job is to keep his or her team up to date on matters that might have an impact on them.
- It is the goal of the leader to include his or her staff in decision-making and problem-solving processes in the company.
- It is the leader's goal to provide his or her workers the tools they need to advance professionally while also enjoying their work.
- There is a vast or complex issue that needs a great amount of input in order to resolve.
- The leader's goal is to foster a sense of camaraderie and belonging among the members of the group.

Like the other strategies, the democratic strategy is not always appropriate. This leadership strategy should not be used when:

- When there isn't enough time to obtain everyone's opinion, this leadership strategy should be avoided since it delays decision-making.
- The leader can make the choice more quickly and cheaply.
- The business cannot afford mistakes.
Participation is a key component of democratic leadership, which aims to generate agreement. When there is a need to undertake operational changes or settle individual or group difficulties, the democratic leadership strategy is most effective. For example, if time is of the importance or group members aren't knowledgeable enough to give proper assistance, this isn't the greatest option.

3. Laissez-Faire (Delegative) Leadership strategy

Laissez-faire, or "let them do their own thing," is a French expression that refers to a boss who allows his or her subordinates to get on with their business. **The 'hands-off strategy** of leadership is also known as **laissez-faire**. As much freedom as possible is given to subordinates under this type of leadership. The group's concerns are ignored by the group's leaders. It's more like a person in a leadership position who doesn't actually lead the group, but instead leaves them to their own devices. Subordinates are given the freedom to make their own decisions and implement their own techniques. Creativity and ingenuity are fostered in them. The members of the group are in charge of determining objectives, making choices, and solving problems on their own. If the leader keeps an eye on the team's progress and conveys it back to them, it can be beneficial.

Accordingly, while its effectiveness in some settings, delegative strategy may also apply to situations where leaders do not exert enough control, which frequently results in insufficiently defined responsibilities and a lack of motivation for the team members on the one hand. Findings from Lewin's research show that youngsters under delegative leadership are the least productive. Additionally, the youngsters in this group were more demanding of the leader, lacked teamwork, and were unable to complete tasks on their own.

Characteristics of Delegative leadership strategy

Delegative leadership has a number of characteristics, these are:

- 'Let it be' the leadership responsibilities are shared by all
- This leadership strategy can be more effective in situations where creative ideas are more important.
- This leadership strategy can be extremely motivational, as individuals have their own control over professional life.

This strategy relies on good teamwork and good interpersonal relations; the delegative management strategy is an effective strategy to use when:

- Employees are highly skilled, trustworthy, experienced, and educated.
- Employees feel proud in doing their work and motivated on their own to do it successfully.
- Experts from outside the team, such as staff specialists

or consultants are being used.

There are circumstances when the delegative strategy is not suitable to be used. This strategy should not be used when:

- In emergency as it can make coordination and decision-making time consuming
- It makes employees feel insecure at the unavailability of a manager and lacking in overall direction,
- The leader is unable to provide regular feedback to the group members to let them recognize how well they are doing.
- The leader doesn't realize his responsibilities and hopes that the group members can cover up for him.

This type of leadership relies only on the ability of the personnel to carry out the task at hand. Aside from the management components of his profession, he exclusively concentrates on the intellectual and logical aspects of his work. For the benefit of the company, employees are encouraged, and even requested, to contribute their thoughts and ideas.

SOME OTHER LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES

Many more forms of leadership exist in addition to the ones listed above. Some of the many ways in which a leader's unique leadership strategy might be described are highlighted. These can be used to fulfill the aims and objectives of an organization.

- 1. Bureaucratic leadership:** When a leader operates 'by the book,' he or she employs bureaucratic leadership, which ensures that all of the organization's regulations and procedures are followed to the letter. Employees are rewarded for adhering to the company's policies and procedures. Working with heavy machinery or poisonous substances, or managing big quantities of cash, necessitates this type of leadership strategy, as does the need for excellent products and services. This type of leadership, on the other hand, hinders innovation and deprives individuals of a sense of accomplishment. It is possible for employees to get discouraged and demoralized by the rigidity of the organization and the high levels of control that are exercised.
- 2. Transformational leadership:** The transformational leader is a true leader who inspires his colleagues with a shared vision of the future. As a result, they are very visible and spend a lot of time interacting with their followers. They don't always lead from the front, since they tend to delegate responsibility to others. In this type of leadership, people and organizations are able to help in various degrees of change and are supported by fundamental values, an integrated purpose, and a dynamic environment.
- 3. Charismatic Leadership:** The difference between a transformational leader and a charismatic leader is that a transformational leader develops passion in his team, whereas a charismatic leader may have a propensity to believe more in himself than in his team. A whole project or perhaps an entire organization might fail to

achieve success if the leader is forced to step down because his or her presence is viewed as a prerequisite for success by his or her coworkers. To put it another way, charismatic leadership is extremely demanding and requires a long-term commitment on the part of the leader to succeed.

4. **Task-Oriented Leadership:** When a leader focuses solely on completing things that must be done in order to meet a certain production target, they can be highly autocratic. This type of leader is more concerned with a progressive solution to an issue, making sure that deadlines are fulfilled and achievements are achieved, and achieving the desired goals. Structures are put in place, plans are drawn up, and implementation and monitoring are carried out. Aside from the fact that task-oriented leaders don't pay much attention to the welfare and benefits of their coworkers, this strategy of leadership can suffer from many of the flaws of an authoritarian leadership strategy.
5. **People-Oriented Leadership or Relations-Oriented Leadership:** The task-oriented leadership strategy has a counterpart in the relational leadership strategy. Those leaders that adopt this strategy of leadership are only concerned with the well-being, growth, and development of their employees. This type of leader pays attention to the group's interactions, has faith in their team members, and expresses gratitude for their efforts. This emphasis on team development and interrelationships is emphasized by relationship-oriented leaders. An enhanced and more creative teamwork can be expected as a result. However, if it is

employed in excess, the team will fail to meet its objectives. Most effective leaders use a blend of task- and relationship-oriented leadership approaches.

6. **Corrective leadership:** It empowers workers to aid in partnerships and synergy, and instead of accepting the domination of authoritarianism, it focuses on working with and through other people. Inquiry with a positive outlook can lead to positive transformation in human beings.
7. **Pedagogical leadership:** When it comes to teaching and learning, this technique shifts the focus from the leader or the instructor to an interactive, dynamic, and connected system. An alternative to instructional leadership is to facilitate the learning and growth of group members or followers or those who are being led.

Factors Influencing Leadership Strategy

When it comes to leadership, there is no one-size-fits-all approach. Included in the list of factors that determine the strategy are:

1. The leader's personal background: the leader's personality, expertise, ideals, ethics, and experiences are all included in this definition. As a result of this, he is able to make the best possible judgments in a given situation.
2. The employees who are being supervised Personality, expertise and skill levels are only some of the ways in which employees differ from one another. The manager's leadership strategy will vary depending on the employee's specific characteristics and what he

responds best to.

3. The type of work being done determines the type of leadership strategy to be used by the leader.
4. Leadership strategy is influenced by the nature of the organization's environment, such as whether it is stable or rapidly changing, conservative or adventurous.
5. A manager's actions are also influenced by the company's values, traditions, philosophy, and concerns.
6. Is there enough time to complete a specific task?
7. When it comes to leadership, is it based on respect or admiration?
8. Who has access to information about the task that has to be done, the leader or the subordinates?
9. How well-trained are the personnel and how well-versed in the task is the boss?
10. Strategy of leadership is also influenced by internal disputes and stress levels in the workplace.

Determining the Best Leadership Strategy

Study after study was done to determine which leadership *strategy* should a leader adopt, whether it was task-oriented or relationship-oriented, in the middle of the twentieth century by management theorists from Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. An important finding of these research is that every leader has a certain dominant leadership *strategy* that they employ under various conditions. This makes the studies all the more important. According to the findings of the research, there is no one optimum leadership *strategy*. Leaders must adapt their approach to the situation and the people they are leading. Control and one's point of view on how much control should be provided to employees are two aspects of this

issue. Somewhere in between the delegative and autocratic *strategies* of leadership, the participatory *strategy* is found.

In spite of its popularity, there is no one-size-fits-all method of leading. The best leaders are able to move between several leadership *strategies* depending on the people and tasks they are working with. 'Situational leadership' is the most used term for it.

Gender differences in leadership *strategy* have been documented in studies, and it's clear that men and women have distinct approaches. A more democratic and interactive approach is preferred by women, whereas males prefer a more directive and dictatorial *strategy*.

Positive and Negative Approaches

Different managers adopt a variety of methods to communicate with their subordinates. Positive leaders use rewards to motivate and encourage employees. Negative leaders, on the other hand, use sanctions or punishment to drive and inspire their workers. Despite their importance, negative methods to leadership must be employed with caution owing to the great impact they have on people.

Leaders that take a hostile stance toward others are seen as dictators or superiors. In their view, the only way to get things done is to penalize employees, such as firing them, reducing their pay, humiliating them in front of others, etc. Fear and intimidation are viewed as a way to raise one's level of power and productivity, yet this technique frequently results in a loss in morale and a decrease in production if employed incorrectly.

Most leaders don't just utilize one strategy or another, but

fall somewhere along the spectrum from excessively positive to extremely negative. This is vital to keep in mind. Leaders who are continually negative are believed to be bosses, while those who are more upbeat are thought to be true leaders.

CHAPTER FIVE

POLICY MAKING, EDUCATION LAWS, PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

This chapter brings into limelight the policy making, education laws, planning and implementation strategies that can be used in education management and administration.

Educational policy

Before going on to explain what an educational policy is. Let us look at what policy itself means. A policy is a guiding principle. It is the basis of day-to-day administration and serves as a guide to administration when deciding the lines along which the system should be conducted. Policy is a framework which guides the planning and administration of an activity; hence we have educational policy. On the other hand, however, Education policy consists of the principles and government policies in the educational sphere as well as the collection of laws and rules that govern the operation of education systems.

Education occurs in many forms for many purposes through many institutions. Examples include early childhood education, kindergarten through to 12th grade, two and four-year colleges or universities, graduate and professional education, adult education and job training. Therefore, education policy can directly affect the education people engage in at all ages. Examples of areas subject to debate in education policy, specifically from the field of schools, include school size, class size, school choice, school privatization, tracking, teacher selection, education and

certification, teacher pay, teaching methods, curricular content, graduation requirements, school infrastructure investment, and the values that schools are expected to uphold and model. Issues in education policy also address problems within higher education.

Types of Educational Policy

There are two major types of educational policy written and unwritten forms.

1. Written educational policy is written in form. Written educational policies are codified e.g. National Policy on Education in Nigeria.
2. Unwritten educational policies cannot be traced in a single book or document. They are contained in different files rules, regulations, norms and traditions edicts and acts of parliament for example British educational policy

The features of educational policy are:

1. An educational policy is a body of rules, regulations and guidelines which guide the operation of the education system in geographical region, usually a country.
2. It is man-made.
3. It is normative.
4. It is persuasive and not coercive
5. It has a territorial limitation
6. It is dynamic

The functions of educational policies are:

1. Maintenance of order

2. Promotion of justice
3. Assurance of individual freedom, liberty and development in the education system
4. Legal status to education

What is policy making?

Policy making is the process by which the government or enterprise develops or formulates and implements an effective strategy to meet desired objectives. Strategy in this context is the unified comprehensive plan that is developed to reach these objectives.

In other words, policy making is concerned with designing set of decisions for guiding future decisions. Policy making involves who does it (the actors) and how (the process).

Educational Policy Making Process

Policy making process is how decisions are designed to guide future decisions and implementation. This involves the process by taking the decisions. Education policy making process is how decisions are designed to guide future decisions for implementation in the educational system. This improves education.

Furthermore, the educational policy making process is a cycle that is made up of seven recurring activities. These activities according to Haddad (1994) include policy formulation, evaluation, adoption, application, assessment, adjustment and analysis. The policy process starts with formulation usually done in two phases. The first phase has to do with the analysis of existing situation while the second phase is concerned with the generation of policy options. The evaluation of the policy options follows from the

generation of various options. After evaluating the policy options, what follows is the adoption of the most efficient options(s) as a policy decision. The next stage is the application of the policy option that has been adopted. Policy impact assessment comes next. There will be an adjustment that will start the policy cycle all over again if there is any gap or unsatisfactoriness in the policy impact assessment.

