

EMERGING ISSUES IN
EDUCATION MANAGEMENT
IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
IN THE 21st CENTURY

JAMES L. NKATA, Ph.D.



FOREWORD

To be an effective institution in a changing world; education must respond to changing needs. The challenges now facing education in the 21st Century include:

the need to democratise first level education; the need to make the content of education relevant to the needs of the client systems;

the need to modernise teaching and equip leaders with a repertoire of management techniques

the need to manage education systems more efficiently and effectively

the need to make higher education more effective as an instrument of national development.

This book places these emerging issues at the centre of programmes to improve education in developing countries.

Very little help is available to those saddled with the responsibilities of managing education both at the systems and institutional levels in order for them to achieve their goals. There is limited provision for in service training in educational institutions management and there exists very little literature on their management in Africa. Many skillful, hardworking and enthusiastic teachers who have risen to the position of leadership or who are expecting to climb to that height, look in vain for analysis of the task ahead and how an educational leader might operate. This book is providing a welcome relief.

Dr. James L. Nkata is uniquely placed to compile this compendium. As a manager at the systems level, he has seen a variety of the problems that education institutional heads face.

PREFACE

The world is changing as knowledge gradually replaces physical capital as the source of wealth. Rapid changes in technology, ways of life, social set ups, and mechanisms of sustainable human developments have led to remarkable changes in the way people live and work. In the face of all these developments, education becomes important. Countries are struggling to educate their people to fit into the globalised environment. The quality of knowledge and its availability to the wider community is increasingly becoming critical in national development. Increased demands on education by the communities is putting a lot of pressure on nation governments to invest heavily in education. This is because, research and experience has caused a deeper understanding of how education contributes to economic growth, poverty reduction, and democratic thinking and practices. It is also because investment in education is perceived as contributing to the accumulated human capital.

The twenty first Century is witnessing the rapid growth of education systems in developing countries due to expanded enrolments and high costs of education. The major challenges facing education in the 21 st century in these countries are:

- (a) to increase access to education
- (b) to improve quality and equity
- (c) to initiate educational reforms that ensure transformation of developing countries into developed ones

In a bid to meet all these, most developing countries have embarked on programmes that can enhance their achievement. A number of initiatives in education are being promoted. Such

initiatives include introduction of universal basic education, reforms in curriculum and quality control, reforms in teacher education and the teaching profession, restructuring education governance, management, and leadership, and building strong higher education sector. These initiatives have prompted a number of issues to emerge in the area of education management. The issues are causing demands for new management approaches.

The success of all these initiatives largely depends on the management processes put in place. This calls for knowledge of the emerging issues in education and their theoretical and conceptual underpinnings.

This book identifies some of these emerging education management issues. It gives their theoretical, conceptual and contextual perspectives. Its purpose of this book is to give readers a deeper understanding of these issues and how best they can be managed.

Dr. James L. Nkata
Department of Higher Education
School of Education
Makerere University

CHAPTER 1

THE POTENTIAL CONTEXTUAL ENVIRONMENT OF A UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

The inter-relationship of the values, goals and the assumptions of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme and the contextual environment in which such values, goals and assumptions are interpreted, determine the characteristics of the nature of the perceived UPE programme. It is these characteristics that give shape to the form of UPE implementation desired arrangements which in turn determine the desired out-comes of the programme at any level of society. Effective implementation of a programme like UPE depends heavily on how its concepts and implementation arrangements are contextualized. This chapter therefore, tackles the question of variables that constitute a potential contextual environment in which the UPE concepts can be interpreted.

- b) Establishment of the basic contextual environmental factors that are likely to impede effective implementation of the UPE programme.
- c) Identification and suggesting effective actions to ensure successful implementation of a UPE programme in the context of the identified contextual environmental factors.

THE PERCEIVED ENVIRONMENT OF UPE

The Perceptions

The introduction of the UPE programme in any country prompts various perceptions about its applicability, given the environment in which it has to be implemented. Central to these perceptions is the question of the stake-holders' participation in the programme. The underlying assumption of this question is that, stake-holders need to participate in the programme to the extent that they choose cognitively, and physically engage in establishing, implementing and evaluating the overall direction of the programme. This implies that they have to be involved in the following activities:

- a) diagnosing and defining problems,
- b) articulating priorities,
- c) setting goals,
- d) collecting and analysing information,
- e) assessing available resources,

- f) designing and implementing strategies,
- g) apportioning responsibilities among participants,
- h) managing the programme,
- i) monitoring progress,
- j) evaluating results and impact,
- k) redefining problems generated for further action.

These perceptions have strong bearing on peoples responses to the arrangements of programme implementation. Similarly, the way the programme designers and the managers perceive the stake holders' roles in the entire life of the programme determines the responses of both to each others actions. It is therefore important that the question of perceptions has to be properly handled if a programme like UPE is to receive a modest reception.

Significance of Stake-holders' Participation in the UPE Programme

A central mechanism to stimulate and facilitate the development of UPE is the stake-holder's participation in decisions affecting the life of the programme, and to ensure sense of efficiency or competence which emerges as a function of the ability to influence and control the variables of the programme. Participation then would serve as an instrument to achieve the goals of UPE.

At social level, the stake-holder's participation in the UPE

programme is considered to be intrinsically linked to an individual's self determination, a human right, thus a value in itself to be realized in all spheres of life.

