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# EFFICIENCY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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No 34



UNIVERSITY OF IFE PRESS

**EFFICIENCY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION \***

by

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**An Inaugural Lecture delivered at the University of Ife  
on Tuesday, June 13, 1978**

Inaugural Lecture Series No. 34

**University of Ife Press . Ile-Ife . Nigeria**



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## EFFICIENCY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

### I. Introduction

A DISCERNIBLE TREND in the newly independent African countries is the drive for modernity and for rapid social and economic development that has become rather a passionate pre-occupation of these African nations. Such a trend is anchored generally to the belief that poverty and political weakness are intolerable liabilities, and that through conscious efforts, man can realise fully more than ever before his own and societal aspirations.

Although the economic analyst is quick to realise that no single strategy can provide the answer to our social and economic problems, the view that education is "the key that unlocks the door to modernisation" (Harbison & Myers, 1964) has been frequently and persistently expounded, perhaps often too fervently and dogmatically in Africa than elsewhere.

Since World War II, Nigeria's faith in education has been marked with the unprecedented expansion in education in quantity, although doubtfully in quality. Since emerging from colonial rule, we have assigned a high, if not the highest priority to the expansion of education at all levels. Once independence was attained, the proportion of the recurrent national budget devoted to education has increased phenomenally to between twenty percent and fifty percent from a token colonial expenditure on education that was barely five percent to ten percent of the national budget.

Such is our faith in education that with increased financial resources, governments of the Federation launched ambitious programmes to expand formal school education at all levels. The new faith in education (contrary to the once proverbial traditional opposition to and skepticism about the value of Western education), it is generally recognised, is rested in the power of education which as Hanson and Brembeck (1966) figuratively observed is "far more than the power of the atom" and is "the truly great moving force that modern man is releasing everywhere in countless ways".

This is faith in education as a means of improving man's lot. It is a belief in education that has foreshadowed changes that we have been quite unable to perceive, let alone conceive and arrest. It has meant

the beginning of a process that is slowly but gradually and surely altering our ways of life. In sending our children to school, we have expressed (implicitly or otherwise) and testified to the prevailing belief that through education, it is possible for man to change his destiny and so create for himself a new and better life. Such faith has naturally brought into light our concern about the role of education to improve man's lot, to strengthen and unite our nation and the diverse communities therein, to help us catch up with an age of science and technology, and through modernisation to enable the greatest number of our people to escape from old and unsatisfying fates.

In yet another way, Nigeria's educational system is expected to become its main means both for perpetuating the moral values and skills of its population, and of preparing it psychologically and spiritually for the changes which progress demands. Education has thus become, in a sense, a social leveller in the attainment of the ultimate national objective of equality, fraternity and justice.

Popular demand for school education of the Western type has since resulted virtually in explosion in school enrolments at all educational levels. Such explosion had necessitated over the years, a great demand for more school buildings, increased instructional facilities, more and better qualified teachers, more supporting administrative, technical and clerical staff, and the enrichment of, as well as greater attention to curriculum development and improvement.

Of course, the cost of providing education had risen in equal proportion to the increases in demand for education at all levels. Not only had unit costs increased in response to the inflationary trends in recent years, costs have increased in respect of the explosion in numbers and the quality of education on demand. Arising from this, the uncomfortable financial fact must also be faced, for as Beeby reminded us, "Good education costs more than bad" (1966).

Besides, there is now a keener awareness by the general public to get the educational system to respond adequately to national and community needs and aspirations. Such concern is reflected in criticisms, debates and the continuing dialogue about the role of the schools in national development. And for educational administrators, as well as for the taxpayers of this country, there are now discernible and deeper concerns than ever before for effective and efficient *planning, organisation, administration, control, supervision, financing, and management* of the nation's educational system.

In trying to get the most out of the educational system, the

heart of the matter, it seems to me, lies in effective and efficient management of the system. Hence, this Inaugural Lecture is deliberately focussed on the concept and principles of efficiency and the application of such modern management techniques for the improvement of our education services. In this regard, we have tried to (a) explore historically the movement towards scientific management; (b) describe a few management techniques and efficiency indicators in education; (c) examine the implications of the application of efficiency measures to the Nigerian education system; (d) discuss the operational constraints within the Nigerian context; and (e) review the role of our department of educational administration and planning in bringing about improved efficient management of the nation's educational services.

## II. Historical Perspectives

Administration or the need for it, has been in evidence whenever and wherever there were complex tasks to be performed and two or more people were involved. Thus, we have on record administrative activities described in some of the significant events in ancient and medieval history. For instance, events connected with constructing the ancient Egyptian pyramids, outfitting Phoenician ships, developing Babylonian commerce, constructing the temples of Israel, operating governments in the city-states of ancient Greece, equipping and sustaining Hannibal's legions, carving and paving roads to the distant reaches of the Roman Empire, propagating and preserving the christian faith, supervising medieval feudal domains, governing colonies in a distant hemisphere, and maintaining peace and orderly government, all demanded some degree of skill and understanding of the administration of institutions, organisations or activities. Today's management of private and public institutions requires similar if not more sophisticated considerations.

Who the first administrator was is lost in the mists of antiquity. The ancient philosophers (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle) referred to the art of administering social institutions as did Thucydides, and later, Julius Ceasar. In the middle ages, St. Thomas Aquinas and William of Occam wrote on the problems of managing the Church and the State. About 300 years later, Thomas Hobbes argued for a theory of government based on a "social contract" with individual citizens. Doubtless, the practice of administration had its origins where man began to organise to achieve his goals. Classical and medieval concepts depicted administration as action-oriented. To "perform", "take charge of", or "accomplish" something, described the activities, of administrators. These views remain substantially the

same in the present-day thought and practice of administration.

The concern for formal study of administration of public education paralleled an increase in the complexity of educational institutions and the scope of what had to be done. School administration as a unique area of formal study and research is a twentieth-century phenomenon; relatively new and distinctly American. Similarly, the illusion that anyone with a good general education can become an effective school administrator remains fairly common in Europe until very recent times (Knezevich, 1969).

Raymond Callahan (1972) reminds us that the material achievements of industrial capitalism in the late nineteenth century America produced two developments with great effect on American society and education after 1900. The first was the rise of business and industry to a position of prestige and influence and America's subsequent saturation with business-industrial values and practices. The other was the reform movement identified historically with Theodore Roosevelt and spearheaded by the scribblers and the muckrakers as they extolled "modern business methods" and "efficiency" and connected these in the public mind with progress and reform.