Stages in Educational Policy Making Process

Haddad and Demsky (1998) summarized the stages in education policy making process as follows:

1. Identification of problems
2. Analysis of the identified problem(s)
3. Generation of options or alternatives choices
4. Policy formulation
5. Planning policy formulation
6. Policy implementation
7. Policy evaluation

Factors Influencing Educational Policy Making Process

Educational policy making process is influenced by the following factors:

1. Structure of the society
2. Decision environment
3. Number of alternatives
4. Method of taking decision

Education Laws

Introduction

For any organization or institution (educational or otherwise) to be established, managed and perform effectively, there must be guiding principles in form of rules and regulations guiding the activities of such an organization or institution. These rules and regulations may be in form of taboos/customs/traditions, depending on the practices of the community where the institution is situated. It may also be in form of constitutional laws made by relevant government agencies. If there is no law, there will be no need to prosecute offender(s). The essence of promulgating laws for educational institutions is to guide the activities of the operators in the system to ensure that, it all falls within the framework of the whole community

Management of educational institution is a complex task for administrations because the industry (education) is the largest employer of labour in Nigeria as well as in other parts of the world and all other sectors depends on education industry for survival. As a result of these, it is imperative to have some set rules and regulations guiding the operations of the industry and the operators.

What is Law?

Law can either be written or unwritten rules laid down by government of a state or country. It is written when those rules and regulations guiding the conducts and operations of a society are written down and people recognize that, it is binding on them and sanctions could be imposed by appropriate authority if such rules and regulations are

violated. But when the rules and regulation guiding the operations of a society are not written down and the people also recognize that it is binding on them with appropriate sanctioning if violated, it is unwritten law.

What is Education law?

Education law deals with laws and regulations that govern federal and state schools, school boards and school systems, as well as protecting students' rights.

Evolution of Education Laws in Nigeria

The history of education laws in Nigeria could be traced to 1882 when the first educational ordinance was enacted. The 1882 education ordinance was the first education official law made by the colonial masters in Nigeria. The ordinance makes the following provisions:

1. Establishment of a general board of education for Lagos colony made up of the governor as the chairman and members of the state executive council as members and other four nominees by the government,
2. that the general education is empowered to hire and fire local education boards which were meant only to advise the general education board on the needs and areas where new schools are to be established, conditions for granting certificate to teachers and set condition for schools to be qualified for government grant-in aids,
3. that there shall be one inspector of schools for West African colonies and three assistant inspectors to be based in; Lagos, Sierra Leone and Gold Coast,
4. that there shall be both the government, missionary and community primary schools, and

5. That the school curriculum should include subjects like Reading, Writing, Arithmetic Domestic Science, English Language, History and Geography.

Education Ordinance of 1887

Up to 1886, Lagos colony was administered by the same colonial authority that governed the Gold Coast colony. But from 1886, Lagos and Gold Coast colonies were separated; Lagos now became a separate colony and a protectorate. This led to the attention given to the problems and prospects of educational development in Nigeria. It was this event that led to enactment of the second education ordinance in 1887. Fafunwa (1974) opined that, this was technically the first education ordinance to be enacted for Nigeria; the 1882 education ordinance was for the British West African colonies in which Lagos was one.

The 1887 ordinance provided that:

1. A board of education be established for Lagos colony comprising the Governor as the chairman, members of house of legislature and other four Governor nominee,
2. the board established shall assist school with grants and scholarship awards to pupils, and
3. the board shall establish conditions for granting scholarship to pupils. Among the conditions set were that:
 - a. schools must have a manager with power to hire and fire, teachers and also be accountable to schools on financial matters,
 - b. teachers must be qualified and certified,
 - c. schools' academic performance in public examination must be good

- d. schools must be open for inspection,
- e. school must be for all children irrespective of their religion or ethnic background and no religious education must be given to students without the parent background, and
- f. school curriculum must include: Reading, Writing Arithmetic, English, Needlework, History and Geography.

Education Ordinance of 1908

In Nigeria, the Northern protectorate was established in 1899 and in 1906 the colonies of Lagos and Southern Nigeria were merged. But prior to this merger, in 1908, the Department of Education was created for the new Southern protectorate of Nigeria. This department was responsible for production of education codes to oversee the education need, expansion and management of education in the Southern protectorate. The 1908 education ordinance focused on the Southern protectorate and also provided the following;

- 1. that there shall be a department of education in the colony,
- 11. that there shall be a director of education to head the department of education who would be responsible to the governor on education matters only, and that there shall also be superintendents of schools.

The establishment of a separate department for education for Southern protectorate was major development in the history of Nigerian education because prior to this time, education had been administered from the Governor's office when need be. No specific department was

designated to oversee the activities in the education department then. The establishment of the department of education changed the scenario. Training was organized for some officers who were given responsibility to plan, coordinate, and control and supervise the educational development in the merged Lagos colony and Southern protectorate and the head gave account of the stewardship in the ministry to the governor. This resulted in greater efficiency and accountability in the management of education.

The 1916 Education Ordinance

This 1916 education Ordinance is the watershed for entire body of Education ordinances from 1882 up to the year in question. Objectives of 1916 education Ordinance as stated by Durosaro (1998) are;

- 1. Formation of character and habits of discipline
- 2. Cooperation between the Government and the missionaries
- 3. Recognition of rural as well as urban Education
- 4. Increase production of educated workforce to meet the increasing demand for clerks
- 5. A measure of Government control over all schools including non-assisted schools.

The Provisions of 1916 Education Ordinance as stated by Martins (2005) are as follow;

1. Increase in financial aids for running mission schools and frequent inspections of the schools.
11. Christian religion should not be taught in schools located in Muslim communities in the Northern part of the country.
111. The schools situated in rural areas should teach Agriculture and local crafts.
- 1iv. There should be differentiation between Rural and Urban Education.
- v. There should be non-interference among the various agencies involved in education and cooperation should be among them.

However, the major achievements of this great Education Ordinance include the following;

1. Its coverage of the whole country.
2. Increased financial participation between the Government and the Missions.
3. A measure of government control over education as a whole.
4. Stipulation of age limit of pupils in the infant and element classes.
5. Right to impact and obtain information from Non-assisted Schools (NSS) in the Southern province.
6. Religious instruction becomes an examinable subject.

The 1926 Education Ordinance

The 1926 Education Ordinance was passed to check the haphazard development of Education. It was an outcome of the recommendations of Phelps-stoke commission on education in Africa. Recommendations of the commission include;

- (i) Adaptation of Formal Education to local conditions.
- (ii) Study of vernacular in schools.
- (iii) Thorough supervision and inspection of schools.
- (iv) Education of women and girls.
- (v) Emphasis on religious training and moral instructions.

These upper-listed recommendations necessitate the objectives of 1926 Education Ordinance to include the following;

1. Investigation into existing educational work in each of the areas to be studied
2. To investigate the educational needs of the people in their religious, social, hygienic and economic conditions.
3. To ascertain the extent to which these educational needs were being met
4. To make available in full the result of the study.

The provision of 1926 Education Ordinance as stated by Martins (2005) includes the following;

1. Making registration of teacher a pre-condition for teaching in any school in southern Nigeria
11. Disallowing the opening of schools without the approval of the Director of Education and the Board of Education
111. Authorizing the closure of any school, which was conducted in a way that was in conflict with interest of the people or the host community
- 1v. Specifying the functions and duties of Supervisors or mission school inspectors
- v. Expanding and strengthening the existing board of education by including the Director and the Deputy Director of education, The Assistant Director, ten representatives of the mission and other educational agencies.
- vi. Regulating the minimum pay for teachers who were employed in assisted schools.

The 1948 Education Ordinance

Durosaro (1998) and Martin (2005) support the fact that a director of education was appointed in 1944 to review the ten years plan and design the procedures for assessing grants-in-aid for Schools. This necessitates the provisions of 1948 Education Ordinance to include the following as listed by Durosaro (1998);

- (i) Decentralization of educational administration.
- (ii) Creation of a central board of education and 3-regional Boards for the North, West and East.
- (iii) Establishment of Local Education Committees (LEC) and Local Education Authorities (LEAs)

The 1952 Education Ordinance

Martins (2005), states that 1952 education ordinance enables the West, East and North Regions develop their educational policies and systems. Thus, the Achievements of 1952 Education Ordinance include the following as stated by Durosaro (1998);

1. The modification of membership of the central and the Regional Boards of Education
2. Colonial Board was abolished
3. Inspections of Schools by the Regional Director and the inspector general.
4. Spelt out the overall duties of the Central Government.

Curriculum Development during Colonial Ordinances (1916-1952)

According to Musa (2015), Colonial Ordinances that spurred the period 1916-1952 were basically meant to protect and promote the interests of Colonial Administration. This is even though many Schools were still under the control of the missionaries. The curriculum contents of the Ordinances indicated the willingness to open up educational provision through the setting up of

public and private schools as well as controlling the missionary schools. It is noteworthy that the learners were tutored to master the 3Rs (Reading, writing and Arithmetic). The missionary content focused as well on learning the Testament in the local Languages. The essence of Education was to produce Clerks and local pupils' teachers who were to advance the interests of the Colonial Administration. In fact, the missionaries in the private schools went further to impart some Socio-Economic skills such as dying, weaving, and knitting. Also, the Missions assisted the new converts with improved seedlings for better crops and citrus fruits. By and large, Colonial Administration provided avenues for control of Education through the Education Ordinances.

The Regional Education Laws

The three major Nigeria regions; Western, Eastern and the Northern regions developed several educational laws in character with their catchment areas. The common filament that characterized the laws was the need for more access to education through the establishment of new schools coupled with effective supervision.

The Western Regional Education law of 1955

After winning the first election to the western house of assembly in 1952, Chief Obafemi Awolowo placed premium on the introduction of a free, universal and compulsory primary education for the western region. The scheme was launched on January 17, 1955 and the law was made to control the programs. According to Martins (2005), the law provides for;

- (1) The massive teacher training
- (2) Expansion of teacher training facilities
- (3) Introduction of Secondary, Modern Schools and Technical Education
- (4) Ensuring that the Curriculum was adapted to the daily life of the people.
- (5) The establishment of schools

The Eastern Regional Education law of 1956

According to Martins (2005) and Durosaro (1998), this is the law acquiesce to by Governor sir John Clement with the major objective of providing universal education in the Eastern Region. However, the Provisions of this law according to Durosaro (1998) include the following;

- a) No new school shall be described as a College until it is devoted exclusively to Post Secondary Education,
- b) It empowers Minister to make regulations that no racial as religious qualification shall disqualify any child from schooling in the Region.
- c) It gives procedure and regulations for the establishment of new institutions and empowers Minister to withhold approval of opening or closing schools.
- d) It empowers the Governor- in-Council to make regulations for the appointments, duties, and grant-in-aids to local Education Authorities and its committees
- e) It empowers inspectors to inspect schools at any reasonable time.

- f) It makes provision for the registration and discipline of teachers through the Teacher Disciplinary Council (TDC).
- g) Section 50 of the Eastern regional education law of 1956 empowers the council to make enquiries into allegations of misconduct against teachers, advise the minister on suspension of erring teachers and give room for appeal to high court for the teachers concerned.
- h) It empowers the minister to regulate the curriculum of teacher training institution, examination, registration, salary scale, allowances, conditions of service and classification of teachers' certificates.

Education laws of Northern Nigeria 1964

The major objective of this law is to make provision for the Northern Regions Education. To Durosaro (1998), provisions of the law include;

1. Making arrangements for Primary, Secondary, Special Education for handicapped and Teacher Training Institutions
2. Establishment of Board of Education and its duties
3. Appointment of Minister, Chairman and secretary to the Board of Education, the statement of their duties and indication of their tenure in the office
4. The establishment of government institutions and guidelines for proprietors on private Schools

5. It empowers Minister for Education to withhold Consent to establishment, inspection, registration, opening and closing of institutions if not found relevant to the needs of the pupils.
6. Establishment of Education Authorities and empower them to establish Education Committees as well as transfer of Primary Schools to Education Authorities
7. Provision of Curriculum of the institutions to include religious instruction based on the choice of parents.
8. The appointment, registration, suspension, promotion and sanction of teachers
9. Disallows the proprietor of a secondary school or College from discontinuing without given the Minister two years notice.
10. Bars Educationists from political positions like state and national Houses of Assemblies

Curricula during Regional Laws (1952-1966)

This is a period in which the Colonial Board was abolished and the regional Governments took over under the supervision of a central Government. Aim of the Regional Governments was to provide Universal Primary Education (UPE) for the Citizens. It started with Chief Obafemi Awolowo of the Western Region in 1955, later by Eastern Regional Government in 1956, Lagos Colony in 1957 and finally by Northern Region in 1964. The curricula include;

- 1) Primary school curriculum

- 2) Modern school curriculum
- 3) Technical education curriculum
- 4) Teacher training curriculum and
- 5) Special education curriculum.