The argument of having an environment where the stakeholders participate in the programme, assumes that each of them participates in affairs that affect the life of UPE either directly or indirectly. This approach promotes self determination of the stake-holders in matters that affect them and the programme. Therefore, people have to be perceived as having capacity in terms of wisdom and intelligence to collectively exercise participation in the programme. Consequently, they will be inclined to be responsible, interested in the programme, informed, rational and cooperative.

For such a kind of situation to occur, the management environment of the programme has to allow the use of the inherent capacity of the people, progressive development of the programme and giving the programme impetus and direction with the aim of improving decisions that affect the entire programme. Furthermore, such an environment allows people to control the destiny, functions and operations of the programme. This calls for the development of consciousness and confidence among the people. Focus therefore, has to be on personality growth, development of individual potentials and efficiency, and mental health in the context of the programme goals. It would be dangerous if the designers and the management of a programme like UPE are insensitive to the stakeholders' feelings and ideas, as doing so may lead the programme into awkward situations.

However, it must be noted that, the participation for the stakeholders must function within the social, political and economic

environment of the country if it is to survive.
Thus the importance of proper contextualisation of the programme arrangements.

Accessibility of Stake-holders' Participation in the UPE Programme

Accessibility to participation in the UPE programme is another factor that must be considered when considering the environmental factors that affect the programme. What is meant by accessibility is the continuum reflecting the different access the Stake holders have to the actual decision making or the amount of influence they can exert towards a given decision outcome. Central to this, is the point at which the stake-holders gain access to the flow of information relevant to a particular decision and the point of their intervention. Underlying this accessibility is the hypothetical arrangement of power-sharing that exists in the management structure of the programme.

Social Range of Stake-holders' Participation in the UPE Programme

The term social range of stake-holders' participation is used here to refer to the range of people involved in the programme and the extent of their involvement in the decision-making process, implementation and management. This social range provides answers to questions about:

- a) where the boundaries for participation are drawn and the determinants and consequences of these social range boundaries.

- b) The kind and intensity of social interaction process in the entire programme.

It is only when those questions are correctly addressed by the designers and the management of the programme that harmony will prevail among all interested parties.

However, a distinction between individual participation, which emphasizes autonomy and achievement, and group participation which involves group pressure must be well drawn and articulated, as not doing so, may lead to conflicts in understanding various expectations, approaches, and actions.

THE POTENTIAL IMPLEMENTATION ENVIRONMENT OF THE UPE PROGRAMME

The potential implementation environment of UPE is defined in the context of the values people and government attach to the programme and how both interpret each others values. That is, the perceived relevancy of the programme to the perceived demands on education. This potential implementation environment is determined by:

- a) The characteristics of the society which form the context out of which the values, goals and assumptions of the UPE programme emerge.
- b) The country's technological characteristics (laws and regulations) which determine the programme implementation.
- c) The characteristics of the groups of people that produce the programme out-comes .

Those three determinants form the contextual factors that set limits to the potential implementation environment of UPE by moderating the degree to which the values, goals and assumptions are reflected in various configurations of the programme, and the degree to which these characteristics result in certain outcomes. Let each of these factors be examined in detail:

The Societal Characteristics

The term societal characteristics as used here refers to the pervasive influence of the society on the UPE and the social processes that govern the programme. The variations of social perceptions on the UPE emphasize the importance of the societal characteristics in understanding the design and outcomes of the programme arrangements. In considering the impact of these characteristics on the implementation of the programme, special examination of the economic status of the society, the level of social development, the prevailing social politics, and the social concerns and feelings about schools and school education must be made. All these have a strong bearing on the shaping of the social characteristics which impact the implementation process. Therefore, the relationship between the societal characteristics and the designed outcomes of the programme need to be systematically conceptualized.

However, it must be noted that, although the societal characteristics have a strong influence on the implementation potential of UPE other conditions representing other contextual factors may change the process by which society influences the implementation of the programme and the strength of that influence. Such factors may include politics, characteristics of leaders, politicization of the programme, individual inter-

pretations and usage of the programme for personal purposes.

Characteristics of the Focal Organisation

- Ministry Responsible for Education

The characteristics of the management of the Ministry responsible for education as an organisation directly responsible for implementing UPE have a strong bearing on the programme implementation potential. The ministry boundary conditions for the UPE arrangements are characterised by :

- a) implications of the implementation arrangements for the general management e.g. strategic planning, capacity building etc.
- b) the effects and the constraints of the technologies used by the ministry e.g. teachers' conditions of service, financial regulations, education acts etc.
- c) the many organisational support and maintenance mechanisms required by the programme arrangements which arise out of different perceptions e.g. personnel, finances, infrastructure, and pedagogical support facilities.

Three of those combined drive the ministry's capacity to effectively implement UPE. This emphasizes the importance of having a strong management structure with technically well informed professionals at both strategic and operational levels. In addition, an efficient information management system has a strong bearing on the planning process of the programme.

Characteristics of other organisations

The implementation of UPE needs an inter-organizational or inter- sectoral approach. Consequently, there is a need to relate the implementation of the UPE programme by the Ministry responsible for education in all the roles and functions of other organizations and agencies and the process by which they interact. This is based on the following arguments:

- a) The degree to which the country develops and supports the required human capacity for the implementation of UPE may severely limit the programme.
- b) The way in which the Ministry responsible for education interacts with other relevant organizations in its environment is likely to have a bearing on their participation potential support in the programme.
- c) Different structural conditions and strategic orientations as well as the resulting differences in inter-organizational interactions are likely to set boundaries for the implementation process.