The foregoing events led to Frederick Taylor and his system of "scientific management" which influenced tremendously American society and education. The process consisted of making unfavourable comparisons between the schools and business enterprises, of applying business-industrial criteria of "economy" and "efficiency" to education, and of suggesting that business and industrial practices be adopted by educators and educational administrators. For instance, Leonard Ayres was one of the first educators in America to picture the school as a factory and to apply the business and industrial values and practices to it in a systematic way. He used the normal year-by-year progress through the schools as a criterion for measuring the relative "efficiency" of a school which he developed into an "Index of Efficiency" for use by practising school administrators.

Here in Nigeria, the study of educational administration as an academic subject at university level is just about fifteen years old with the introduction of such courses as components of the bachelor's degree programme in education at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in the 1963/64 academic session. On the other hand, before the recommendations of the Udoji Commission (1974), echoes of "efficiency in education" and "the fitness of the educational system" have been heard in some quarters in Nigeria. The proceedings of a Nigeria/Unesco/Unicef Seminar on Educational Planning and

Administration (1970) had reported on some key indicators for measuring the yield and productivity in education, as well as, how to determine the effectiveness of the educational system through the orientation of educational production to manpower requirements and the adaptation of the school curriculum to changing needs. Similarly, the Seminar/Workshop on the "Application of Modern Principles of Management to School Administration" which was jointly organised by the All-Nigeria Conference of Principals of Secondary Schools and the Department of Education, University of Ife (1975) was a bold attempt at concretising steps not only at introducing school managers to modern management techniques, but also at achieving efficiency and effectiveness in performance objectives in public secondary school administration in Nigeria.

But the concept of efficiency in educational administration has not been limited to primary and secondary school management alone. The 1974 Laz Paz Papers were a result of a Conference organised in Laz Paz, Mexico (1972) by the Esmee Fairbairn Economics Research Centre (TEFERC) of Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh. These papers discussed the critical question of how university efficiency can be improved. They tackled the issue from many angles sharing the economic framework of analysis.

### III. Concept of Efficiency and Effectiveness

The story was told of a little boy who went to visit his grandmother. The grandmother gave him some shea-butter for his mother. The boy carried the sheabutter on his head but it all melted before he reached home in the hot tropical sun. The mother advised him that in future, he should wrap up such a gift in aluminium foil to preserve and protect it from the sun. The next time the boy visited his grandmother who gave him a small dog for his mother. The boy quickly wrapped up the dog in aluminium foil to protect it from the sun. Of course, the dog was suffocated and it died before the boy reached home. The mother told him that he should have put a rope round the dog's neck so that it could have followed him home. So, the next time when he was given a big yam for his mother, he promptly tied a rope round it and dragged it home. But the yam was badly bruised and most of it was lost on the way back home.

One could liken administrators who lack the concept and understanding of fundamental principles of educational administration to the boy's application of wrong techniques to different situations. In the story of the boy just recounted, a conceptual approach would have classified the various objects to be transported and would have stated conditions under which these different objects could be trans-

ported and how new objects not previously encountered could be handled in a systematic manner. This points to the need for a thorough understanding of the concept of efficiency and effectiveness.

Like the well-known American efficiency expert of the 1900's, Harrington Emerson, perhaps we should start by saying what efficiency and effectiveness are not. Effective management is not the same thing as efficient management. As Viswasam (1975) concluded, "the latter may lead to the former; but not necessarily".

#### (a) *Efficiency*

We shall illustrate the above concept with one aspect of educational administration, that is, financial administration and management. A Local Education Authority charged with the responsibility of administering the Universal Primary Education (UPE) Scheme or a State Schools Management Board\* responsible for the administration of post-primary education in a State, or a Governing Board of a particular post-primary or post-secondary institution will be regarded as performing efficiently, if:

- (i) adequate and satisfactory provision has been procured in respect of infrastructural facilities necessary for providing education at that particular level;
- (ii) such facilities have been made available when and where they are needed as appropriate and they have been judiciously and maximally used, eliminating, as far as possible, wastages of different kinds;
- (iii) adequate financial resources have been provided when and where needed to back up the education scheme in meeting stated policies and instructional objectives; and
- (iv) sufficient safeguards have been taken to ensure judicious spending and cutting down on pockets of avoidable wastages.

Some of the preliminary steps an education authority can take in meeting the four criteria of efficiency stated above are:

- (i) obtaining actual enrolment figures of number of children in schools;
- (ii) estimating numbers of prospective children to be admitted into the first ladder of the particular education cycle for the next school year;
- (iii) estimating the percentage annual increase (or decrease) in

\*In some States, such bodies are called a Teaching Service Commission, or a Central Schools Board.

- (iv) estimating annual percentage wastages in school dropouts, repeaters and completers of the system who did not obtain the terminal certificates;
- (v) estimating optimum number of pupils per class for which effective classroom instruction can be reasonably guaranteed under a teacher to obtain maximum individual attention as well as maximum learning results at the completion of the learning cycle;
- (vi) resulting from the above, computing estimated number of additional classrooms to be provided;
- (vii) estimating therefore, building costs based on approved plans and current market prices;
- (viii) estimating the number of appropriately qualified teachers required as well as estimates of their financial costs to the education system;
- (ix) obtaining estimates of additional infra-structural facilities to support the education system, e.g. overhead costs in providing transportation, electricity, water, telephone, and similar services, as well as over-head administrative costs in monitoring, supervising and controlling the system; and
- (x) estimating overhead costs in providing adequate and appropriate textbooks, class readers, school libraries, teaching materials and other resources for effective learning.

When an education authority has provided for and judiciously and maximally used these provisions, we might say that the authority is running efficiently. We might even decide the level of efficiency in advance and rate the education authority and its individual schools as having performed "poorly", "below average", "average", "above average", or "excellent" using objective rating scales based on the above criteria and guidelines.

#### (b) *Effectiveness*

Effectiveness, on the other hand, relates to the rating of the educational product, that is, the assessment of the achievement of the educational or instructional objectives an education authority has set up for itself. It is fashionable professionally these days to classify education and instructional objectives into three main domains, namely,

- (i) the cognitive, in terms of the pupils' ability to know, understand, perceive, comprehend, analyse, evaluate, and apply what they have learnt;

- (ii) the affective, in relationship to the pupils' awareness of and response to the community value systems. These include habit formation, moral and value judgements; and
- (iii) the psychomotor, which is essentially the acquisition of the knowledge, principles and practice of certain desirable physical skills.