Therefore, these curricula were adapted to the daily life of the people and give provision for religious instruction based on the parent's Choice. Since 1966, the military had intervened in the governance of the nation and there had been the era of education decrees and edicts in Nigeria. The Decree played its role at the federal level while Edicts take hold at the state level of Education.

The Education Edicts of 1966-1979

The federal Government of Nigeria enacted Decree No.14 of 1967, with which it created twelve states out of the existing four regions (West, Mid-west, North and East). Lagos remained the federal capital. The number of the legislatures increased to thirteen, twelve states and one federal legislature. In 1976, the states were increased to nineteen, thus making the legislative bodies to be twenty. Each state promulgated an edict for the regulation of education, its provision and management. Examples include East Central State Public Education Edict No.5 of 1970, Lagos state's Education Law (Amendment) Edict/No. 11 of 1970, south Eastern state's Education (School's Board) Edict/No. 20 of 1971 and mid-Western state's Education Edict, No.5 of 1973. Each state amended its education law when necessary. All the edicts had common features, such as state take-over of schools from

individuals and voluntary agencies, and the establishment of Schools Management Boards (Martins, 2005).

Curriculum during Decrees and Edicts (1966-1979)

This was the first era of military rule in Nigeria after independence of 1960. In 1976, during this military rule, Obasanjo administration transformed the UPE program which started as a Regional Project into the national one to provide Education for all Nigerian Citizens. The UPE was charged to encompass the following philosophy of education articulated in the National policy on Education (FGN, 2004). This philosophy emphasizes;

- (i) The development of the individual into sound and effective citizen.
- (ii) The full integration of the individuals into the communities.
- (iii) The provision of equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens at all levels of education both inside and outside the formal school system.

In 1977, the federal Government of Nigeria through the National policy on Education (NPE) stipulates that every child has a right to equal educational opportunities, irrespective of any real or imagined disabilities (FGN, 2004). The Curriculum was the summary of the formal Regions ones that were amended and used for the whole Country. These include;

- (1) Primary Education Curriculum

- (2) Secondary Education Curriculum
- (3) Technical school Curriculum
- (4) Technological School Curriculum
- (5) Special Education School Curriculum
- (6) University Curriculum. Nonetheless, Examination bodies such as WAEC and JAMB (now UTME) played significant roles in the provision of Syllabi for the schools.

Nigerian Education Laws of the Second Republic (1979-1983)

This Second Republic had a presidential system of government (PSG). The 1979 Constitution was the legal basis of Education in the period. Objectives of Education as provided in chapter II, Section 18 and Sub-section 1-3 of the 1979 Constitution are;

- (i) The government policy shall be directed towards ensuring equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels.
- (ii) The government shall promote Science and Technology
- (iii) The government shall strive as and when practicable to provide
 - (a) Free, Compulsory and Universal Primary Education
 - (b) Free Secondary Education, and
 - (c) Free Adult literacy program

The 1979 constitution put education in the concurrent legislative list (Martins, 2005). This implies that responsibilities and authority of the provision of education ought to be shared among the three tiers of government, that is, Federal, State and Local governments. However, Chapter 11 of the Constitution gave the Federal Government more powers than the States in the areas of Post Primary, Professional, Technological and University Education. According to Martins (2005), education curriculum of this Second Republic reflected the content of Education laws of the second Republic, these include:

- A. Inclusion of Science and Technology subjects into the schools Curricula and
- B. Design of Adult Education Curriculum

The above two curricula were in addition to all curricula of other levels of Education which was in existence before the second Republic.

The Education Edicts of 1983-1999

Martins (2005) affirms that the Military Administration in 1983 promulgated several decrees which concerned with the conduct of Education, Decree No. 16 of 1985, changed the School Calendar from January- December to October - September, Decree No. 26 of 1988, proscribed and prohibited the Academic staff Union of Universities (ASUU) for participating in Trade Union activities and Decree No.36 of 1990, revoked the proscription of ASUU. The third edition of the National policy on Education stated the objectives of Nigerian Education as contained in the

relevant educational laws. The objectives of these Edicts as stated by Martins (2005) include;

1. The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity;
11. The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society
111. The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around; and
- 1v. The acquisition of appropriate skills and the development of mental, physical and social abilities and competencies as equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of his society

The UBE Act Of 2004

The UBE Act of 2004 provides for the following as stated by Martins (2005);

- 1) Establishment of the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC)
- 2) Provision of three sources of funding for the implementation of the UBE which are Federal government Grant of not less than 2% its consolidated revenue funds or contributions in the form of federal guaranteed credits and local or international donor grants.
- 3) The Act covers both the state and the local Governments, the state government can only benefit

from the federal government block grant meant for the implementation of UBE if it can contribute at least 50% of the total cost of the project. This is to ensure the state commitment towards the project.

- 4) The project provides textbooks in core subjects as well as abolishes tuitions at the primary school and at the junior secondary levels.
- 5) The Act enforces all parents to ensure that their children or wards attend and complete their primary education and junior secondary as stated in section 2 of the Act, which provides fines for its breach.

UBE Act makes it compulsory for provision of Universal, Free and Compulsory 6years and 3years of primary and junior secondary education respectively. Finally, the new UBE scheme had changed the education system from 6-3-3-4 to 9-3-4 and scrapped the common entrance examination into upper basic education examination.

Curriculum Changes (1999-2016)

This period (1999-2016) is another democratic setting in which the country is under presidential Government. Education system has changed from 6-3-3-4 to 9-3-4 in which 9-implies the 9years of Basic Education programme. There are three major curricula designed for this 9-years of Basic Education. These include; (1) Lower Basic Education Curriculum (primaries1-3) (2) Middle Basic Education Curriculum (primaries4-6) and (3) Upper Basic Education Curriculum (JSSI-3). These Curricula involve the following subjects; English Studies, Mathematics, Social Studies, Basic Science, Basic Technology, Physical and

Health Education, Cultural and Creative Arts, Home Economics, Christian Religious Studies, Islamic Studies, Agricultural Science, Hausa Language, Igbo Language, Arabic, Yoruba Language, French, Civic, Life Skills, Computer Education, and Basic Science Technology.

The general philosophy behind the 9-years Basic Education is to instill the Skills of Numeracy, Literacy and Life skills such that the products will have basic entrepreneurial skills to engage themselves in purposeful, productive venture and contribute meaningfully to the economy of the nation. The Curriculum is infused with emerging issues which covered values orientation, peace and dialogue, including human right education, family life, HIV and AIDS Education, entrepreneurial skills, etc. It also paid attention to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS)

Curriculum Implications of the Nigeria Education laws

- J.* History of Education laws enable teachers to understand how past laws shaped the present educational Curriculum.
2. History of Education laws and Curriculum development enables us to appreciate the importance of Education laws to Education since 1914 till date.
3. History of Education laws help teachers in training to draw practical lessons from the past Curriculum and avoid mistakes made in the past.

4. A study of history of Education laws enables educators to analyze the present educational Curriculum issues and problems critically and objectively.
5. Knowledge of history of Education laws exposes teachers to the contributions of educational thinkers to the Curriculum development of our country's Education.
6. It exposes would be teachers to the major trends in the development of Education laws and Curriculum in Nigeria.
7. Knowledge of history of Education laws enhances the ability of teachers to contribute their own quota to the development of education policies and curriculum design in the country whenever they are in a position to do so.
8. History of education laws familiarized us with educational problems of the past and how past educational thinkers responded to the social demands of their times through curriculum design and development.
9. The history of education laws is needed in the development of curriculum needs to foster the philosophy of Nigeria education, vision 2020, MDGs and transformation agenda of the present Nigeria administration.
10. History of education laws and their curriculums offer a personal intellectual education for the teacher

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

What is Planning

According to Marx and Musaazi, planning is 'a rational process of preparing a set of decisions for future actions directed at achieving goals and objectives by optional means.' We can decipher planning as a futuristic, goal-oriented activity from this definition. Planning requires there to be specific goals and objectives as it cannot take place in a vacuum. The process of planning is not only concerned with objectives; it is concerned with the means of achieving these objectives as well.

Thus, we can say that planning is concerned with the implementation of these objectives. According to Ovwigbo (1991), 'planning is a process that involves the selection of facts and assumptions that are related to the future with the aim of visualizing and formulating the desired outcomes to be attained.' Planning may seem to be simple to understand, however educational planning is still a mystery to many. Further, the modern conception of educational planning has attracted specialists from many disciplines. Each of them tends to see planning rather differently.

Meaning of Educational Planning

The following are some of the most popular and accepted definitions of educational planning.

Anderson and Bowman (1967) defined educational planning as 'the process of preparing a set of decisions for future action pertaining to education'.

Williams (1971) defined educational planning simply as 'Planning in education, as in anything else consist essentially of deciding, in advance, what you want, to do and how you are going to do it'.

According to Bernardo M. Reyes (2009), Educational planning is an instrument for providing the needed coordination and direction of the different components of an educational system and ensures that widely accepted long-term goals, such as universal primary education, are approached more objectively. It provides realistic appraisals of the country's resources (material, human, and institutional) which is an important factor in the successful implementation of the plan.

The definition by UNESCO: 'Educational Planning is the application to education itself of a rational, scientific approach to examining one's alternatives, choosing wisely among them, then proceeding systematically to implement the choices thus made.'

Seen from the UNESCO point of view, the concept of educational planning involves a succession of interdependent actions, namely:

- I. Clarification of educational objectives
- II. Diagnosis of present conditions and recent trends
- III. Assessment of alternatives
- IV. Translation of plans into action
- V. Evaluation and adjustment

Elements of Educational Planning

Educational planning takes into account the past and present realities of the country's education and training

programmes. It is commonly preceded by a survey of the educational situation and needs. Well-organized statistical services are necessary to provide essential and reliable data. According to Reyes, the essential elements of educational planning are as follows:

1. **Quantitative Planning:** This covers all questions involved in the expansion of educational facilities based on pedagogical, demographical, geographical, economic, and social factors. Quantitative planning makes references to school population (enrolment, dropout and promotion), the recruitment of teachers and supervisors, and the provision of classrooms and equipment (furniture, laboratories, and so on).
2. **Qualitative Planning:** This covers aims, content, and methods of education, in particular the structure of educational systems, curricula planning (by levels and branches), curricular planning (the levels and branches), teacher training, educational guidance, research, and textbooks and other teaching aids.
3. **Administrative Planning:** This is concerned with the needs and assets, costs, sources or finance, distribution of expenditures (recurrent expenditures and capital investments), grants, and loans. It dwells in detail with the administration of education, covering national, provincial and local administration as well as school administration and supervision. It is concerned with problems of personnel, and administrative structure and procedures.

Implementing Educational Policy

Before we start talking of educational policy implementation, let us look at what policy implementation

is all about. Simply put, policy implementation is the action stage in policy planning. Policy implementation is what happened after a law is passed. Now, what is Educational Policy implementation? Educational policy implementation is the transformation of education policy into action. Policy implementation is a critical stage in the policy making process. This is what happens when education law has been passed.

Rules for Educational Policy Implementation

Raddad (1994) specified the following rules for policy implementation:

1. Planning related to implementation cause policy assessment to take place.
2. Feedback obtained during implementation reassessment of aspects of policy decision and modification by policy makers.
3. There are translation of summary policy intentions into concrete implementation cause reassessment and reason.

Strategies for New Educational Policy Implementation

There are various strategies for the implementation of new policy. This includes:

1. Using people and various groups that are beneficiary.
2. Using community leaders, religious leaders, political leaders, traditional leaders, traditional institutions, the PTA for mobilizing people around them.
3. Involving those who will play some roles or supporting roles in the process of providing certain necessities and services.