Group characteristics

The inter-group and Intra-group processes in the process of implementing a UPE programme, have a direct bearing on the implementation arrangements. That is, the power distribution in the UPE management arrangements illustrates the boundary conditions of group characteristics on the programme implementation potential. Therefore, the integration of the decision-task characteristics, individual attributes, and group processes can affect the properties and outcomes of the UPE

programme. This is so, because, a particular decision task in interaction with the characteristics of individuals and the resultant group process, set limits to the values and goals the UPE programme is intended to serve and the kind of properties and outcomes it can have. Underlying all these arguments are the questions of power and influence and issues of leadership. Such questions concern themselves with the information about how power and leadership processes set boundaries for stakeholders' participation in the programme.

It is therefore important that groups like teachers, as professionals, should have a share in the power distribution of the programme and their concerns and feelings should be taken into consideration.

Characteristics of Individuals

The individual characteristics as boundaries for the programme implementation potential are considered as the most important elements of the potential for the success of the implementation process. The way individuals, either at strategic or operational levels behave within the programme, affect to a great extent, the responses of the stake-holders and beneficiaries towards the programme implementation. The individual understanding of the programme, the level of competence of individuals and sufficient numbers of individuals required at various levels of implementation, influence the success of the programme.

The educational and developmental outcomes of the programme for individuals are related to the characteristics of individuals in interaction with other contextual boundary factors. The boundary setting role of individuals' abilities, attitudes and values are preconditions and consequences of the programme. The programme designers and the management

have to seriously consider factors that can induce positive work-related behaviours among individuals when structuring the implementation strategies. This is because, it is the

ple who are empowered, have power to find direct solution to their problems, they propose solutions but don't beg for them.

Thirdly, there cannot be standard recipe for achieving successful UPE development. What makes it work varies across different economic, political and cultural context. It is facilitated by the organization of groups which are able to provide mutual support and to gather individual needs into collective demands. The achievement of successful development of UPE arises through a number of factors namely:

- (a) animator of animating organisation;
- (b) the mobilization of popular or political will by the existing structures such as political parties;
- (c) the process of the gradual empowerment of local groups or committees and promotion of their interest in the programme;
- (d) the conscious decentralisation of the programme mechanisms or the creation of local institutions to self-govern the programme

The last implication is that, decentralisation is crucial in an

- (b) The second is to improve on the quality of decision-making and planning by relating these processes more closely to the communities, culture, local conditions, needs and practices.
- (c) To encourage innovation and participation.
- (d) To increase local responsibility and accountability.
- (e) To stimulate communication down and up the system of control.

In the context of decentralization, participation in the implementation of the programme is ultimately seen to be a means to ensure wider representation of legitimate interests in social structures and to make these interests more responsible for the quality of UPE. (Decentralization is discussed in detail in Chapter III)

Conclusion

In conclusion, a successful UPE programme has to be supported by a conducive environment in which the concepts of the programme can be interpreted.

Despite the participatory approach to its development, numerous problems can be instrumental in particular contexts and under particular conditions. Similarly, it can be instrumental in enhancing people's capacities as individuals, and as groups, to improve the implementation of the programme and to take greater control over the programme's development. This can occur under the following conditions:

- a. The management of the programme recognizes and moves to control the possible negative aspects of the programme.
- b. The dominant actor in the development of the programme (the government) is committed at all levels to working more collaboratively and encouraging greater partnership with other partners in UPE development. In order to encourage more partnership in the development of UPE at national, district community and school levels as well as greater participation of other interested people, it is necessary for this actor (government) and other agencies, which support the programme, to affirm such a commitment. It should develop the organizational norms, skills and attitudes, as well as the structures and procedures required to implement UPE.

REFERENCES

- Ahier J. & Elude M. (1983), Contemporary Education Policy-
London Longman
- Blackledge D. and Hunt B. (1985): Sociological Interpretation
of Education, Bechenham, Groom Helm.
- Ghani 2.. (1990): The use of participatory, school based and
Community support innovation in Formal Basic
Education, Thailand.
- NFER Journal (1989): Education Research Vol. 31: 7-12.
- INFER Exchange (1981): Can participation enhance
Development. East Lansing, Michigan State University of
International Studies No.20.
- Shaeffer S. (1991); A Framework of collaborating for
Education change: In HEP Research and Studies
Programme, Paris UNESCO
- Weiler H. N, (1992): Decentralization in Education
Governance. (Unpublished). Wilpert B. (984):
- Participation dimensions in Organization Administrative
Science. Quarterly, Vol. 22.
- Wilpert B. & Darchler H. P. (1978): Conceptual Dimensions
and Boundaries Of Participation in Organizations: A
critical Evaluation: Administrative Science. Quarterly
Vol. 23.

CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF HEADS AND THEIR IMPACT ON MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Leadership has been recognized as vitally important for education institutions by education practitioners. This recognition has come at the time when the challenges of education institution leaders are more demanding than ever. Such challenges include quality improvements, social fragmentation, diverse expectations and resource scarcity. This calls for these leaders to increase their range of conceptualization and theoretical insights into leadership in

The Concept of Leadership

Writers such as Tim Hannagan (1995) defined leadership as the process of motivating other people to act in particular ways in order to achieve specific goals. Laurie J. Mullins (2002) says that leadership is perceived and interpreted in many different ways which lead to a conclusion that leadership is simply getting others follow. Leadership is related to motivation, interpersonal behaviour, the process of communication, and effective process of delegation. This implies that leaders exert influence on their subordinates levels of motivation and performance. To understand the concept of leadership one has to be knowledgeable of theories of leadership.

Among the greatest contribution to leadership theories has been the works of Dauglaas McGregor (1960) in which he developed theories x and y. Theory x leaders tend to believe that people are lazy, they have an inherent dislike of work and that they have to be coerced, controlled and directed. Theory y leaders believe that people seek work as a natural phenomenon, that, they accept responsibilities and fact seek for it. This theory detects that, the way a leader perceives what people are, determines his/her treatment of these people and consequently the characteristics of his/her leadership styles or behaviour.

Trail theory according to the humanists seeks to identify personal characteristics that effective leaders posses that distinguishes leaders from followers and effective leaders from ineffective ones. Behavioural approach to leadership focuses on what leaders actually do. According to Ohio State University study, leaders' behaviour help individually to achieve their goals through

- (i) *setting goals for followers,*
- (ii) *telling followers what to do*
- (iii) *considerate behaviour where leaders trust, respect, and value good relationship with these people*
- (iv) *Initiating structure where leaders make sure that work gets done and subordinates perform their jobs in an acceptable manner.*

The contingency theory takes into account the personal characteristics of leaders and the situation, and it considers how both affect leaders' effectiveness. That is why some leaders are effective in one situation and ineffective in another. The theory was based on the premise that good leadership depends **on a** match between leadership and situational demands.

Fiedler E. F. and M. M. Chemers (1974) suggest that, the key to leadership success is pulling the existing style to work in situations for which they are best fit. According to Fiedler and Chemers (1974). the amount of control a situation allows the leader is a critical issue in determining the correct style - situation fit. Fiedler believes that prospective leaders should actively seek situations for which their predominant style is most appropriate.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) presented the situational theory of leadership with a belief that the effectiveness of leadership approaches depend very much on the maturity of the subordinates. Both argue that, successful leaders adjust their styles depending on the maturity of their followers, indicated by their readiness to perform in a given situation. Leadership styles that follow under the situational theory include

- (i) *delegating style; which allows the group to make and take responsibility for task decision,*

- (ii) *Telling style, which gives specific task decisions, and closely supervises work*
- (iii) *Participatory style, which emphasizes shared ideas and participation in decisions on task direction*
- (iv) *Selling style, which explains task directions in a supportive and persuasive way.*

They concluded that, the situation plays an important part in deciding the leadership styles to be used by the leader. Therefore, leadership style should be adjusted as the nature and characteristics of followers change overtime.

The participatory theory of leadership associated with Vroom and Yetton (1973), emphasizes the extent to which leaders involve subordinates in decision making. The theory implies that leaders have always to use leadership styles that complement the situational needs. Participatory theory is designed to help a leader choose the method of decision making that best fits the nature of the problem being faced.

The path goal theory describes how leaders can motivate their followers to perform at a high level and how they can keep them satisfied. Developed by House (1971) the path goal theory, suggests that an effective leader is one who clarifies paths through which followers can achieve both task related and personal goals. The leaders help people to progress along those paths, to remove any barriers that stand in their way and provide appropriate rewards for task accomplishment. House (1971) as cited by Mullins (2002) identifies four leadership styles that may be used following the path goal assumptions: These are;

- (i) *Directive leadership style that leads a subordinates*

- to know what is expected of them.*
- (ii) *Supportive leadership style in which efforts are made to make, work pleasant.*
 - (iii) *Participate leadership style which emphasises the involvement of subordinates in decision making*

Leadership styles Classified

Rost (1991) as cited by Mullins (2002) defined leadership as a multi-directional influence relationship between a leader and followers with the mutual purpose of accomplishing real change.

According to Gary Yukl (2001) leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and

to do what they wouldn't have done in order to achieve a set of goals.

To understand Leadership styles (behaviour), one has to consider not only the personal make up of the leader, but also to make up of the followers and the specifics of a particular situation. Certain styles of leadership simply do not fit certain types of followers or situations.

It is this interface between leader, follower and situation that make leadership so complex. Each leader adapts a particular leadership style and develops certain competencies because of his/her inner theatre. An individual leadership style as embodied in various roles that the person assumes while in a leadership position is the consequence of a delicate interplay of the forces in that person's inner theatre and competences he/she has acquired over time. What is regarded, as effective leadership style for one organisation maybe an extremely ineffective style in another.

According to J. Newstrom J and Keith D. (1971) leadership style is the total pattern of explicit and implicit leader's actions as seen by employees. Employees' perceptions of leadership style are all that really matter to them. Changes in leadership styles affect followers' perception basing on motivation, power or orientation towards tasks and people.

Leadership styles refer to a particular behaviour applied by a leader to motivate his or her subordinates to achieve the objectives of the organisation. Tannenbaum and Schamidt (1973) described various factors, which influenced a manager's choice of leadership style. They took into account the leaders need to consider certain practical considerations before

deciding how to manage. They concluded that there were three main forces on a leader in deciding a leadership style.