In recent years, attempts are being made to state educational or instructional objectives in terms of terminal behaviours expected from different categories of learners. Such terminal behaviours are then described unambiguously, ensuring all the same that they are reasonable of achievement, and that they are internally consistent, relevant, observable, and measurable.

Of the three domains of educational objectives identified above, the two that are easiest to observe and measure in terms of terminal behaviour are those in the cognitive and psycho-motor domains. It takes a much longer time for terminal behaviours in terms of people's attitudes, value and moral judgements to mature and show up, hence, it is not as easy to observe and measure such terminal behaviours in the affective domain.

Although we can specify appropriate terminal behaviours resulting from certain learning outcomes so that we can observe and measure them, the fact still remains that the end-product of education does not lend itself to easy assessment as that of the manufacturing industries or similar institutions where the products are easily identifiable and profits or losses can be measured over a long or short period. The end-product of school education at a given period does not normally show up until much later; and when it does it is not easy to indicate precisely at which point in the educational experience an educational or instructional exposure produces a particular learning outcome.

Notwithstanding these theoretical and practical difficulties, there have been devised some ways of assessing the effectiveness of the education system in terms of identifiable end-products. In Nigeria, as in other countries, it is common to use the terminal school certificate examination results as the main index or indicator of the effectiveness of the schools. As Jencks (1972) pointed out, the other indices such as good manners, good performances at school co-curricular activities, to mention a few, are seen to be only complementary to high scholastic standards revealed in excellent school certificate examination results. In Nigeria, many parents, and the general tax-payers, put a great premium on these results. It is not also surprising that job opportunities for school leavers, and sometimes success in life thereafter depend largely on these school certificate results for a large number of school completers. Hence, the results indicate, to a great extent, the success or failure of the

schools and the effectiveness of the school educational programmes including the administration and management thereof.

There is on-going research in the determination of other relevant indicators of the effectiveness of an education system. For instance, questions are now being asked about:

- (i) the appropriateness and relevance of school learnings to community development and the capability of such learning programmes to ensure that individuals that might have undergone them can fit ably into their local and larger social, economic and political communities as not only passive participants but also as active contributors.
- (ii) what happens thereafter to non-completers and completers of the education system after a given period of drop-out or completion respectively, that is, whether the schools have made or are making any difference(s) in their individual lives and what "successes" or "failures" they have made that could be remotely or directly ascribed to the school education they have received, e.g., in their living conditions and life styles, their attitudes to life, moral behaviours and work habits, their social and political outlooks, and their economic well-being.

For the moment, however, we judge the "success" or "failure" of schools, that is, their "fitness" or "effectiveness" based on the following performance indicators considered individually or severally:

- (i) the repetition rate which is the relationship between students repeating a particular class and the total enrolment in the same class the year before;
- (ii) the leaving or drop-out rate, which is the relationship between those students who cannot, or who decide they do not wish to pursue their studies beyond a particular class and the total enrolment in that class in the same year;
- (iii) the promotion rate, which is the relationship between students in a particular class for the first time and the total number of students enrolled in the previous class in the previous year;
- (iv) the completers of the education system rate, which is the relationship between students who enrolled at the first class of the particular education cycle in a particular year and the total number of completers at the end class level of the cycle at the minimum prescribed number of years or at the maximum number of years possible (Wilson, 1970).
- (v) the successful completers of the education system rate,

computed as in (iv) above but taking into consideration only those who passed the terminal school certificate examinations at certain prescribed levels;

- (vi) the work-oriented completers' rate, within the primary or secondary education cycle, which is the relationship between students originally enrolled into the first class of the particular education cycle in a particular year and the total number of successful and unsuccessful completers of the cycle "x" number of years later, who are now gainfully and productively employed within the labour force within or outside the community;
- (vii) the jobless completers rate, computed as in (vi) above;
- (viii) the higher-education oriented completers' rate which is the relationship between students originally enrolled into the first class of the particular education cycle (primary or secondary) in year "x" and the total number of successful completers of the cycle in year "y" who have qualified for admission to post-primary institutions (in the case of primary school leavers) or to post-secondary institutions (in the case of secondary school leavers); *or* those who have been actually admitted into these institutions following completion of the lower cycles of education; *or* those who have shown promise, through performances already ascertained, of completing successfully within the new cycle; *or* those who have since successfully completed the new cycle (Adaralegbe, 1978).

#### IV. Modern Management Techniques for Education

The relevance of a discussion of the application of modern management techniques to the administration of educational services could be seen in the following illustration. The six blind men of Hindostan had gone into a zoo in order to find out what the elephant looks like. The first fell against the broad and sturdy side of the elephant and immediately came to the conclusion that the elephant felt like a wall. The second blind man feeling the tusk concluded that the elephant felt like a spear. The third, after feeling the trunk with his hands felt that the elephant was just like a snake. The fourth blind man, having felt the knee of the elephant concluded that the elephant was very much like a tree. The fifth man feeling the ear had no doubt at all that the elephant felt like a fan. And finally, the sixth man having grabbed the elephant's tail concluded that the elephant was just like a rope. These six blindmen disputed long and loud, each sure that he was right while others were wrong. While each was partly right, each was partly wrong. Practising educational administrators are often like the blindmen of Hindostan in a sense. Each administrator deals with a certain area or

areas of reality. But every practising administrator could also be said to be blind to other areas of reality in which he does not operate. The implication is that educational administrators should be exposed to all ramifications of an efficient and effective administration of the total education system, hence, the need for an understanding of the application of some modern management techniques in education. We discuss six such techniques, carefully selected in what follows.

##### (a) *Results and Achievement Oriented Management*

The need for results and achievements in business operations cannot be disputed. Each business enterprise exists in a dynamic world of rigorous cut-throat competition. To survive, the enterprise has to achieve some objectives, prominent among which is that of maximising returns on capital. Profit becomes the yardstick of assessing results and achievement in business.

In noncommercial operations such as those of educational institutions, government and parastatal organisations which provide service to the nation, the need for "results" was until recently, difficult to see and defend. Apart from these institutions and organisations being monopolies, it was not clear (nor is it quite clear to many people even now) what type of "results" to aspire towards and expect to get.