4. The mass media is the greatest means of reaching the far and near people.

CHAPTER SIX

SCHOOL PLANT, INFRASTRUCTURE, EQUIPMENT, CURRICULUM AND SUPERVISION TEACHING

SCHOOL PLANT

What is school plant, it is one of the major aspects of school administration. It refers to the material provisions of the school. The school campus, building, playgrounds, library laboratories, class-rooms, furniture, equipment, hostels, common room, canteen all these put together mean the same thing what the school plant management stands for. The school plant is of great importance because of its impact on the educational processes and programmes. We must look upon the plant as an integral part of the learning environment.

Ideally speaking the school plant planning must look like a nursery for the growth and development of young children. It should be situated in healthy surrounding, and its structure must be appropriate in respect of climatic conditions. It may be possible to view it with a pride in its locality. It must look like an outstanding, healthy, neat and dean, and attractive building in the area concerned. It should possess a stimulating and inviting look.

Minimum Requirements of School Plant Operation

We may include so many items in the school plant. All technical requirements may not be met within our schools; however, various minimum requirements of school campus are as underlisted:

Classrooms

The school should have sufficient number of classrooms, depending upon its strength. Each classroom should be spacious. Care should be taken that there is no overcrowding in the classrooms. A pupil requires a minimum of ten square feet ground area, to sit in the room without suffocation. So, for a classroom of 50 to 60 students, we require about 500sq. ft. of floor.

The class-rooms should be well-ventilated. There should be adequate light in the classrooms.

Staff Room

Every school building should have a staff-room. In the room, the teachers can sit in their free period. They may do correction work or prepare their lesson. A lavatory should be attached to it. If the class is co-educational, there should be separate lavatories for the male and female staff.

Headmaster's Office

There should be headmaster's office near the staff room and the school office. The headmaster may sit in his office and attend to the various programmes and plans etc.

Auditorium

A good school must have an auditorium. This is essential to organize various school functions like dramas, debates, extension lectures, etc. It is a place to hold assembly of students for a purpose. Though An auditorium costs much, but the amount spent on it is well spent.

Toilets

In a school, there should be separate toilets for the students. They should not be allowed to urinate anywhere in the school. In a co-educational school, there should be separate toilets for boys and girls. Toilets should be adequate in number, depending upon the strength of the school. There should be flush latrines.

Playgrounds

It is impossible to think of a good school without grounds. There should be spacious playgrounds so almost all the students can play there. These playgrounds should be well maintained.

debates, extension lectures, etc. It is a place to hold assembly of students for a purpose. Though An auditorium costs much, but the amount spent on it is well spent.

Store Rooms

The school should have some store-rooms to preserve school property. Things should not lie here and there want of store-rooms.

Lawns

A good plant should also have beautiful lawns. The students can sit in them during their free periods. They may have Certain refreshments there. Sometimes the lawns are used for certain activities of the school.

Canteen

Every school should have a good canteen which neat and tidy. It should have certain fresh and nourishing eatables. In the absence of such a canteen, the children rush to certain canteen for stale eatables.

Special Rooms

The school should have special rooms to be used library room, laboratory, art room, craft room, history room, geography room etc.

Equipment

More important than the building is the equipment schools. Class rooms should be well-equipped. Seats, blackboards etc. should be suitable. There should be number of audiovisual aids. There should be enough equipment in the laboratory, etc. Sports materials should also be sufficient.

There can be so many other items which can mentioned such as hostel, staff quarters, common room. agricultural farms, gymnasium, workshop etc. We h discussed only minimum essential requirements of school plant.

SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE

Components of School Infrastructure

The various types of infrastructural facilities m schools have been stated as follows:

School Buildings - School buildings should be in proper conditions. It is vital to ensure that they are not damaged. As school buildings are regarded to be of utmost significance in attracting the visitors and other individuals.

When the parents make visits to schools for the admission of their children, they observe school buildings. To maintain the school buildings, it is vital for the individuals to ensure they are well-repaired and painted. When construction of school buildings takes place, it is vital to take into consideration that they are able to bear the occurrence of earthquakes. Furthermore, they should have well-constructed boundary walls. It has been researched upon that, normally individuals open nursery schools within their own homes. Hence, when establishment of schools takes place, it is vital to ensure that school buildings are constructed in an efficacious manner. Certain aspects that need to be taken into account, when constructing school buildings are, wall and roof cladding fixings to secondary and primary structure, glazing and fixings of glazing and windows, fixing of ceilings and services to structural supports and restraint of parapet walls (School Infrastructure, 2017).

Provision of Clean Drinking Water - Water is regarded as an essential requirement of the individuals. Normally, it has been researched upon that teachers, staff members as well as students carry their own drinking water from home. But it is indispensable to make provision of clean drinking water within schools. The individuals normally spend about six to seven hours within schools. Apart from classroom lectures, they even get engaged in extra-curricular and creative activities. Therefore, when they have access to clean drinking water, they feel comfortable. It is also regarded as an essential requirement, particularly during the summer seasons. Summer seasons are hot and individuals prefer drinking large amounts of water. It has been observed that due to lack of clean

drinking water, the individuals, not only in schools, but in other regions as well, experience unfavorable effects.

Provision of Restrooms - Within schools, it is essential to establish separate restrooms for boys and girls. The construction of restrooms has been given significance in not only schools in urban communities, but also rural communities. It has been observed that more than 90 percent government and private unaided schools at the primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary levels are providing restrooms for girls. However, the provision of restrooms is better in private unaided schools, as compared to the government schools. On the other hand, the provision of restroom facilities for the boys is much better as compared to the girls. When the construction of restrooms takes place, it is vital to ensure that there are proper amenities available, such as, clean water, paper towels, soaps etc. It has been found that there has been a decline in the enrollment of students in schools, where there is not proper provision of restroom facilities.

Conditions of Classrooms - The conditions of the classroom is vital to impart teaching and in facilitating the achievement of academic outcomes. Within the classrooms, it is vital to ensure that teaching-learning materials are displayed. The main objective of displaying of teaching-learning materials is to make the classrooms attractive. These are primarily related to the lesson plans and the academic concepts taught to the students. The other important aspects within the classrooms are, making provision of adequate furniture, heating and cooling equipment in accordance to the weather conditions, teaching-learning materials and technology. It has been

observed that in some schools, students sit on the floor. Hence, it is vital to provide proper chairs and desks for the students. When there will be provision of cooling and heating equipment, then students will be able to concentrate well on their learning and teachers would also be able to carry out their job duties in a well-organized manner. The use of satisfactory teaching-learning materials and technologies would facilitate the achievement of academic goals.

Playground Facilities - In schools, the availability of playground facilities is considered important. These facilities normally vary in size. In pre-schools, mostly playground facilities are small, whereas, in formal schools, they are large. Within the playgrounds, the students get engaged in number of activities, which stimulates their mind-sets and motivate them towards learning. Sports and physical activities are vital. The training of the students regarding these activities normally takes place in playgrounds. Apart from acquiring training regarding sports and physical activities, playground facilities are meant for leisure and recreational activities as well. Furthermore, in schools, when there are organization of competitions, events, sports day or celebration of festivals, then too playground facilities are regarded to be of utmost significance. It is the responsibility of the members of the schools to ensure that they are clean and well-maintained.

Technology - The use of technology is regarded to be of utmost significance in acquiring an efficient understanding of academic concepts and achieving educational outcomes. In pre-schools as well as formal schools, major emphasis is put upon usage of technology.

When the teachers as well as students make use of technology in implementation of tasks and activities, they are able to enhance their learning as well as prepare their assignments and projects in a well-organized manner. Within schools, it is essential to establish a computer centre, with the recruitment of qualified and skilled professionals. The teachers and students need to acquire efficient training regarding usage of technology. Furthermore, making provision of technology within classrooms is also regarded to be indispensable in bringing about advancements in the teaching-learning methods. When individuals are making use of computers, laptops, projectors, tablets or mobile technologies, they need to ensure that they implement the traits of morality and ethics.

Library Facilities -The libraries are referred to the places, where there are availability of various materials, which are meant to acquire information and enhance the understanding of academic concepts among students. Not only the students, but teachers also make use of library facilities, when they are to prepare lesson plans, conduct research or acquire understanding of concepts. Within the libraries, the various learning materials include, books, articles, reports, projects, newspapers, and magazines and technologies. There is availability of computers and internet. The individuals make use of them to accomplish their tasks and activities. The members of the schools need to make effective decisions regarding the availability of library facilities. They need to ensure that within the libraries, apart from the availability of reading materials and technologies, there should be proper sitting arrangement, furniture, heating or cooling equipment and

so forth. In other words, the environmental conditions within the libraries should be well-organized.

Laboratory Facilities - Within schools, there should be establishment of physics, chemistry and biology laboratories. The laboratories are primarily referred to as places, where experiments are conducted. Various equipment, tools, machines, and apparatuses are available in laboratories, related to science subjects. When the students and teachers are working in the laboratories, they need to be well-aware of various procedures and methods that are required to conduct experiments. Research has indicated that when individuals do not possess adequate knowledge and information and get engaged in conducting experiments, then they may even get prone to accidents. In laboratories, the individuals are required to make use of acids as well. Hence, it is essential for the individuals to prepare themselves well, before getting engaged in any forms of tasks and experiments within the laboratories. When the construction of laboratories takes place, it is vital for the individuals to make sure that there are provision of adequate materials, tools and equipment.

Teaching-Learning Materials - In schools, the provision of teaching-learning materials is vital to impart information to the students regarding academic concepts. It is essential for the members, especially teachers and principals to possess adequate knowledge and information in terms of teaching-learning materials. The various forms of teaching-learning materials that are used within the classroom instruction are, books, articles, reports, projects, documents, hand-outs, computers, blackboards, models, charts and so forth. It is vital for the teachers to make use

of teaching-learning materials in accordance to the grade levels of students, learning abilities and subjects. When they are made use of, then it is vital to ensure that they prove to be beneficial to the students to a major extent. It is essential to conduct research on a regular basis in terms of modern and innovative teaching-learning materials. To enrich the system of education and to enable the achievement of academic goals, it is essential to bring about improvements in the teaching-learning materials.

Electricity Facility- Electricity facility is one of the important infrastructural facilities not only in schools, but in all organizations and workplaces. Through the availability of electricity facility, the individuals feel comfortable within the environmental conditions and carry out their tasks and activities in a manageable manner. Electricity facility makes provision of lighting, one is able to operate technology, make use of heating and cooling equipment, and so forth. Research has indicated that in schools and classrooms, due to lack of electricity, one is not able to concentrate on their studies and feel despondent. In the present existence, there have been formulation of measures to ensure that there is provision of electricity throughout the working day. This is facilitated by having generators and inverters. The school authorities need to pay adequate attention towards making provision of electricity in classrooms as well as offices. The reason being, technology is made use of to a major extent to carry out various tasks.

School Equipment: means any and all electronic devices owned, leased or operated by or for the benefit of the school, which have the capability of creating, sending,

receiving, storing and/or otherwise using electronic information, materials and/or communications, including, but not limited to, pagers, computers, servers, disk drives, scanners, photocopiers, printers, fax machines, telephones and PEDs. School Equipment includes all operating software, application software and firmware owned and/or licensed by the school, which resides and/or is embedded in any the School Equipment. **School Equipment** means a durable school-owned machine, equipment, or tool used by a student as part of a secondary activity, course, or program.

School Curriculum

School curriculum refers to a particular set of courses that a school or governing body designates, but may also refer to a variety of activities designed to foster education and meet the needs of a learning community. Whether you are a student seeking to understand your curriculum options, or a teacher looking to create curriculum standards, this section provides information and resources to help you understand the legal perspective of setting a strong curriculum. Select from the list of titles below to learn more

Curriculum Decision-making

Each school district has its own process for developing curriculums. However, the curriculums increasingly subject school administrators and boards of education to scrutiny and criticism from parents and organizations that have their own idea of what should be part of the school curriculum. Beyond agreeing that schools should teach students the basics of reading, writing, math, history, science, and citizenship; there is very little agreement about what should be included in school curricula.