These are:

- (i) *Personal forces* - These include the leader's own background, experience, confidence and leadership inclinations.
- (ii) *The characteristics of subordinates* - These include the leader's need to consider subordinates' relative willingness or unwillingness to accept responsibility and take decisions.
- (iii) *The situation* - This is the leader's need to recognize the situation in which they find themselves, in terms of corporate culture, their colleagues, style of work, the nature of the tasks to be performed and time pressures.

Tanner Baum and Schmidt (1973) therefore argued that leaders need to consider a full range of options before deciding how to act from a very autocratic leadership to a very democratic one. They further argue that if all employees are accountable and influential in decision making process, the best role for the leader maybe to follow, hands - off approach.

Cole G. (2004) added, internal dynamics of the group, the nature of the task and the competencies of group members as other factors that influences leadership behaviour:

These arguments suggest that the leader has to strike a balance between the needs of the people, task and goals in a given situation.

One of the most important elements of leadership situation is the style of the leader. The leadership style refers to a particular behaviour applied by a leader to motivate his/her subordinates to achieve the objectives of the organisation. The style of managerial leadership towards subordinate staff and the focus of power, lead to a leadership style. Scholars have classified leadership styles into the following categories;

(i) **The authoritarian (autocratic) style;** According to Laurie J. Mullins (2002), the authoritarian or autocratic leadership style is where power is with the leader and interactions within the group move towards the leader. The leader alone exercises decision making and authority for determining policy, procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationships, control of reward or punishment.

Okumbe (1999) adds that, authoritative leadership style centralizes power, authority and decision making.

(ii) **Democratic leadership style:** Laurie, J. Mullins (2002) present the democratic style as the one where the focus of power is more with the group as a whole and there is greater interaction within the group as a whole. This is where the leadership functions are shared with members of the group and the leader is more a part of the team. The group members have greater say in decision making, determination of policy, implementation of systems and procedures.

(iii) **A laissez-faire (genuine) leadership style:** This is where the leader ensures that members of the group are working well on their own. The leader consciously makes a decision to pass the focus of power to members, to allow them freedom of ac~

tion to do as they think is best and not to interfere. Okumbe (1998) argues that under this style, the leader tends to avoid much use of power and authority, but, depends largely on the group to establish goals and means for achieving progress and success.

Leadership and Management

Mullins (2002) viewed management as getting things done through people in order to achieve stated organisational objectives. Similarly, Paul Hersey et al(1982) argue that management is a process of influencing of people to exhibit desired behaviours. This can happen by applying the management functions such as planning, organisation, and controlling which are taken as central to any discussion of management.

Planning involves setting goals and objectives for the organisation and developing work maps showing how the goals and objectives are to be accomplished. Every organisation must have a plan to achieve the objectives in order to ensure that they have the right people, doing the right job, with the best possible equipment at the right time.

Daft., R. (1988) said that, planning defines where the organisation wants to be in the future and how to get there. Planning means defining goals for the future organisational performance and deciding on the tasks and amount of resources needed to attain them.

Organising involves an integration of resources, it is seen to involve working within a corporate culture to provide good communication and effective human resource management in order to motivate employees. With organizing, Daft (1988)

argues that, it typically follows planning and reflects how the organisation tries to accomplish the plan. Organising involves the assignment of tasks, the grouping of tasks into departments and allocation of resources to department.

Controlling involves feedback of results and follow up to compare accomplishments with plans and to make appropriate adjustments where outcomes have deviated from expectations.

All management functions are interrelated. Despite the differences, there is close relationship between leadership and management in work organisations and it is not easy to separate them. Many methods of management training can also be used as a means of measuring leadership style.

To be an effective manager it is necessary to exercise the role of leadership. A common view is that the job of a manager requires the ability of leadership and that leadership is in fact a subset of management although leadership is a special attribute, which can be distinguished from other elements of management. In the work situation, it has become increasingly clear that managers can no longer rely on the use of their position in the hierarchical structure as a means of exercising the functions of leadership.

In order to get the best results from the subordinates, the manager must also have regard for the need to encourage high morale, spirit of involvement and co-operation, and willingness to work. This gives rise to consideration of the style of leadership.

What is institutional leadership?

The term institutional leadership can best be understood from

the perspective of what a head of an institution as a leader does to lead. It can also be best understood by linking it to the purpose of leadership in an institution. Leadership in an institution situation can be perceived as the ability, through whatever means, to influence, the behaviour of teachers, parents, students in the institution to behave in a particular way perceived as desirable by the institution. The head's ability to influence the members of the institution community through leadership, helps to determine the extent to which both, individuals and the institution as a whole accomplish their goals. Effective leadership is an essential ingredient of effective institutional management. This perception of leadership makes it difficult to give it a definite definition. It is rather like beauty, it is hard to define it, but individuals can recognize it when they see it. However, the perception seems to suggest that there are two key features of institutional leadership.

- a) A sense of purpose and confidence is engendered in followers (institution community).
- b) Followers (institution community members) are influenced towards achieving Institutional goals.

These key features make it clear that the effects of institution leadership are apparent in the feelings and actions of the teachers, students, parents, and workers and in the achievement of the institutional goals.