In the last few years, however, in the face of public outcries and outright condemnation of some government agencies, including the schools, these institutions are known to be showing increasing concern and interest in "results". Demands for satisfactory results by the public have, therefore, necessitated the need for accountable management which in the Fulton Report (1966-68) means:

holding individuals and units responsible for performance measured as objectively as possible. Its achievement depends upon identifying or establishing accountable units within government departments units where outputs can be measured against costs or other criteria, and where individuals can be held personally responsible for their performance.

Everything that could possibly be said against schools has probably been said by the deschoolers (Ivan Illich, 1971; Bruce Rusk, 1972; Peter Buckman, 1973; Kenneth Richmond, 1973),

that they stifle curiosity, penalize initiative, destroy the will to learn; that they discriminate against the working class child, that they inculcate middle class values, that they foster competitiveness and discourage cooperativeness; that they perpetuate useless knowledge, that they erode critical awareness and reward mindless conformity.

For the schools to justify their existence, in order to show value for the huge expenditures on them, and in response to the scathing criticisms about them, administrators must learn to be results and achievements oriented through accountable management.

(b) *Entrepreneurship*

Like achievement-orientation, risk-taking is an integral part of business activity. Calculating on "returns" likely to accrue, businessmen venture into the unknown by taking decisions on investment, expansion, diversification, invention, marketing and sales promotion, cartelisation, and trade merges. The pay-off is most frequently; but not always, profit.

The risk-taking element in business is not less suitable in the educational enterprise, particularly in an academic community, like a University, devoted to experimentation. Two problems, however, arise for the educational administrator. He is too afraid to take a risk lest he fails and he becomes an object of public criticism. On the other hand, many of us are content with mediocre achievement, and thinking which goes with experimentation and risk-taking, becomes our most dreaded enemy. Again, for the schools to reassert themselves and subsequently make their contributions to our communities, the administrators must be ready to take risks, to make mistakes and learn from such mistakes, to beat untrodden paths, to blaze new trails, and to be genuinely creative.

(c) *Planning*

Planning-forward planning, is an integral part of management, intimately connected with entrepreneurship. The dreams of an entrepreneur remain just dreams until he comes up with a blue-print showing how he intends to translate those dreams into action. The first thing, therefore, is to plan his dreams, and, in the process, strike out dreams that appear too wild and unattainable in given circumstances.

The essential steps in planning are, reviewing of the existing situation, setting goals and projecting needs choosing among competing goals and needs, gathering facts, reconsidering plan projections, and ultimate plan reformulation for action.

A planning model suitable for use in educational institutions is the Planning-Programming-Budgeting-System (PPBS) popularised by the series of famous researches on the subject at the RAND Corporation of America by David Novick (1954-1965).

The PPBS model identifies five operational and functional elements, namely, (i) planning, that is, making of strategic choices, relating means to ends, and of information gathering; (ii) programming, that is, determining manpower, materials and facilities

and, developing these into educational packaged activities; (iii) budgeting, that is, allocating available resources as well as assigning personnel, materials and time for the accomplishment of programmes; (iv) executing, that is, implementing programmes with specified activities; and (v) evaluating, that is, reviewing of performance, revising programmes, and reallocating resources based on identified performance levels related to stated objectives (Adaralegbe, 1968).

In educational institutions where the PPBS model had been introduced and followed up scrupulously, it has been possible to detect mistakes in good time and to change strategies midstream before any real damage is done to the education system or before huge financial losses are made to the detriment of the system.

(d) *Innovativeness and Creativity*

Creativity and innovativeness involve steering the ship of an enterprise, at times, through uncharted courses and in very rough weather. This is the exact opposite of sitting down still and complacent. An entrepreneur who continues to draw on his old dreams alone and who does not dream new wild dreams may become bankrupt sooner or later than he thinks. This is because his old ideas might have been rendered out-of-date and useless by developments in technology, the aggressive sales policy of his competitors, or the vagary of the market. To remain in business, he needs to conduct a constant review of his goals, his strategies and his tactics, and then adopt sometimes revolutionary, innovative and creative measures to deal with situations as they occur.

Today, innovation and creativity are institutionalised in many institutions through the setting up of Research and Development (R & D) units. Where such units are trapped in bureaucratic "red tapes", they will contribute little or nothing. Creativity is largely instinctual, thus very bright ideas could come from even the floor sweepers. It then becomes important for an organisation to become responsive to and encourage new ideas from all directions.

(e) *Management by Objectives*

Effective management demands management by objectives. The manager must first know, or inform himself, what exactly are his goals or objectives. He must devise procedures by which he can learn whether, and if so to what extent, his goals and objectives are being attained. If objectives are not being achieved, or they are being insufficiently accomplished, he must find out why, and then think of the various alternative methods by which he can remedy the situation.

As stated earlier in this Lecture, objectives of education must not be couched in catchy phrases which are not any better than political slogans. Educational objectives can be stated in terms of the end products expected to be delivered at the end of the educative experience. Similarly, instructional objectives are easy to state in terminal behaviours expected of learners. In either case, as warned before, objectives should be those that are reasonable of achievement, internally and logically consistent with other objectives, relevant, observable, and those that can be measured in order to assess their levels of performance.

(f) *The Management of Time*

A major constraint of managers or those at the head of institutions is lack of time to get things done. Many persons holding managerial positions (including principals of secondary schools as well as primary school headmasters and headmistresses) have so little time for functions of a managerial nature that they hardly manage at all. The management of time is therefore an important technique. It is based on the principle that all activities can be classified into operational and managerial activities.

Operational activities are those things a person does himself, like, answering the telephone, dictating correspondence to a stenographer, teaching classes, invigilating examinations and conducting tests, marking scripts, attending or presiding over meetings, preparing timetables, and, handling similar general routine matters.

Managerial activities, on the other hand, include duties a person carries out in order to get things done by other people. These require the understanding of and communication to subordinates of overall and sectional objectives of the institution, the allocation of resources, training, coordination, delegation, decision-making, supervision, control, assessment, and evaluation of work.