School boards must design a curriculum that furthers "legitimate pedagogical concerns;" though this term is rarely defined with any specificity. School boards are frequently left to determine for themselves what this means. State and federal authorities may provide guidance and frequently have better resources to research and develop the most effective policies on the behalf of schools. Although a universal definition has not been developed for "legitimate pedagogical concerns," courts have given some indication what activities would fall outside the definition. Examples of curriculum items that would be prohibited include material that includes;

- political advocacy
- bias or prejudice
- lack of neutrality in religious matters
- sexually harassing speech
- vulgarity, profanity, nudity, sexuality, drug use, violence, or other inappropriate themes

Curricula, Education, and Schooling

All curricula emerge from ideas about what should be taught and learned, and how such teaching and learning might best be undertaken and then certified. As a result the fundamental question lying behind the prescription and development of all curricula is often seen as "What knowledge is of most worth?"-because it is the knowledge that is of most worth that education should, seemingly, reflect. In its ideological or philosophical aspect, much curricular thought seeks to articulate reasoned starting

points for one or another form of curriculum. Such work can accept the framework of contemporary understanding of the scope and nature of education and schooling. It can be critical, seeking to articulate the hidden assumptions around such categories as race, gender, and class that have driven, and drive, schooling in inappropriate, even morally wrong, directions.

However, looked at more analytically, the curriculum of the school reflects layered cultural understandings of what is considered necessary for young people to know or experience if they are to take their place in the social and cultural order. Thus, as the central component of a pervasive modern institution, the curriculum is necessarily a part of all of the sociological and cultural ambiguities within societies. As such, the scope and nature of the curriculum are viewed as critically important for teachers, parents, cultural critics, interest groups, and the employers of the graduates of the school. As the curriculum as an idea is seen through the eyes of all such groups, it becomes a mirror that reflects different visions of the society and culture, and the tensions within the society around, say, the proper nature of the work of schooling and/or status-attainment and employment possibilities. As a result inevitable and unresolved differences of viewpoint characteristically surface around all discussions of the curriculum as a symbol of both a normative order for education and of the quality and character of what schools are understood as doing.

For these reasons the history of curriculum thinking and practice is marked, on the one hand, by popular and professional conflict and debate about what the curriculum

should be and how teaching should be undertaken and, on the other hand, by rationalization of the good and/or bad consequences of one or another curriculum. What, for example, should the curriculum that is most appropriate for young people be based on?

- The needs of the economy for human resources
- National or international ideals
- The need for societal and cultural change or preservation
- Ameliorating pervasive distinctions of gender and race
- The set of perennially "essential" and fundamental forms of knowledge and ways of thinking
- The forms of a life that is most worth living

As a result of the competition between such starting points, there is political, cultural, and policy conflict around what should be authoritatively prescribed in curricula, how teaching should be undertaken, and how schooling should be organized.

The classification of such different conceptions of education and educating has been one of the core approaches used to give both teachers and laypeople a framework for approaching the normative issues that circle around such starting points for education and curriculum building. Often, as with Elliot Eisner and Elizabeth Vallance's 1974 classification, these issues are presented as involving perennial controversies. Thus in their frame there

is a web of controversy built around an unresolved conflict among five classical curriculum "conceptions":

- (1) curriculum as the development of cognitive processes;
- (2) curriculum as technology;
- (3) curriculum as self-actualization or consummatory experience;
- (4) curriculum for social learning; and
- (5) curriculum for academic rationalization. But Eisner and Vallance also point to other ways of framing such debates: child-centered versus society-centered; futurist, that is, socially reconstructive, versus presentist or adaptive; values-centered education versus skills-training; and humanist or existential versus behaviorist models of education and teaching.

There are, of course, difficulties associated with such controversy-framed conceptions around the curriculum problem. Such overviews of curricular conceptions reflect abstractions about the curriculum rather than the practices of schooling. Most centrally, they do not reflect the complexities of curricular action.

Walter Doyle has sought to clarify the endemic questions around all curriculum thinking by pointing out that curricular action occurs at three distinct levels.

1. Institutional, where the issues center on policies at the intersection between schooling, culture, and society.

2. Programmatic, where the issues center on (1) the specification of subject content for schools, school types and tracks, with their core and elective course requirements or expectations, subject specifications, and so forth; and (2) the construction of appropriate content for classroom coverage within these subjects.
3. Classroom, where the issues center on the elaboration of the programmatic curriculum and its connection to the worlds of schools and classrooms in their real-world contexts.

For instance, all institutional work around either the scope and rationale of an optimal mathematics curriculum or how the teaching of reading should best be undertaken centers on metaphors that reflect idealized norms for an imagined social institution. More often than not the discourse is framed in terms of *reform* and the need for change if a convergence between a normative ideal and the ongoing work of schools is to be achieved. Such discussions rarely, if ever, connect in any immediate way to the central issues around either programmatic or classroom curricula. There the effective delivery of *existing* procedures and practices, and not reform, is the overriding preoccupation. Nevertheless, the image-making that is characteristic of curriculum policy debates within and among interest groups is important. Such debates symbolize and instantiate what communities should value. In this sense curriculum discussion, debate, and planning-and the public and professional processes involved in such work-is a social form for clarifying the role that schooling *as an idea* plays in the social and cultural order.

Programmatic curriculum work has two tasks. On the one hand, it is focused on the sociocultural, political, and organizational processes through which educational visions that are accepted by elites or publics are translated into operational frameworks for schools. Thus a policy language of "excellence" becomes the introduction of gifted programs in elementary schools or Advanced Placement courses in the high school. Programmatic work is also part of the search for solutions to operational problems, such as a mismatch between the capacity of a school system or school and enrollments, and the need to reconfigure a system around, for instance, middle schools. All such programmatic discourse and action seeks to precipitate social, cultural, and educational symbols into a workable and working organizational interpretation and framework. Such organizational frameworks, however, are only indirectly linked to actual classroom teaching. In such discourse and program building, teaching is seen as a passive agency implementing or realizing both an organizationally sanctioned program and its legitimating ideology. Curriculum work in this programmatic sense *frames* the character of schools and classrooms organizationally, as well as the ways in which schools might be seen within their communities. It does not direct the work of schools or teachers in any straightforward way.

At the classroom level the curriculum is a sequence of activities, jointly developed by teachers, students, parents and communities, that reflects their understanding of the potential for them of the programmatic framework or curriculum. At this level teachers, and the schools they work within, are active interpreters, not passive agents, of the mandated or recommended policy, programmatic, or

organizational frameworks. Their interpretations may or may not be well articulated with the curriculum as imaged or mandated at the policy and programmatic levels. The educational legitimacy of such local interpretations, however, is not derived from the organizational framework of the curriculum. Instead, it derives from the seeming match between what a local school is, and seems to be, doing and the understandings of its community about what its school can and should be doing.

But consistency among what a community's school does, the language and symbols used to describe and project that work, and the dominant ideologies and values is only one component of the framework for the school or district programs and curricula. Financial and/or personnel issues, state-sanctioned or state-funded mandates for programs such as special education or physical and health education, and the incentives for program change offered by governments and/or foundations are, more often than not, the immediate determinants of whether or not a school offers a pre-kindergarten program or upper-level "academic" courses.

In other words, the curriculum is the symbolic center of a loosely coupled system of ideologies, symbols, organizational forms, mandates, and subject and classroom practices that instantiates collective, and often differing, understandings about what is to be valued about the idea and the ongoing practice of education. At the same time the myth of an authoritative and hierarchical framework by which legislative bodies determine classroom work, with the curriculum as the agent of the linkage, is necessary for the legitimacy of a public schooling that is subject to

political control. It is this paradox that gives all discussion of the curriculum its emotional force.

Curriculum-Making in the Twentieth Century

In an essay written at the beginning of the twentieth century, John Dewey declared his pessimism about the implications for educational reform of a "settlement" he saw between progressive educational reformers, who controlled educators' ideologies, and conservatives, who controlled actual school conditions, and had little or no interest in reform. The settlement he described has persisted and has controlled most of the conventional historical writing on the twentieth-century curriculum of the American school. The histories of the American curriculum across the twentieth century offer accounts of the absence of real and lasting Progressive curriculum reform in the school, along with a search for explanations of the seemingly persistent failure of reform impulses. But it was fundamental change that marked the history of the curriculum in the twentieth century. This reality is most clearly seen in the history of the secondary school and its curriculum.

In the late nineteenth century, the significant curricular questions around the idea of what was later termed *secondary education* centered on the character of the cultures present in secondary schools or academies—the conflict between cultures achieving its force from its interaction with the changing relationships between social groups. Should the curriculum offer as its core the traditional humanistic inculcation into the classical and liberal culture built around the teaching of Latin and Greek,

or should it embrace "modern" subjects like science and English literature? Should the ideology of the high-status secondary school be exclusively liberal (i.e., centered on high-status classical or modern academic knowledge), or should it be directly or indirectly vocational in the sense that it might embrace and give educational legitimacy to agriculture, engineering, applied sciences and arts, and so forth?

The late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century programmatic resolution of these policy conflicts centered around the development of several secondary school types (e.g., classical and modern pre-university, technical/prevocational, and vocational schools), with each type seeking legitimacy in terms of a different curricular ideology and a different clientele of parents and students. At this time the high-status pre-university schools were schools for the elite only. Most adolescents who entered secondary schools sought employment well before graduation, or were enrolled in school types, such as normal schools, that did not lead to matriculation to a university.

In the 1920s and 1930s this situation changed dramatically in the United States in a way that was not repeated in western Europe until the 1960s. Schooling began to assume a much greater significance in the pathway to adulthood, with the result that a new form of mass high school emerged as an alternative to apprenticeship as the way to work and adulthood. This new school offered the symbol of a high school diploma, along with a set of tracked four-year courses of study potentially open to the adolescent age cohort. This new school was, in Martin Trow's words, a "mass terminal" secondary school.

This new school required new legitimating ideologies that could serve to make it appear inevitable and desirable to both the range of its external constituencies and to the teachers who would work within it. Schooling as a preparation for work and life, (i.e., life-adjustment; citizenship; Americanization; child-centeredness; and, in the Great Depression, the vision of the school and the curriculum as a seedbed for social and cultural reconstruction) emerged as new educational ideologies to submerge (but not replace) the older public and professional ideology of academic training and mental discipline as the legitimate core tasks of the high school.

Seen in terms of their programs, however, these new schools offered reinterpretations of the modern curricular categories of the traditional high-status pre-university high school in their new, non-university tracks, plus, as appropriate, prevocational or explicitly vocational courses. In other words, the program of the mass terminal high school did not build on the curricular potential of the technical or applied arts curricular traditions, or develop a new curricular form-although its extra-curriculum of athletics and music did represent something quite new. It was, of course, the idea of the high school experience that its students and parents were seeking.

The years after World War II saw the second major transformation of the American school as a mass college-preparatory high school emerge from the prewar mass terminal school. This new high school required a re-articulation of the ideology of the high school curriculum with the ideology of the university, creating, in its turn, a need for new ways to frame popular and professional

understandings. This required the rejection of the ideological platforms of the very different prewar high school. Thus, the college-preparatory role of the school reemerged into public visibility, a visibility most clearly symbolized by the comprehensive high schools being built in the new suburbs.

The new mission of the high school was presented in terms of academic development and the need to teach the intellectual structure of the now symbolically important sciences of physics and math—a goal that was interpreted as having implications for national defense and the national welfare. Programs embodying the new ideologies were aggressively introduced as symbols of the new mission of the school, although the program-building practices of those years centered overwhelmingly on merely serving the expanding number of students enrolling in the traditional college-prep track.

The high school of the late 1960s and 1970s reflected the political and cultural turbulence, and the rejection of tradition, of those years. These years brought a renewal of the avant-garde ideologies and curricular platforms of the 1930s (often with a countercultural gloss) as well as of a vision of the school as a site for social, cultural, and racial reconstruction, social justice, and the like. Programmatically, noncanonical works appeared in literature courses; environmentalism emerged as a topic in science; courses in film, black studies, and so forth, emerged in many schools. With these changes the ordered institution of the school was being questioned symbolically and, as a result, appeared at risk. The subject categories of the school seemed to lose their clear meaning and

significance, and the quality of, for example, urban schools became an issue as the racial and ethnic makeup of their student bodies changed from majority to minority students. Public anxieties around the symbolic meaning and effectiveness of the high school as the way to adulthood became the focus of demands for a restoration of more traditional understandings of the school.