Leadership therefore is a pivotal point around which institution effectiveness rotates. However institutions are located in various environments which are believed to have strong influence on their

success. This suggests that, institutional leadership has to be appropriate to the environment. That is, it should be contin-

gent.

Functions of an institutional head as a leader

The institution head needs both, influence or power, and the ability to use concepts to coordinate all the institution resources and to direct them effectively toward accomplishing objectives. The head is the dynamic life giving element in the whole institution. He or she uses concepts as tools, which may be divided into the areas of creating, plan Tc(e) Tj0.266

c) Organising

The third conceptual area that heads use is organizing. After the planning has been completed, the head determines exactly what activities are required to accomplish the objectives. The head then will group these activities into workable units by structuring roles, activities, objectives, authority-responsibility relationships, and the flow of information and communication in the institution.

d) Motivating

The fourth function of the head is motivating members of the institution to accomplish the institution objectives. Briefly, motivating means discovering the stimuli for particular individuals, that will lead to desired behaviour. The institution system of rewards is used to help each individual accomplish his or her objective, that is, the persons individual reasons for being in the Institution. In other words, members are motivated to work for the institutional objectives when their concept of the institutions objectives is closely comparable to the actual institution objective and when their work will lead to the satisfaction of their individual objectives for themselves.

e) Communicating

Except by accident, nothing is done in an educational institution without the fifth area - "communicating". Communicating may be both verbal and nonverbal, but no interaction can take place without some form of communication. Communicating is important in discovering what the individual's personal and organizational objectives are. When communication has provided all of this information, the several concepts can be integrated as

much as possible and related to other concept. Because the work of all members of the institution community must be coordinated, the opportunity for faulty communication can exist at every point in the institution's performance.

f) Controlling

Controlling, the sixth area, compares the events that took place in the institution and the objectives that were attained with those that were desired. If deviations are discovered, appropriate correcting action is taken. On the other hand, if results were satisfactory, members should be told that their behaviour was acceptable, they should be appropriately rewarded.

Controlling reduces the amount of uncoordinated behaviour; it leads toward more order, discipline, and coordinated performance in the institution. Controlling provides the answer for whether or not the current performance of the institution should be continued, or what corrections might be needed to make the performance satisfactory. Planning sets goals. Controlling tells how well the institution is working toward achieving them.

The appropriate leadership at a particular point in time in an institution depends on:

- a) The context and pre-history of the institution.
- b) The nature of the people constituting the institutional community.
- c) The particular issues involved.
- d) The predisposition of the heads as leaders.

The Implication of this is that, much as the head may have his/her preferred leadership style, he/she may need to vary the styles according to circumstances.

The reference to context draw attention to a connection between leadership and institutions. Institutions need leadership which is associated with roles in them.

Institutional Heads as Leaders

Schon (1984) observed that heads of educational institutions should be leaders. However not all leaders need to be in management positions. Scon's observations indicate a close relationship between management and leadership, in that, both are needed for the successful operation of the institution. Heads often share their leadership role with others in the institutions. The manner in which such roles are shared and the kind of facilitation heads provide will determine the effectiveness of that shared leadership. In a nutshell, a head of an institution needs to be a manager as well as a leader.

What leadership skills do Institutional heads need?

A head of an institution needs a number of skills of leaderships to effectively achieve institutional goals. Scholars have grouped such skills into three distinct groups namely:

a) Technical skills:

These are the most important at lower levels of management.

b) Human Relations Skills:

Heads spend much of their time dealing with people. They therefore need interpersonal relations skills and the ability to obtain cooperation from the institution staff, pupils, parents, and local leadership and wider community. Lack of human relations skills leads to situations where leaders find it difficult to cause people behaviour in desirable ways. Consequently the institutional operations and productivity will be affected as leaders resort to coercing people into desirable behaviour. They will develop tendencies of dictatorship and anti-social behaviours which are detrimental to the institution success.

c) Conceptual Skills:

These involve the ability to view the educational institutions in strategic terms. They include the ability to plan and execute institutional plans effectively. They call for heads to be far sighted and focused. There is need to understand their institutions and the environments in which they operate to give them a base for planning and executing plans. Skills of looking ahead, to see the realities of today and the possibilities of tomorrow in the institutions, will enable the institutions to survive the wave of changes and competition.

Perspectives of Institutional leadership

There are five perspectives on institutional leadership:

- a) Situational leadership.
- b) Four frames of leadership.

- c) Leading professionals.
- d) Moral leadership.
- e) Curriculum leadership.

Effective institutional leadership needs some discussion. The word effectiveness may suggest objectivity, but any assessment of effectiveness will involve varying degrees of subjectivity depending on who assesses and how. There are two distinct but related approaches. Assessment can be made on the basis of the effectiveness of the process or of the outcome. That is:

- a) the actions of leaders
- b) the results of the actions of leaders.

Where institutional leaders are carrying out necessary but unpopular tasks to achieve desirable ends there may be very different assessments resulting from those two approaches. In addition there may be differences depending on who makes the judgment and on the basis on which it is made. Some basis for Judging leadership behaviour in institutions are:

- a) personal subjective attitudes
- b) general moral and philosophical principles.
- c) Theoretical leadership prescriptions.

The first assessment is a very personal one from those who are directly influenced by leadership. The second one asks for a judgment for the actions of the leader based upon moral and philosophical principles.

The third one is based on the extent to which specified theo-

retical leadership prescriptions have been followed.