A manager's effectiveness is enhanced in proportion to the amount of time he devotes to his management functions and the extent to which he is able to reduce the time spent on operational activities to increase the time he spends on the more important managerial concerns. A school manager (ministry of education official, local school board member, school principal or headmaster) who is impatient, and who has "no time" to deal with matters involving policy planning or decision-making (aspects of management) is like the driver of a vehicle who says he is too busy attending to the starter switch gear, brake, accelerator pedal and other instruments to be able to chart his way through a slippery, muddy, unstable, winding, narrow and slopy bush path.

This writer once requested school and teacher training college principals attending a week-long Long Vacation Workshop on

School Administration (1972) to complete a proforma on how they used their time based on a number of items, already categorised into (i) attending to clerical chores—including attendance at meetings, signing letters and writing cheques, receiving visitors, and supervising building works; (ii) teaching, supervising other teachers' teaching, and coordinating instructional work; (iii) policy formulation; and (iv) writing textbooks, designing new curricular materials, attending professional conferences, and reading professional textbooks.

Analysis of results showed that most of these principals (seventy eight percent) spent a significant part of their working day on clerical chores, i.e. signing letters and cheques, receiving visitors, chasing money about, and supervising building works. Very few of them (about fifteen percent) taught any lessons, nor supervised other teachers while teaching in order to provide professional guidance for such teachers in the efficient and effective performance of their jobs. About ninety percent of the principals were engaged in travelling on "school errands". An insignificant percentage (about two percent) of the respondents were engaged in writing textbooks or in developing useful instructional materials for their schools. Most of them (ninety percent) responded favourably to attending professional meetings, particularly those of the Nigeria Union of Teachers, the State Principals' Conference, or the University-sponsored annual principals' workshops. Less than ten percent read any textbooks on education. About thirty percent claimed to read textbooks on school administration and management. Apart from occasional governing board meetings (convened about twice a year) and such other staff meetings at which questions of policy may be raised, a lot of these school officials (seventy percent) claimed that they had no time during the office hours to think and consider new school policies (Adaralegbe, 1973).

Some management techniques of time conservation are (i) making use of a secretary or assistant to take care of routine duties; (ii) making a rough time plan for the day setting out specific hours for teaching, routine duties, meetings, interviews, meeting people, creative thinking, supervising staff, and review of activities; (iii) holding staff meetings regularly to inform the staff and involve them in the process of decision-making, so that, having been part of the decision process, they would become more committed to its implementation in the achievement of institutional goals; and (iv) delegating functions with authority to subordinates while at the same time ensuring appropriate feedbacks through effective monitoring mechanisms.

## V. Implications for Implementation: Problems and Issues

Perhaps, the biggest problem posed for the Nigerian educational administrator today is the question of efficient and effective management of scarce educational resources (men, materials and money) to meet the unprecedented demands for free mass popular education. In the old African society, the purpose of education was clear. Functionalism was its main guiding principle. The African society regarded education as a means to an end and not an end in itself. It was an immediate induction into society and a preparation for adult life. Education emphasised social responsibility, job-orientation, political participation, and spiritual as well as moral values. Children learnt by doing, i.e., they were engaged in participatory education through ceremonies, rituals, imitation, recitation, and demonstration. They were involved in on-the-job situation learning experiences, e.g., in practical farming, fishing, weaving, carving, cooking, knitting, and so on. It was an integrated experience which combined character training with intellectual experience and physical training with manual and skill acquisition (Fafunwa, 1972). From the foregoing, the idea of "education for all" or, "the people's right to education" is not in question. Similarly, the present distinction between "training" and "education" was not as sharp as it has been made today.

The dilemma of educating our youths arose from the introduction of a system of western formal education through formal schools. The first difficulty was that there were not enough schools for every child to attend. The second problem arose from the fact that in the earlier days of the emergence of these western-oriented formal schools, most Africans were not ready to accept them and what they stood for. The third difficulty is that, in view of modern complex societies we now live in, nations have rightly or wrongly presumed that it is only by western formal education and through formal schooling, that nations can achieve their objectives of economic growth and social progress; national unity and political development, individual personal integration and social mobility, as well as the goals of a self-renewing society.

It is in this context of regarding education as synonymous to formal schooling only that the new slogan "education for all" or "universalising educational opportunities" becomes meaningful. A quick glance at the situation reveals that less than thirty percent of our adult population has any formal schooling at all. Even now, with the introduction of the Federal UPE scheme, less than sixty percent of the children of school-going age are in schools. Of this number, about twenty percent subsequently gain admission to secondary schools, that is, about twelve percent of all children who

are eligible by "right". And of those in secondary schools, about a further fifteen percent eventually gain entrance to different kinds of post-secondary or higher educational institutions, colleges of arts and science or of technology, advanced teachers' colleges, polytechnics, and universities. This means that for every one hundred Nigerian children and youths of the age group 6-24, only about two of them do now have the advantage of "higher education".

### (a) *The Moral, Legal & Philosophical Justifications for Free Popular Mass Education*

Since the call for popular free "mass education" has been anchored on the so-called "right to education" by all citizens, it is refreshing to consider the moral, legal, and philosophical justifications of this demand and "right".

Chief Obafemi Awolowo (1971) viewed the duty to provide for the individual's education to have emanated from the individual's having a "right" to education. He considered such a "right" as "inalienable, fundamental and absolute". The right to education, proclaimed Lapati (1976), is a "fundamental human right and it is not contingent upon the community's recognising it", since according to him, "rights flow existentially from the recognised nature of man". Quite a number of individuals (including Nigeria's Gani Fawehinmi: 1974) and institutions (chief of which is the United Nations: 1948) had drawn attention and public morality to the issue of "education for all" on the basis of the individual's "right to education".

The concept of "right" is one of the normative ones that is being used both in the descriptive as well as in the prescriptive senses. What is more, a variety of words are used to predicate the term "right" in specifying the kinds of rights referred to. For instance, we hear about people talking of "moral rights", "human rights", "legal rights", and "natural rights".

Exponents of the natural rights theory assert among the natural rights of man those of life, liberty, and the ownership of property. These rights are described as absolute, inalienable, inextinguishable, imprescriptive and indefeasible in nature because, it is claimed, they are not bound by the conventional laws. Rights that are commonly called natural are merely universal moral rights which include rights to certain things that are considered important to the existence of man and that are necessary for his development and civilisation. It is argued that man gets into the possession of these rights in his capacity as man because all that is needed of him to qualify for the rights is to be human. An important charac-

teristic of the said natural rights is their universal acceptance, e.g., rights to life, liberty, and fair trial before the law.