These tensions were symbolized by the National Commission on Excellence in Education's 1983 report *A Nation at Risk*, an endorsement of the symbols of the "traditional" academic model of the preuniversity high school. But most observers of the contemporary school agree that while, programmatically, courses have been renamed and given new rationales, classroom work has continued on its own trajectory. Middle school mathematics courses are renamed *algebra*, but traditional eighth-grade mathematics texts are used. And, to complete the picture of the stable ideological order around the curriculum that Dewey described, constructivism has come to serve as the educators' counterpoint to the symbolic conservative restoration.

Rethinking Curriculum Discussions

Seen historically, it is clear that much, if not most, public discussion of the curriculum should be seen as a rhetorical form that seeks to stake out positions in the ideological space around the concept of the *school*. Such discourse, as Dewey noted, does not directly influence programmatic or classroom practice, which have their own logics. Thus, looked at across the twentieth century, the Progressive educational and curriculum philosophies, conceptions,

platforms, and developments that journalists' and educators' discussions have taken as significant have had little demonstrable impact on the day-to-day work of the school. They are part of the changing parade of ideologies and platforms that have been invoked to legitimate one or another image of the school as an institution.

When the characteristic forms of normative educational and curriculum philosophy are looked at analytically, it is clear that they cannot have any significant directive force on the complexities of schooling and teaching. Most important, what such discourse also fails to offer is any explanation of the overwhelming success of the school as an institution across the divides of race, class, gender, and so forth, and of the ways in which the curriculum has both contributed to, and responded to, this success. The secondary school as an institution has achieved an increasingly dominant role in the lives of children and youth across all developed nations. This dominance is overwhelmingly accepted by the societies and cultures that host the modern school, despite the tensions that can circle around it.

Elizabeth McEneaney and John Meyer have argued that all thinking and research around the curriculum, and by extension all policymaking and program development, must be grounded in the recognition of the overwhelming success of the school as an institution. For McEneaney and Meyer an understanding of the idea or model of the modern nation, and of the individually empowered citizen in the nation, lies at the heart of any understanding of the success of the school and the curriculum. Access to high-status forms of schooling has come to be seen as both as a right of citizenship and as a way of integrating citizens within the

framework of a common national culture. This culture is, in its turn, seen as both inclusive and rational, a self-understanding that must be instilled by way of the curriculum that frames the knowledge and attitudes that are seen to undergird the modern nation and modern society.

As a result of this twofold mission of incorporating the population and teaching an understanding of modernity, both the curriculum and teaching have become, paradoxically, increasingly participatory and expressive, yet increasingly rational in terms of their emphasis on mathematics and science, and tolerance of global and local diversity. Conversely, this modern curriculum has increasingly deemphasized transcending (and often exclusionary) cultural or religious traditions as well as rigid patterns of allocation of student-citizens across schools or school types.

As the implicit expression of the pervasive modern self-image of the citizen and nation, these changes have not, and do not, take place as a result of planned activity or reform. Instead, they come about as the model of society, and modern models for the curriculum, are incorporated, in routinized ways, in the work of teachers and policymakers. Of course, this instantiation of the model of society in the school and curriculum has not come about as a linear process. There are cycles of reform and resistance, the product of the tensions between older and newer models of society and the school and between the global and the local. Organizational structures, as seen for example in the highly centralized French system, can make change problematic at times. In the U.S. school system, with its loosely coupled, locally based structures, many of the tensions that create the

need for major cycles of curriculum reform in other countries can be contained. As McEneaney and Meyer point out, schools can be required at the policy level to teach sexual abstinence and at the same time hand out condoms in the classroom. The policy curriculum can be an object of controversy; but the programmatic curriculum works in stable, deliberate ways at further incorporation of youth into the idea and institution of the school, while the classroom curriculum selectively incorporates a changing model of schoolwork in unplanned and unorganized ways. The evolving, changing classroom curriculum can at times be celebrated symbolically at the programmatic level, and made very visible to local communities. Or it can be concealed by a skillful management of the programmatic models and symbols presented to local communities, with their diverse publics.

In one sense, such an "institutionalist" account of the curriculum can be seen as *Progressive*, in the way that that term has been understood by educators for over a century. But Dewey, in common with most educational reformers of his time and since, bemoaned the absence in American society of what he saw as an appropriately Progressive theory of education, and insistently asked why this was the case in the face of the self-evident claims of the Progressive ideal. The institutional understanding of the curriculum outlined by McEneaney and Meyer, however, suggests that the United States, in common with all developed societies, has in fact institutionalized a normative democratic understanding of the curriculum and the school. It is this understanding that has determined, and is determining, the actual form of both the structures and work of schools.

An institutional understanding of the curriculum, and of the school that gives it agency, presents a major challenge to most of the ways that are used by educators to discuss the school curriculum. It offers a framing context in which their conventional approaches to understanding the curriculum might be placed while at the same time explaining what those approaches cannot explain.

Supervision Teaching

According to Adams and Dickey, "Supervision is a planned programme for the improvement." It exists in their opinion for one reason only to improve teaching and learning. So it is mainly concerned with "development of teachers and pupils."

The dictionary of education defines supervision as "all efforts of designed schools towards providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction; involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials on instruction and methods of teaching and the evaluation of instruction." Here the word "supervision" means to guide and stimulate the activities of teachers with a view to improve them, i.e., teaching as well as instruction and promoting professional growth.

Now-a-days the concept of supervision has been changed. It is not concerned merely with improvement of teachers as it was conceived in the previous days, when the supervisory activities were directive and prescriptive. But now according to some experts, supervision requires a superior perspective attended by special

preparation and position. To them the primary function of supervisors of all types is leadership, encouragement and recognition of leadership in any other person either in the professional staff or among the community participants.

Therefore, they designate the supervisor as a leader who has possession of the following two qualities:

1. A clear perspective of the school's goals and awareness of its resources and qualities and another is,
2. The ability to help others, contribute to this vision and to perceive and to act in accordance with it.

So it is now clear that the modern concept of supervision centres round the basic concept of instructional improvement through leadership and co-operation of all the agencies concerned.

Keeping this in view Neagly and Evans have strongly viewed that, "Modern supervision in school is positive democratic action aimed at the improvement of classroom instruction through the continued growth of all concerned the educed, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator and the parents of others interested lay person."

Supporting this Barr and Burton have rightly stated that, "No doubt the aim of supervision is the improvement of teaching but this can be facilitated through the development of the teacher, the growth of the pupil and the improvement of the teaching-learning process as a whole.

It has been clearly visualized that the supervision seeks to be democratic in nature out and out which demands constant efforts on the part of inspecting officers. They

have to stimulate co-ordinate, guide for continued growth of the teacher in a school, both individually and collectively in better understanding and more effective performances of all teaching activities.

As a result of which teachers may be better able to stimulate and guide the continued growth of every pupil towards the most intelligent participation in modern democratic society. This new concept is based on the belief that inspection and supervision are a co-operative enterprise in which both the teacher and inspecting officers have to participate actively.

From this discussion the term inspection has got priority in supervision which was not stressed on in earlier days because the degree of success of any supervisory activity or programme depends upon the degree of inspection done by the inspecting officials. Because they are the real supervisors of the educational programme. As both supervision and inspection are meant for the same purpose and inspection covers almost all the areas of supervision there is no necessity of bringing difference between supervision and inspection.

Scope of Supervision:

The scope of supervision is very wide which can be proved from the following aspects of education as the scope of supervision in education:

1. The Instructional Work:

The first and foremost task of the supervisor is how to improve the instruction.

For this, he supervises:

- a. Method of teaching employed for different subjects.
- b. Audio-visual aids used.
- c. The time table.
- d. The distribution of work among teachers.
- e. The written work of students and its correction.
- £ Teacher's lesson diaries and scheme of work.

2. Co-Curricular Activities:

The supervisor supervises the organization of various co-curricular activities keeping in view their need and importance.

These co-curricular activities are:

- a. Games and sports
- b. Dramatics
- c. School magazines
- d. Library services
- e. Educational tours
- £ Field trips and
- g. Picnics

3. Records and Registers:

The supervisor has to supervise all the records and registers of an educational institution or school by examining the following type of records:

- a. Admission Register
- b. Attendance Register
- c. The cash book
- d. The log book
- e. The Stock Register and
- f. The Receipt Book

4. The School Environment:

The school environment has a profound role bringing over an improvement of educational process

For this the supervisor has to supervise the following aspects of the school environment:

- a. School Discipline
- b. Relationship between the head of the institution and his staff, between staff and students
- c. Emotional climate of the school
- d. General behaviour of students
- e. Cleanliness of the surroundings
- f. Goodwill of the self-government formed by students

- g. Plantation of trees
- h. Morale of the classroom
- i. Relationship among teachers
- j. Hygienic conditions of the toilet, canteen and water supply
- k. Relationship of the head of the institution or school with the community members
- l. Beautification of the campus

5. Management:

Supervision of management is also another aspect of the scope of supervision in education without which the overall improvement of teaching-learning process will never be successful.

The supervision of the management of the educational institution includes the following aspects with it:

- a. Co-operation of teachers and community members.
- b. The ability of the headmaster to run the school or institution.
- c. Co-operation, co-ordination and responsibility between teachers and headmaster in organizing any programme.
- d. Duties and responsibilities rendered by the teachers as the members of different sub-committees for different programmes.

- e. Problems with the managing committee.
- f. Achievements and failures of the school.

6. Guidance to Teachers:

The supervisor has not only to supervise but also guide the headmaster and teachers in their efforts for ensuring qualitative improvement of education.

For this supervision includes the following things in its jurisdiction:

- a. Innovations in teaching
- b. Remedial instruction
- c. Community mobilization and support
- d. Conducting seminars, conferences, meetings and workshops to discuss about problems and their solution.

7. Developmental Activities:

The supervisor supervises the developmental activities of the school in the following heads:

- a. Justification of developmental activities, proposals for extension of the school building.
- b. Allotment receipt and the progress made. Difficulties faced and the steps taken by the headmaster to wipe out the difficulties, and
- c. Construction of the new building and its progress.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EVALUATION PROCESSES IN EDUCATION

The Concept of Evaluation

In every walk of life the process of evaluation takes place in one or the other form. If the evaluation process is eliminated from human life then perhaps the aim of life may be lost. It is only through evaluation that one can discriminate between good and bad. The whole cycle of social development revolves around the evaluation process.

In education how much a child has succeeded in his aims, can only be determined through evaluation. Thus, there is a close relationship between evaluation and aims.

Education is considered as an investment in human beings in terms of development of human resources, skills, motivation, knowledge and the like. Evaluation helps to build an educational programme, assess its achievements and improve upon its effectiveness.

It serves as an in-built monitor within the programme to review the progress in learning from time to time. It also provides valuable feedback on the design and the implementation of the programme. Thus, evaluation plays a significant role in any educational programme.

Evaluation plays an enormous role in the teaching-learning process. It helps teachers and learners to improve teaching and learning. Evaluation is a continuous process and a periodic exercise.

It helps in forming the values of judgement, educational status, or achievement of student. Evaluation in one form or the other is inevitable in teaching-learning, as in all fields of activity of education judgements need to be made.

In learning, it contributes to formulation of objectives, designing of learning experiences and assessment of learner performance. Besides this, it is very useful to bring improvement in teaching and curriculum. It provides accountability to the society, parents, and to the education system.

Let us discuss its uses briefly:

(i) Teaching:

Evaluation is concerned with assessing the effectiveness of teaching, teaching strategies, methods and techniques. It provides feedback to the teachers about their teaching and the learners about their learning.

(ii) Curriculum:

The improvement in courses/curricula, texts and teaching materials is brought about with the help of evaluation.

(iii) Society:

Evaluation provides accountability to society in terms of the demands and requirements of the employment market.

(iv) Parents:

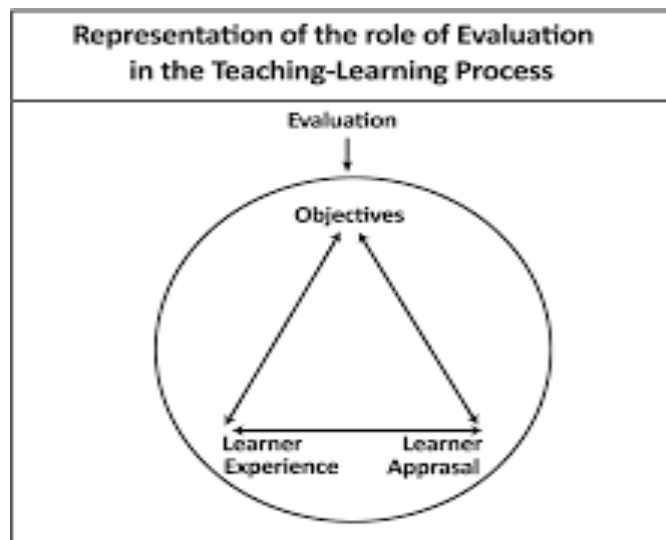
Evaluation mainly manifests itself in a perceived need for regular reporting to parents.