Institutional leaders play a major part in the formulation of the intended institutional outcomes.. However, there maybe difficulties in identifying a direct leadership influence on outcomes. Instead, effectiveness as judged by the effect of leadership on intermediate variables connected to the institution outcomes, such as staff attitudes, may be all that is feasible.

a) Situational Leadership

One major break through in conceptualization of institutional leadership has been the recognition that a contingent or situational approach is necessary. What is appropriate and likely to work well in institutions, depend on a number of factors. One important factor is the context in which leadership is operating. This was described by Hersey and Blanchards (1988) as being the main stream of leadership. The key variables for choosing effective situational leadership style in an educational institution are:

- (i) the leaders preferred style of leadership.
- (ii) maturity of the followers (in terms of task performance).
- (iii) expectations of the followers.
- (iv) the nature of the task to be done.

The appropriate leadership style will depend on the context. It must also be recognized that appropriate leadership needs to be situational, but also that individual leaders have their own preferred styles which reflect their personality.

b) The four frames of leadership:

Scholars have of recent identified four frames of leadership which they have attributed to educational institutions.

These are:

- a) Structural frames, which largely focus on a rational view of management. That is, leaders concentrate on institutional goals and use rational analysis and formal mechanisms of control and a well organized institutional structure.
- b) The human relations frames; which concentrate on the behavioural aspects of management and harnessing the motivation and commitment of the institution community members.
- c) The political frame; which recognizes that, individuals both within and without the Institution have their own private agendas of interest. Thus there will be seats of power which may lead to conflict if skilful political arts of forming coalitions, bargaining and negotiation are not used. The political leaders act as advocates and build coalitions.
- d) The symbolic frame or visionary leadership or transformational leadership. Each of these items help to sketch the facets of this framework. Transformational leadership is concerned with the study state or transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is concerned with carrying out routine tasks rather than taking on new challenges.

Visionary leadership is concerned with providing followers with insights into the nature of the new challenges and what is to be



achieved. The symbolic leader is a creator of possibilities. This is more than merely concerned with immediate tasks and represents a distant improved future. It provides followers with rationale for their work. Symbolism also gives meaning to the task and provides a way of demonstrating the new approach, inspiring, and giving confidence to institutional members.

c) Leading professional

Situational leadership has been drawn from general ideas on the leadership of organizations. However, educational institutions have some special features which may have implications for leadership. Such features include:

- i) Means and ends are both important,
- ii) The institution has a moral purpose,
- iii) The core work force is professional.

This implies that the institution leader has to act as chief executive in a managerial capacity and as a leader in a symbolic and political sense.

In addition, the leader of a professional staff organization also needs to be the leading professional. He/She must espouse professional values and possesses appropriate professional knowledge and judgment. If the head is to lead and influence classroom practice, this has implications for the quality and decency of the pedagogic and curricular knowledge which he/she needs.

d) Moral Leadership

Education institutions have either an implicit or an explicit requirement to contribute to the moral education of the young. Thus institution leaders should be moral leaders. This raises questions whether institution leaders should have certain moral qualities and whether their personal actions should have particular moral requirements.

Further questions are whether the education of students needs to be organized in a moral way in order to develop adults with a moral sense. Does management of a moral institution have to be conducted in especially moral way in view of the moral education of children within them? Drigman and McPherson (1992) in their theory of educative leadership, ascribe a realm of ideas to judgments about what is of value and what is significant in education of students. They see this as a third component in addition to management and leadership, which is required of an educational leader. This emphasizes the importance of the moral qualities of the leader and the moral processes which go on in institution.

However some people have argued that an institutions purpose is educational no matter whether this is applied to students or staff. The staff should also be learning in an institution, with implication that their learning should be moral learning.

e) Curriculum Leadership

The concept of a leading professional implies that the head has an impact on the professional work of the institution, including the teaching and learning which goes on in teaching institutendg

f) Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership can be considered from two points of view:

- (i) the task to be achieved (or functional approach).
- (ii) The means by which these tasks are achieved (or process approach).

Let me discuss these approaches one by one

a. The Functional Approach

Krug (1992) identified five components of instructional leadership namely:

0 Defining Approach

The mission includes both the end of the schooling and also the means of educating. This needs to be communicated to staff and students.

ii) Managing curriculum and teaching:

This has two components namely:

-Organization of curriculum and teaching, which involves coordination of the work of academic staff and the making of the institutional level decisions.

-Leaders need to provide information, which academic staff need to plan their class and also stimulate curriculum development. Thus-institutional leaders need up to date

knowledge of curriculum research and theoretical developments.

iii). Supervising Teaching:

Heads have a role in the summative evaluation of teaching, but it is argued that they need to work with teachers. There should also be a more formative element focusing on development rather than evaluation.

iv). Monitoring Student Progress:

Student progress is the reason for the whole activity of the head and so their principle role is to understand student assessment and to check on progress, in ways that help teachers and students improve and help parents understand where and why improvement is needed.

v). Promoting positive teaching climate

The head's primary objectives is to motivate people by creating conditions under which people want to do what needs to be done, and protecting them from external interference. By affecting the institution, institutional- level climate and culture, the expectation is that, the classroom level climate and culture may also be influenced.

b. The Process Approach

This approach emphasizes three main linkages between the behaviour of the head and the classroom processes. These are:

(i) Bureaucratic and structural linkages:

The structural mechanisms for linking the head's leadership behaviour to classroom teaching includes the following:

Policies, rules and procedures.