We may wish, at this point, to distinguish the differences and possibly the relationships between *possessing a right* and the extent or degree allowed for *exercising the right*, i.e., the distinction between the possessing aspect of rights and the exercisable aspect of rights. Granted that men possess absolute right to life, liberty and ownership of property as Locke would have us believe, but, does that entail exercising the rights absolutely? Experience shows that where rights are absolutely possessed, the conditions for exercising them may not be available. And as Norman Angell (1963) observed, "when all demand complete freedom, none has any". The fact that actions may and are sometimes in conflict stands to support an equally strong claim that absolute rights can also be in conflict among themselves.

The traditionally regarded human rights to life, liberty, and ownership of property as well as the so-called modern rights such as the right to education or medical and health-care are used sometimes interchangeably and regarded as human rights. The difficulty with this characterisation is its validity particularly in respect to its universal acceptance, the universal possession of such rights, and the universal correlative duty of actualising the rights. Rights to life and liberty, for instance, are rights not to be interfered with; they enjoin the negative obligation not to interfere; they do not require me or anybody else to give you your life or hand you your liberty; they prevent me from taking your life or freedom and you, too, from taking mine. All that is therefore necessary in order to benefit from possessing the above rights to life, liberty and property is that they be recognised and respected; and this explains why they attain universal status.

These natural rights are universally possessed by all men against all men. All men have rights to life and liberty and they all have duties, at least of non-interference, which correlate with similar rights of others. The new set of rights, on the other hand, that is those rights to education, medical and health care, for example, are mainly socio-economic and political in nature. Entitlement to them has to be "in accordance with the organisation and resources of each state" according to Article 22 of the Universal Declaration (1948). Although these rights are recognised as universal, their exercisable aspects are contingent on individual political setting and economic viability of individual states.

Another classification of "rights" is into legally recognised and morally endorsed rights. Legal rights are normally permissions and

sometimes entitlements that are recognised by the state and sanctioned by the legislative body of the state. The so-called moral rights also entail permission as well as entitlements granted to human beings, but these rights hold independently of statute laws; they are not necessarily recognised or enforced by the laws of convention. They involve an imposition of moral obligations. The difference between legal and moral rights is in the type of enforcement involved in the actualisation of such rights. A legal right is normally moral and recognised by the State and is enforced by the laws of the State. But it should be clear that not all legal rights are normally accepted rights because there are certain rights which are legally recognised and enforced but which are normally reprehensible and deplorable. When a right no longer commands moral endorsement, it either becomes a dead letter or its exercise begins to invite disputation (Braybrooke, 1968). However, the pertinent question to ask about moral rights is whether there is any universal morality.

Another controversial issue characteristic of talks about rights is the relationship between rights and claims. This controversy is in connection with whether rights make claims possible or it is claims that make rights possible. The right to education included in the Universal Declaration is not a right in the proper sense according to Bandman (1973) but a "claim to right". "Claims to rights" according to him "may be incipient rights" or "about-to-become rights", but they are not rights.

For the talk about right to education to be anything meaningful, it has to be with consideration of the provision of access to educational facilities. For some people, however, the right to education might not mean more than allowing the individual to educate himself and that might mean no right to education at all, or the right reduced to the right of liberty of action.

In summary, the right to education may be justified not necessarily on moral grounds as there are no universal moral laws as such. Such a right may not always be justified on human rights for, as we have seen, they may be mere possessive aspects of rights as the facilities for exercising these rights may not be available. We could only find justification for rights to education on the legal basis. This is what Gregory (undated) preferred to call the "welfare rights" on the basis of needs, individual rights as well as public interest, and which are provided for in the laws of the land in terms of not only the possessing aspects of such rights but also in regard to the exercisable aspects of actualising these rights.

The pertinence of this short discourse on "rights to education" and

the subject matter of this lecture could be seen in the immediate implications of the tragedy that befell this nation in the last month in the context of the national university crisis over fees. The fees crisis has also extended to secondary schools, and in some significant sense to primary schools by way of insufficient financial resources to meet expanding demands for quality education. The situation is even more serious. The more gross capital and recurrent expenditure on education we make, the less returns, in terms of results, it appears we are getting. Everywhere, there are signs of disenchantment with the schools and the educational institutions in connection with their poor quality and what had generally been referred to as falling standards in Nigerian education. Over these immediate and remote crises in Nigerian education, we are still not completely out of the woods yet. There is, therefore, the need for an unambiguous restatement of our National Policy on Education with particular reference to the implications of the rights to education of individual Nigerians and the operational strategies for enabling individuals to exercise such rights. To some people, popular mass education is synonymous with low or poor quality. This needs not be so. For it defeats the whole purpose of education as an instrument for individual and national development. It is inconceivable that products of an inefficient school or educational system will rise, as if by a magic wand, to become excellent leaders in their own spheres of authority within the national scope.

Since Nigeria needs now both quantitative and qualitative growth in her educational system, a few organisational suggestions are being offered in response to the problems and issues implicit in this lecture.

#### (b) *Policy Formulation*

We are advocating the need for an effective grassroot approach and support for planning and determining policy at the local level. For educational policies to be understood and implemented at local levels, the people themselves have to be involved and share the same sense of commitment to the achievement of the policy goals with the central government. The creation of powerless local education authorities without the professional staff and without the supervisory control for quality education is counter-productive for the success of the UPE scheme. These local education authorities must have all the resources to manage the UPE scheme efficiently and effectively. They need top-flight administrators. They require their own experienced professional education officers and inspectors who will constantly advise them and ensure the quality of the UPE scheme through constant supervision and control of the system.

As the Local Education Authorities become more and more experienced and efficient, the management of post-primary education must be transferred to them. It is only logical, since both types of institutions exist side by side in these local communities under the jurisdiction of the local education authorities.

#### (c) *Management Services*

As the demand for popular mass education at all levels grows, it becomes inevitable that we have to change our managerial services in education in response to the growing demands. By the time we produce the sixth generation of UPE graduates, that is, by 1988, only a decade from now, it would have become inescapable that in almost every village or groups of villages in a contiguous geographical location, there would be a community secondary school within reach of the village children. The need for school boarding houses would have been considerably reduced, for each child would walk to school. In another decade, it is expected that with increased work opportunities as well as attention to rural development, living conditions of our people would have so considerably improved that children attending secondary schools from home would not have to suffer any mental or psychological deprivation compared with life in existing school boarding houses. Money now tied to the building and maintenance of the boarding house system could then be properly re-channeled to the improvement and enrichment of school programmes and the raising of the quality of education in our schools. In township and city situations, we may, even, begin to consider the possibilities of an efficient school shift system, as in Lagos and Ibadan to create additional opportunities for many more children to benefit from education, and to conserve money for the improvement of existing facilities.