In brief, evaluation is a very important requirement for the education system. It fulfills various purposes in systems of education like quality control in education, selection/entrance to a higher grade or tertiary level.

It also helps one to take decisions about success in specific future activities and provides guidance to further studies and occupation. Some of the educationists view evaluation virtually synonymous with that of learner appraisal, but evaluation has an expanded role.

It plays an effective role in questioning or challenging the objectives.

A simple representation explaining the role of evaluation in the teaching-learning process is shown below:



Evaluation has its four different aspects namely:

- (i) Objectives,
- (ii) Learning experiences,
- (iii) Learner appraisal and the, and
- (iv) Relationship between the three.

Definition of Evaluation:

The term evaluation conveys several meanings in education and psychology.

Different authors have different notions of evaluation:

1. Encyclopedia of Education Research:

To measure means to observe or determine the magnitude of variate; evaluation means assessment or appraisal.

2. James M. Bradfield:

Evaluation is the assignment of symbols to phenomenon, in order to characterize the worth or value of a phenomenon, usually with reference to some social, cultural or scientific standards.

3. Gronlund and Linn:

Evaluation is a systematic process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting information to determine the extent to which pupils are achieving instructional objectives.

Perhaps the most extended definition of evaluation has been supplied by C.E. Beeby (1977), who described evaluation as "**the systematic collection and interpretation of**

evidence leading as a part of process to a judgement of value with a view to action."

In this definition, there are the following four key elements:

- (v) Systematic collection of evidence.
- (vi) Its interpretation.
- (vii) Judgement of value.
- (viii) With a view to action.

Let us discuss the importance of each element in defining evaluation. The first element 'systematic collection' implies that whatever information is gathered, should be acquired in a systematic and planned way with some degree of precision.

The second element in Beeby's definition, 'interpretation of evidence', is a critical aspect of the evaluation process. The mere collection of evidence does not by itself constitute evaluation work. The information gathered for the evaluation of an educational programme must be carefully interpreted. Sometimes, un-interpreted evidence is presented to indicate the presence (or absence) of quality in an educational venture.

For example, in a two-year programme in computers, it was observed that almost two-third of each entering class failed to complete the two years programme. On closer examination it was found that most of the dropouts after one year were offered good jobs by companies.

The supervisors of companies felt that the one year of training was not only more than adequate for entry and second level positions but provided the foundation for

further advancement. Under such circumstances, the dropout rate before programme completion was no indication of programme failure or deficiency.

The third element of Beeby's definition, 'judgement of value', takes evaluation far beyond the level of mere description of what is happening in an educational enterprise, but requires judgements about the worth of an educational endeavour.

Thus, evaluation not only involves gathering and interpreting information about how well an educational programme is succeeding in reaching its goals but judgements about the goals themselves. It involves questions about how well a programme is helping to meet larger educational goals.

The last element of Beeby's definition, 'with a view to action', introduces the distinction between an undertaking that results in a judgement of value with no specific reference to action (conclusion-oriented) and one that is deliberately undertaken for the sake of future action (decision-oriented).

Educational evaluation is clearly decision-oriented and is undertaken with the intention that some action will take place as a result. It is intended to lead to better policies and practices in education.

Characteristics of Evaluation:

The analysis of all the above definitions makes us able to draw following characteristics of evaluation:

1. Evaluation implies a systematic process which omits the casual uncontrolled observation of pupils.
2. Evaluation is a continuous process. In an ideal situation, the teaching- learning process on the one hand and the evaluation procedure on the other hand, go together. It is certainly a wrong belief that the evaluation procedure follows the teaching-learning process.
3. Evaluation emphasizes the broad personality changes and major objectives of an educational programme. Therefore, it includes not only subject-matter
4. achievements but also attitudes, interests and ideals, ways of thinking, work habits and personal and social adaptability.
5. Evaluation always assumes that educational objectives have previously been identified and defined. This is the reason why teachers are expected not to lose sight of educational objectives while planning and carrying out the teaching-learning process either in the classroom or outside it.
6. A comprehensive programme of evaluation involves the use of many procedures (for example, analytico-synthetic, heuristic, experimental, lecture, etc.); a great variety of tests (for example, essay type, objective type, etc.); and other necessary techniques (for example, socio-metric, controlled-observation techniques, etc.).

7. Learning is more important than teaching. Teaching has no value if it does not result in learning on the part of the pupils.
8. Objectives and accordingly learning experiences should be so relevant that ultimately, they should direct the pupils towards the accomplishment of educational goals.
9. To assess the students and their complete development brought about through education is evaluation.
10. Evaluation is the determination of the congruence between the performance and objectives.

Steps Involved in Evaluation:

Following are the few steps involved in the process of evaluation:

(i) Identifying and Defining General Objectives:

In the evaluation process first step is to determine what to evaluate, i.e., to set down educational objectives. What kind of abilities and skills should be developed when a pupil studies, say, Mathematics, for one year? What type of understanding should be developed in the pupil who learns his mother tongue? Unless the teacher identifies and states the objectives, these questions will remain unanswered.

The process of identifying and defining educational objectives is a complex one; there is no simple or single procedure which suits all teachers. Some prefer to begin with the course content, some with general aims, and some

with lists of objectives suggested by curriculum experts in the area.

While stating the objectives, therefore, we can successfully focus our attention on the product i.e., the pupil's behaviour, at the end of a course of study and state it in terms of his knowledge, understanding, skill, application, attitudes, interests, appreciation, etc.

(ii) Identifying and Defining Specific Objectives:

It has been said that learning is the modification of behaviour in a desirable direction. The teacher is more concerned with a student's learning than with anything else. Changes in behaviour are an indication of learning. These changes, arising out of classroom instruction, are known as the learning outcome.

What type of learning outcome is expected from a student after he has undergone the teaching-learning process is the first and foremost concern of the teacher. This is possible only when the teacher identifies and defines the objectives in terms of behavioural changes, i.e., learning outcomes.

These specific objectives will provide direction to teaching-learning process. Not only that it will also be useful in planning and organizing the learning activities, and in planning and organizing evaluation procedures too.

Thus, specific objectives determine two things; one, the various types of learning situations to be provided by the class teacher to his pupils and second, the method to be employed to evaluate both the objectives and the learning experiences.

(iii) Selecting Teaching Points:

The next step in the process of evaluation is to select teaching points through which the objectives can be realized. Once the objectives are set up, the next step is to decide the content (curriculum, syllabus, course) to help in the realization of objectives.

For the teachers, the objectives and courses of school subjects are ready at hand. His job is to analyze the content of the subject matter into teaching points and to find out what specific objectives can be adequately realized through the introduction of those teaching points.

(iv) Planning Suitable Learning Activities:

In the fourth step, the teacher will have to plan the learning activities to be provided to the pupils and, at the same time, bear two things in mind—the objectives as well as teaching points. The process then becomes three dimensional, the three co-ordinates being objectives, teaching points and learning activities. The teacher gets the objectives and content readymade.

He is completely free to select the type of learning activities. He may employ the analytico-synthetic method; he may utilize the inducto-deductive reasoning; he may employ the experimental method or a demonstration method; or he may put a pupil in the position of a discoverer; he may employ the lecture method; or he may ask the pupils to divide into groups and to do a sort of group work followed by a general discussion; and so on. One thing he has to remember is that he should select only such

activities as will make it possible for him to realize his objectives.

(v) Evaluating:

In the fifth step, the teacher observes and measures the changes in the behaviour of his pupils through testing. This step adds one more dimension to the evaluation process. While testing, he will keep in mind three things-objectives, teaching points and learning activities; but his focus will be on the attainment of objectives. This he cannot do without enlisting the teaching points and planning learning activities of his pupils.

Here the teacher will construct a test by making the maximum use of the teaching points already introduced in the class and the learning experiences already acquired by his pupils. He may plan for an oral test or a written test; he may administer an essay type test or an objective type of test; or he may arrange a practical test.

(vi) Using the Results as Feedback:

The last, but not the least, important step in the evaluation process is the use of results as feedback. If the teacher, after testing his pupils, finds that the objectives have not been realized to a great extent, he will use the results in reconsidering the objectives and in organizing the learning activities.

He will retrace his steps to find out the drawbacks in the objectives or in the learning activities he has provided for his students. This is known as feedback. Whatever results the teacher gets after testing his pupils should be utilized for the betterment of the students.

Purposes and Functions of Evaluation:

Evaluation plays a vital role in teaching learning experiences. It is an integral part of the instructional programmes. It provides information's on the basis of which many educational decisions are taken. We are to stick to the basic function of evaluation which is required to be practiced for pupil and his learning processes.

Functions of Evaluation

Evaluation has the following functions:

1. Placement Functions:

- a. Evaluation helps to study the entry behavior of the children in all respects.
- b. That helps to undertake special instructional programmes.
- c. To provide for individualization of instruction.
- d. It also helps to select pupils for higher studies, for different vocations and specialized courses.

2. Instructional Functions:

- a. A planned evaluation helps a teacher in deciding and developing the ways, methods, techniques of teaching.
- b. Helps to formulate and reformulate suitable and realistic objectives of instruction.
- c. Which helps to improve instruction and to plan appropriate and adequate techniques of instruction.

- d. And also helps in the improvement of curriculum.
- e. To assess different educational practices.
- f. Ascertains how far could learning objectives be achieved.
- g. To improve instructional procedures and quality of teachers.
- h. To plan appropriate and adequate learning strategies.

3. Diagnostic Functions:

- a. Evaluation has to diagnose the weak points in the school programme as well as weakness of the students.
- b. To suggest relevant remedial programmes.
- c. The aptitude, interest and intelligence are also to be recognized in each individual child so that he may be energized towards a right direction.
- d. To adopt instruction to the different needs of the pupils.
- e. To evaluate the progress of these weak students in terms of their capacity, ability and goal.

4. Predictive functions:

- a. To discover potential abilities and aptitudes among the learners.
- b. Thus to predict the future success of the children.
- c. And also helps the child in selecting the right electives.

5. Administrative Functions:

- a. To adopt better educational policy and decision making.
- b. Helps to classify pupils in different convenient groups.
- c. To promote students to next higher class,
- d. To appraise the supervisory practices.
- e. To have appropriate placement.
- f. To draw comparative statement on the performance of different children.
- g. To have sound planning.
- h. Helps to test the efficiency of teachers in providing suitable learning experiences.
- i. To mobilize public opinion and to improve public relations.
- J. Helps in developing a comprehensive criterion tests.

6. Guidance Functions:

- a. Assists a person in making decisions about courses and careers.
- b. Enables a learner to know his pace of learning and lapses in his learning.
- c. Helps a teacher to know the children in details and to provide necessary educational, vocational and personal guidance.

7. *Motivation Functions:*

- a. To motivate, to direct, to inspire and to involve the students in learning.
- b. To reward their learning and thus to motivate them towards study.

8. *Development Functions:*

- a. Gives reinforcement and feedback to teacher, students and the teaching learning processes.
- b. Assists in the modification and improvement of the teaching strategies and learning experiences.
- c. Helps in the achievement of educational objectives and goals.

9. *Research Functions:*

- a. Helps to provide data for research generalization.
- b. Evaluation clears the doubts for further studies and researches.
- c. Helps to promote action research in education.

10. *Communication Functions:*

- a. To communicate the results of progress to the students.
- b. To intimate the results of progress to parents.
- c. To circulate the results of progress to other schools.

Types of Evaluation

Evaluation can be classified into different categories in many ways.

Some important classifications are as follows:

Types of Evaluation		
According to functions	According to approaches	According to nature of reference/interpretation
1-Placement 2-Formative 3-Diagnostic 4-Summative	1-Formative 2-Summative	1-Norm-referenced. 2-Criterion-referenced.

1. Placement Evaluation

Placement evaluation is designed to place the right person in the right place. It ensures the entry performance of the pupil. The future success of the instructional process depends on the success of placement evaluation.