The concept of "work and study" approach to education management is worth considering at a time when our educational resources could hardly meet the pressing demands for education at all levels. In this connection, the ideas of "schools of the air", "correspondence education", "extra-mural education", etc. are worth exploring not just as substitutes to, but complements of the existing monolithic formal school education system in which everybody has to be in school for prescribed lengths of time to be seen to have been educated. In this connection, perhaps the emphasis on school examinations and certificates with the attendant problems of cheating and forgery of certificates ought to give place to a combination of strategies in which, for purposes of employment and reward, more consideration is given to what the individual is able to offer and not the certificates and diplomas he can exhibit.

A situation where local citizens regard all schools as government owned and not their own is hardly conducive to an efficient and effective education system. Not only is involvement and commitment required at local level; such involvement and commitment are necessary in the financial support parents can give to their schools. Improved sources of school revenue at the local level have to be explored for support of the schools in an attempt to make them more productive and responsive to local community needs. More importantly, our school managers require some formal and on-the-job training in the concept of efficient administration and effective management of educational resources to produce good results.

#### (d) *Control and Supervision*

It is an open secret that the education system has not got enough executive capacity for the efficient and effective supervision and control of the schools. Most schools remain unvisited through the years. Reports of visits of the few schools which are so privileged arrive too late for any meaningful follow-up action whether at the school level or at the ministry of education level. The few inspectors that there are feel frustrated because of lack of incentives for further training and advancement on the job.

Solutions for improvement lie in a new career cadre for school inspectors that will not make them look inferior in status to those they are supposed to supervise. Such a situation calls for the identification and recruitment of the right kind of persons for the inspectorship. Principals and heads of schools should accept increasing responsibility for the professional supervision of their staff on a daily and continuous basis. Other teachers, particularly at the primary school level should be identified, trained, and used as local supervisors of subject instruction in their respective schools or in groups of schools in a geographically contiguous area. It is by such means that new ideas and innovation in teaching and learning can be quickly and effectively disseminated to the far reaches of our local communities.

#### (e) *Educational Services*

Education authorities should be in a position to assess, in advance, on per pupil and per class basis existing instructional facilities at each level of the educational system, project future needs on the same basis, and take immediate steps, through a central purchasing system, to cost such facilities, order them and have them delivered where and when they are needed. For each local education authority area, educational materials production centres should be created where professionally trained persons will

work with teachers and officials for the production of suitable textbooks, class readers, workbooks, audio-visual materials and similar learning resources. School book fairs should be organised at local education authority levels for the identification and reward of talented and creative writers and resource producers.

#### (f) *Teacher Demand and Supply*

Surveys of teacher demands and supply should be carried out periodically at local and state authority levels to identify crucial areas of need. A greater reliance should be placed on the organisation of on-the-job training and re-training programmes for the vast army of unqualified semi-illiterate teachers in the UPE Scheme. Apart from attractive salaries and handsome fringe benefits paid to teachers by way of harmonising the Teaching Service with the rest of the Public Service, it is important to create a Teachers' Award scheme where Outstanding Teachers of the Year, in all subject fields and at all levels, could be given national, state or local recognition for their devotion, diligence, loyalty to children's cause, and overall contributions to the education system. We must also consciously create in schools and such other institutions favourable atmospheres conducive to the intellectual and professional growth of the teachers in the further enhancement of their professional growth and productivity.

#### (g) *Curriculum Improvement and Evaluation*

In each local education authority area, there should be a type of R & D unit to develop, test, adapt and evaluate curriculum materials for use in these schools. In collaboration with the university faculties of education and the Test Development and Research Division (TDRD) of the West African Examinations Council (WAEC), these authorities should develop sample test materials for assessing pupils' progress in all subjects and in other school activities. Similarly, new approaches in teaching and learning could be developed, tested and adopted for use by way of ensuring needed improvement in teaching/learning skills in schools.

#### (h) *Financing Strategies*

It has become fairly obvious of late that governments' intention of "free" education does not necessarily include provision of food, clothing, shelter and transportation for school-going children within the 6-24 age group. It will appear that such intention will continue to be sensible, rational and reasonable for sometime to come in view of state of the national economy. Rather than subsidise lodging and feeding costs of school goers, government

might be better advised to concentrate its financial support for the schools on (a) the expansion of school opportunities for many more children, (b) the increase in and improvement of educational materials and services including pupils' textbooks, and (c) the raising of the standards of education at all levels in order to improve the operational efficiency and effectiveness of the entire education system. The incidence of providing feeding and accommodation for school goers should fall squarely on parents and such philanthropic local organisations interested in raising funds to build hostels and dormitories where they are appropriate.

Local education authority agents should be able, through their research divisions, to furnish annual information on per pupil cost of education at each education level, and similar information of per unit cost of education per subject or educational programme. In this way, it is possible to compare the performance of each programme cost with programme output through examination results. The hope has been raised that if every naira appropriated for education services per year per school had been spent judiciously, there would have been more tangible results to show for such huge expenditures on education in this country in the last decade. To reduce waste and encourage judicious expenditure of school funds, regular pre-and-post audits of school accounts should be conducted, and schools should be classified for government grants, no longer by the number of pupils on roll, but by the efficiency of the school's management of its services and by the effectiveness of the school in terms of its results and products.

## VI. Operational Constraints

It should be pointed out that modern management techniques are serviceable tools in the hands of an effective school manager. The tools by themselves can never attempt nor claim to perform the needed tasks. The application and implementation of the concepts described and illustrated above depend very much on the understanding, character, enthusiasm, knowledge, ability, and goodwill of the school administrators themselves as well as the encouragement and freedom offered by government agencies.