Placement evaluation aims at evaluating the pupil's entry behaviour in a sequence of instruction. In other words, the main goal of such evaluation is to determine the level or position of the child in the instructional sequence.

We have a planned scheme of instruction for classroom which is supposed to bring a change in pupil's behaviour in an orderly manner. Then we prepare or place the students for planned instruction for their better prospects.

When a pupil is to undertake a new instruction, it is essential to know the answer of the following questions:

- a. Does the pupil possess required knowledge and skills for the instruction?

b. Whether the pupil has already mastered some of the instructional objectives or not?

c. Whether the mode of instruction is suitable to pupil's interests, work habits and personal characteristics?

We get the answer to all the probable questions by using a variety of tests, self report inventories, observational techniques, case study, attitude test and achievement tests.

Sometimes past experiences, which inspire for present learning also led to the further placement in a better position or admission. This type of evaluation is helpful for admission of pupils into a new course of instruction.

Examples:

1. Aptitude test
11. Self-reporting inventories
- m. Observational techniques
- 1v. Medical entrance exam.
- v. Engineering or Agriculture entrance exam.

2. Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation is used to monitor the learning progress of students during the period of instruction. Its main objective is to provide continuous feedback to both teacher and student concerning learning successes and failures while instruction is in process.

Feedback to students provides reinforcement of successful learning and identifies the specific learning errors that need correction. Feedback to teacher provides information for modifying instruction and for prescribing group and individual remedial work.

Formative evaluation helps a teacher to ascertain the pupil-progress from time to time. At the end of a topic or unit or segment or a chapter the teacher can evaluate the learning outcomes basing on which he can modify his methods, techniques and devices of teaching to provide better learning experiences.

The teacher can even modify the instructional objectives, if necessary. In other words, formative evaluation provides feedback to the teacher. The teacher can know which aspects of the learning task were mastered and which aspects were poorly or not at all mastered by pupils. Formative evaluation helps the teacher to assess the relevance and appropriateness of the learning experiences provided and to assess instantly how far the goals are being fulfilled.

Thus, it aims at improvement of instruction. Formative evaluation also provides feedback to pupils. The pupil knows his learning progress from time to time. Thus, formative evaluation motivates the pupils for better learning. As such, it helps the teacher to take appropriate remedial measures. **"The idea of generating information to be used for revising or improving educational practices is the core concept of formative evaluation."**

It is concerned with the process of development of learning. In the sense, evaluation is concerned not only with the

appraisal of the achievement but also with its improvement. Education is a continuous process.

Therefore, evaluation and development must go hand in hand. The evaluation has to take place in every possible situation or activity and throughout the period of formal education of a pupil.

Cronback is the first educationist, who gave the best argument for formative evaluation. According to him, the greatest service evaluation can perform is to identify aspects of the course where education is desirable. Thus, this type of evaluation is an essential tool to provide feedback to the learners for improvement of their self-learning and to the teachers for improvement of their methodologies of teaching, nature of instructional materials, etc.

It is a positive evaluation because of its attempt to create desirable learning goals and tools for achieving such goals. Formative evaluation is generally concerned with the internal agent of evaluation, like participation of the learner in the learning process.

The functions of formation evaluation are:

(a) Diagnosing:

Diagnosing is concerned with determining the most appropriate method or instructional materials conducive to learning.

(b) Placement:

Placement is concerned with the finding out the position of an individual in the curriculum from which he has to start learning.

(c) Monitoring:

Monitoring is concerned with keeping track of the day-to-day progress of the learners and to point out changes necessary in the methods of teaching, instructional strategies, etc.

Characteristics of Formative Evaluation:

The characteristics of formative evaluation are as follows:

- a. It is an integral part of the learning process.
- b. It occurs, frequently, during the course of instruction.
- c. Its results are made immediately known to the learners.
- d. It may sometime take form of teacher observation only.
- e. It reinforces learning of the students.
- f. It pinpoints difficulties being faced by a weak learner.
- g. Its results cannot be used for grading or placement purposes.
- h. It helps in modification of instructional strategies including method of teaching, immediately.
- i. It motivates learners, as it provides them with knowledge of progress made by them.
- J. It sees role of evaluation as a process.

- k. It is generally a teacher-made test.
- l. It does not take much time to be constructed.

Examples:

- i. Monthly tests.
- ii. Class tests.
- iii. Periodical assessment.
- iv. Teacher's observation, etc.

3. Diagnostic Evaluation

It is concerned with identifying the learning difficulties or weakness of pupils during instruction. It tries to locate or discover the specific area of weakness of a pupil in a given course of instruction and also tries to provide remedial measure.

N.E. Gronlund says "formative evaluation provides first-aid treatment for simple learning problems whereas diagnostic evaluation searches for the underlying causes of those problems that do not respond to first-aid treatment."

When the teacher finds that inspire of the use of various alternative methods, techniques and corrective prescriptions the child still faces learning difficulties, he takes recourse to a detailed diagnosis through specifically designed tests called 'diagnostic tests'.

Diagnosis can be made by employing observational techniques, too. In case of necessity the services of

psychological and medical specialists can be utilized for diagnosing serious learning handicaps.

4. Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation is done at the end of a course of instruction to know to what extent the objectives previously fixed have been accomplished. In other words, it is the evaluation of pupils' achievement at the end of a course.

The main objective of the summative evaluation is to assign grades to the pupils. It indicates the degree to which the students have mastered the course content. It helps to judge the appropriateness of instructional objectives. Summative evaluation is generally the work of standardized tests.

It tries to compare one course with another. The approaches of summative evaluation imply some sort of final comparison of one item or criteria against another. It has the danger of making negative effects.

This evaluation may brand a student as a failed candidate, and thus causes frustration and setback in the learning process of the candidate, which is an example of the negative effect.

The traditional examinations are generally summative evaluation tools. Tests for formative evaluation are given at regular and frequent intervals during a course; whereas tests for summative evaluation are given at the end of a course or at the end of a fairly long period (say, a semester).

The functions of this type of evaluation are:

(a) Crediting:

Crediting is concerned with collecting evidence that a learner has achieved some instructional goals in contents in respect to a defined curricular programme.

(b) Certifying:

Certifying is concerned with giving evidence that the learner is able to perform a job according to the previously determined standards.

(c) Promoting:

It is concerned with promoting pupils to next higher class.

(d) Selecting:

Selecting the pupils for different courses after completion of a particular course structure.

Characteristics of Summative Evaluation:

- a. It is terminal in nature as it comes at the end of a course of instruction (or a programme).
- b. It is judgmental in character in the sense that it judges the achievement of pupils.
- c. It views evaluation "as a product", because its chief concern is to point out the levels of attainment.
- d. It cannot be based on teachers' observations only.
- e. It does not pin-point difficulties faced by the learner.

f. Its results can be used for placement or grading purposes.

g. It reinforces learning of the students who have learnt an area.

h. It may or may not motivate a learner. Sometimes, it may have negative effect.

Examples:

1. Traditional school and university examination,
2. Teacher-made tests,
3. Standardized tests,
4. Practical and oral tests, and
5. Rating scales, etc.

5. Norm-Referenced and Criterion-Referenced Evaluation:

Two alternative approaches to educational testing that must be thoroughly understood are norm-referenced testing and criterion-referenced testing. Although there are similarities between these two approaches to testing, there are also fundamental differences between norm and criterion referenced testing.

There have been disputations about the relative virtues of norm and criterion-referenced measurements for a long time. However, a fundamental fact is recognized by most of concerned people that norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing are complementary approaches.

(i) Criterion-Referenced Evaluation:

When the evaluation is concerned with the performance of the individual in terms of what he can do or the behaviour he can demonstrate, is termed as criterion- referenced evaluation. In this evaluation there is a reference to a criterion.

But there is no reference to the performance of other individuals in the group. In it we refer an individual's performance to a predetermined criterion which is well defined.

Examples:

- (i) Raman got 93 marks in a test of Mathematics.
- (ii) A typist types 60 words per minute.
- (iii) Amit's score in a reading test is 70.

A simple working definition:

A criterion-referenced test is used to ascertain an individual's status with respect to a defined achievement domain.

In the above examples there is no reference to the performance of other members of the group. Thus criterion-referenced evaluation determines an individual's status with reference to well defined criterion behaviour.

It is an attempt to interpret test results in terms of clearly defined learning outcomes which serve as referents (criteria). Success of criterion-reference test lies in the delineation of all defined levels of achievement which are

usually specified in terms of behaviourally stated instructional objectives.

The purpose of criterion-referenced evaluation/test is to assess the objectives. It is the objective based test. The objectives are assessed, in terms of behavioural changes among the students.

Such type of test assesses the ability of the learner in relation to the criterion behaviour. Glaser (1963) first used this term, 'Criterion-reference test' to describe the learner's achievement on a performance continuum.

Hively and Millman (1974) suggested a new term, 'domain-referenced test' and to them the word 'domain' has a wider connotation. A criterion referenced test can measure one or more assessment domain.

(ii) Norm Referenced Evaluation:

Norm-referenced evaluation is the traditional class-based assignment of numerals to the attribute being measured. It means that the measurement act relates to some norm, group or a typical performance.

It is an attempt to interpret the test results in terms of the performance of a certain group. This group is a norm group because it serves as a referent of norm for making judgements.

Test scores are neither interpreted in terms of an individual (self-referenced) nor in terms of a standard of performance or a pre-determined acceptable level of achievement called the criterion behaviour (criterion-referenced). The

measurement is made in terms of a class or any other norm group.

Almost all our classroom tests, public examinations and standardized tests are norm-referenced as they are interpreted in terms of a particular class and judgements are formed with reference to the class.

Examples:

- (i) Raman stood first in Mathematics test in his class.
- (ii) The typist who types 60 words per minute stands above 90 percent of the typists who appeared the interview.
- (iii) Amit surpasses 65% of students of his class in reading test.

A simple working definition:

A norm-referenced test is used to ascertain an individual's status with respect to the performance of other individuals on that test.

In the above examples, the person's performance is compared to others of their group and the relative standing position of the person in his/her group is mentioned. We compare an individual's performance with similar information about the performance of others.

That is why selection decisions always depend on norm-referenced judgements. A major requirement of norm-referenced judgements is that individuals being measured and individuals forming the group or norm, are alike. In

norm-referenced tests very easy and very difficult items are discarded and items of medium difficulty are preferred because our aim is to study relative achievement.

Need and Importance of Evaluation:

Now a day, education has multifold programmes and activities to inculcate in students a sense of common values, integrated approach, group feelings, community interrelationship leading to national integration and knowledge to adjust in different situations.

Evaluation in education assesses the effectiveness of worth of an educational experience which is measured against instructional objectives.

Evaluation is done to fulfill the following needs:

1. (a) It helps a teacher to know his pupils in details. Today, education is child-centered. So, child's abilities, interest, aptitude, attitude etc., are to be properly studied so as to arrange instruction accordingly.

(b) It helps the teacher to determine, evaluate and refine his instructional techniques.

(c) It helps him in setting, refining and clarifying the objectives.

(d) It helps him to know the entry behaviour of the students.

2. It helps an administrator.

(a) In educational planning and

(b) In educational decisions on selections, classification and placement.

3. Education is a complex process. Thus, there is a great need of continuous evaluation of its processes and products. It helps to design better educational programmes.

4. The parents are eager to know about the educational progress of their children and evaluation alone can assess the pupils' progress from time to time.

5. A sound choice of objectives depends on an accurate information regarding pupil's abilities, interest, attitude and personality traits and such information is obtained through evaluation.

6. Evaluation helps us to know whether the instructional objectives have been achieved or not. As such evaluation helps planning of better strategies for education.

7. A sound programme of evaluation clarifies the aims of education and it helps us to know whether aims and objectives are attainable or not. As such, it helps in reformulation of aims and objectives.

8. Evaluation studies the 'total child' and thus helps us to undertake special instructional programmes like enrichment programme, for the bright and remedial programmes for the backward.

9. It helps a student in encouraging good study habits, in increasing motivation and in developing abilities and skills, in knowing the results of progress and in getting appropriate feedback.

10. It helps us to undertake appropriate guidance services.

From the above discussions it is quite evident that evaluation is quite essential for promoting pupil growth. It is equally helpful to parents, teachers, administrators and students.

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