Because these management ideas appear new and that they are a serious departure from our conventional approach and traditional roles as school managers; because they demand that we think (and effective thinking is by no means an easy job); because the application of these concepts requires imagination, creativity, and adaptability on our part (which are no rare qualities to be found in ordinary persons); because the results of application and

implementation may not be quickly forthcoming, and therefore, it could be sometimes frustrating being seemingly lost with the ideas and being alone with it; and perhaps, because this new fangled idea about "scientific management" may tend to disturb the equilibrium in certain quarters, it is possible to expect a reasonable degree and measure of resistance to the application of these management techniques at the initial stage of introduction and experimentation. It is also possible for cynics to daub the ideas as impracticable in view of the large measure of bureaucratic red tape that exists in our ministries of education.

A second set of problems (quite apart from human problems) may relate to the logistics of introduction, namely, the needed training, knowledge and information required by all who aspire towards implementing these economic, performance-measurement tools in education. Such training may not be forthcoming, or it may be haphazard, ill-conceived, misdirected, and lacking in vigorous follow-up activities in order to reinforce such learning and ensure its constant use in real school and education settings. There is the additional question of material and financial support to launch out into the new era of effective management of our educational services. A good and well articulated educational policy would be a worthless document if the administrative, managerial and financial support are inadequate to make it take off the ground.

There appears to be internal constraints too, in the organisational structure of educational management from the federal down to the local education authority levels. There are unpublished studies of the resulting human frailties and frictions in certain ministries of education where non-professional educators become the chief executives and permanent secretaries of these ministries. With little or no inside knowledge of the workings and problems of these ministries, they are still expected to be the chief advisers of the commissioners who are the political heads. Frictions occur when professional educators are by-passed in the critical process of decision-making. There had been persistent calls in recent times (Udoji Commission Reports, 1974) which had fallen to deaf ears on the redressing of the intolerable situation.

The biggest constraint, in our view, relates to the number of government agencies supposedly responsible for the administration and management of education at state and local levels. In a number of states, there have been created a multiplicity of such bodies of managers with conflicting roles that make efficiency and effectiveness impossible to achieve. In such states, there are, for example, in rank order of importance:

- (a) the Ministry of Education with its traditional powers derived from the Republican Constitution (1963) and those enjoined on it by the Education Laws and Regulations of the State in matters of opening and closure of schools, the curriculum, quality control through the inspectorate division of the Ministry, and of policy formulation and professional advice to the executive council through the Commissioner for Education;
- (b) a State Teaching Service Commission with powers in respect of primary and post-primary institutions for the appointment, promotion, discipline and dismissal of teachers; for the issuance of testimonials and preparation of annual reports; and for the assessment of teachers' salaries subject to guidelines from the ministry of education;
- (c) a Schools Management Board with powers for posting and general deployment of the teaching staff; for preparing establishment proposals; for arranging leave matters; for responsibility for maintenance and repairs of schools; for consideration of annual budgets; and for notification of staff vacancies to the Service Commission;
- (d) a State Advisory Board, as the name implies, playing the devils' advocate in an advisory capacity with no specific functions or responsibilities identified for it;
- (e) Local Education Authorities ostensibly responsible for management of primary education at the local government authority level but with no powers over the teaching staff and with no professional staff of their own for the necessary supervision, guidance, training and quality control required for operational efficiency and effectiveness of the UPE scheme.

This kind of managerial structure creates its own internal conflicts among the different groups of administrators as well as for the teachers who are supposed to be served by these agencies. The situation calls for a critical analysis, discussion rationalisation, and ultimate review. The call for a Unified Teaching Service Commission becomes reasonable if it will serve as an all-purpose board of management for all educational institutions. It will have committees set up with delegated powers for (a) the recruitment, re-training and retention of staff; (b) curriculum and materials development; (c) quality control, tests and evaluation; and (d) planning and policy matters.

## VII. Conclusion

The implications of the application of management techniques in education are by no means easy. The necessary information and

training facilities are yet inadequate. For a successful implementation of these techniques, the university faculties of education throughout the country have a role to play.

On our part here at Ife, we have tried to make our modest efforts felt at local, state and national levels. We began in 1969 with an identification of training needs and a survey of administrative problems and issues. Through our Long Vacation Seminar Workshops for headmasters of primary and post-primary institutions in the then Western State (and subsequently for the Federation of Nigeria) we have provided on-the-job training facilities for these practising school managers.

Our new Department of Educational Administration and Planning has mapped out and is conducting research activities and training programmes at undergraduate level (as part of the existing bachelor's degree in education) and mostly at the post-graduate diploma and degree levels. In the last five years, we have graduated about ten M.A. students in educational administration with emphasis on school business and financial management, personnel and instructional administration, as well as physical plant management. We also have about twenty-five candidates in the pipe-line for the various specialisations. Our first doctoral candidate whose research is in the area of efficient and effective financial management in selected schools of a certain state is very likely to graduate at the end of this session. For the future, we have planned to carry our on-the-job training programmes in educational administration and planning to state ministry of education headquarters as we had successfully done this session.

The sum total of our message in this Inaugural Lecture is that the effective functioning of our educational system depends very largely on the level and competence of its management in order to achieve anticipated results and success. Effective school management, just as in a textile industry or in a cement factory, requires good planning, a measure of risk-taking and anticipation that is entrepreneurship. It requires innovativeness and creativity.

We should constantly remind ourselves that organisational, administrative and management structures and styles are mere tools to enhance our ability to deliver the goods. They are a means towards an end of achieving success in providing quality education for our children. Such success in education will be determined, in the long run, in terms of the extent to which products of our educational system fit adequately into the larger communities to which they belong, and the extent to which they not merely passively

participate but also actively contribute to the development of these local communities.

It is our hope that theorists and practitioners alike in the field of educational administration and management will like to constantly remind ourselves that the only justification for our being in business is to facilitate learning rather than constrain it. Whatever management techniques we adopt must sincerely be seen to promote instead of deter effective learning.

The most recent excruciating experience at crisis management in our educational system reminds me of what an African official termed the principle of operation for education in his country, that is, the precept of *les pas timids sont les pas surs*, meaning, timid steps are sure steps. As Hanson (1965) has reminded us, in tranquil times, such a policy might have much to commend it. But these are unquiet times for Nigeria when strong and restless forces are on the move. In such times, the counsels of timidity seem strangely out of touch with reality. There are times for timidity and times for audacity. And in a day that calls for audacity, timid steps may prove the most unsure steps one can take

Finally, we must remember that we cannot continue indefinitely to use the tools and techniques of yesterday and still expect to be in business tomorrow. Furthermore, efficient and effective administration demands from all concerned a deep sense of honesty and integrity.

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