Plans and schedules.

Vertical information systems.

Supervision and evaluation

These include clarifying in general terms what has to be done, planning how it should be done, devising information systems to monitor what is being done and evaluating outcomes and processes.

(ii) Direct interpersonal linkages:

These include working with and influencing individual teachers' classroom practices. This may be in association with classroom observation or more general one to one interaction.

(iii) Cultural Linkages:

These involve shared meanings and assumptions. Such assumptions are powerful as a means of influencing actions because they are implicit and rarely questioned at the conscious level. Many leadership actions may have a symbolic value in terms of indicating institutional priorities. Therefore what leaders pay attention to matters a great deal.

Characteristics of an Institutional Leader

Institution leaders should possess many characteristics. However, such characteristics are determined by the nature of the institution and the kind of leadership an institution demands. Generally, there are eight basic characteristics an institution leader must possess:

a) Intelligence

Leaders should be of relatively higher intelligence levels than the people they lead. They should be intellectually alert, well exposed and informed. They must be in position to make rational and constructive decisions based on an informed position. In other words, he/she must be intellectually dependable and reliable. By being so, the people they lead will have confidence in them and will believe in them.

Consequently, they will accept them as their leaders. This motivates people and makes it easier for the leader to cause the followers behave in a desirable manner.

b) Social maturity and breadth

A leader of an institution should be emotionally mature. That is he has to be emotionally detached in situations of difficulty. This instils confidence of him in the followers. He/she should also have a broad range of interests to cater for various categories of people in the institution.

c) Inner motivation and achievement driven:

Leaders should develop the desires to want to achieve and when they achieve one goal they should strive to achieve

another. In this way, the Institution and people in it will grow. This will necessitate setting achievable targets for the institution community and helping the members to achieve them.

d) Human relations attitudes:

Institution leaders should have positive relations with the people they work with. They should respect individuals and realize that such individuals are the most important in accomplishing tasks in the institution. They should also try to be considerate of others in the institution and avoid being selfish especially in the way of benefit distribution.

e) Situation sensitivity:

A head as a leader has to analyze the situation of the institution and decide on the kind of leadership skills to employ. He/she should be sensitive to whatever is happening in the institution at any particular moment and also be capable of anticipating the likely outcomes of particular situations. Being sensitive to situations enables the leader to adapt to different leadership roles and situations. A good leader

g) Initiative:

A leader should be initiative, self-motivating and self-driven. An effective leader always looks for things to be done and does not wait for them in his/her office.

h) Confidence:

A leader who is self confident and self-assured instils confidence in his/her people. Self-assurance is a behaviour that must be exhibited by a leader in a number of situations.

i) Individuality:

A leader should have characteristics which belong to the leader as an individual and which distinguish him/her from others. It is these distinguished characteristics, which will attract people to follow the leader and accept his/her leadership. If people in an institution see value in what you are and what you do, then they will accept you as their leader.

Conclusion

In conclusion it is important to re-emphasize the generally accepted belief that the head's leadership behaviours in an institution has much to do with the success or failure of an institution. From the discussion in this chapter, it can be concluded that heads have an obligation to exhibit the most desirable leadership behaviour in institutions, if their institution are to survive. The survival of an institution depends much on the leadership abilities and skills of the head.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adair J. (1981): Developing Tomorrow's leaders: A University contribution: Guildford: University of Surrey.
- Anton de Grauwe (2001): School Supervision in four African countries (Vol. 1 + II) HEP, Paris.,
- Bass, B. & Avolio, H. J. (1993): Improving Organization Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership: Thorns and Oaks, CA, Sage.
- Bhatt, B. D. & Sharma, S. R. (1992): Educational Administration: Emerging Trends: New Delhi: Karishka Publishing House.
- Gary Yuker (2002): Leadership in Organization; 5th Edition Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Geoffrey Lyons & Ron Stenning (1986); Managing Staff in Schools: Hutchinson; London.
- Ibtisam Abu-Dukon (1999); School based Management: Fundamentals of Educational planning No 62. HEP, Paris.

CHAPTER 3

DECENTRALIZING AN EDUCATION SYSTEM: THE CONCEPTUAL MAP

1. Introduction

In recent years a clear trend towards the decentralization of control over the education service has emerged. This trend is evident both in developing countries and in countries where mass education has been firmly established for a considerable period.

Decentralization can take a number of forms. It may involve only moving the administrative apparatus of a centralized state system out from headquarters to local areas. At the other extreme, it may imply transferring substantial powers away from the state itself towards local government, institution proprietors or even the institutions themselves. It may be seen also within the individual institution.

These various kinds of organizational change what they have in common is that, decision-making is moved out from central authority. People nearer the classroom are empowered. Greater variation in policy and practice becomes possible. The system can become more responsive. It is also more open to some forms of abuses. All forms of decentralization thus involve shifts in the distribution of powers and functions among the

various sources of authority within the system. This chapter discusses these orientations and gives practical approaches to decentralisation.

2. Sources Of Authority

In most countries, control of the education service is, at least to some extent, shared among a number of different types of authority. Almost invariably, power ultimately lies with central government, in that by legislation it has the capacity to withdraw from other partners.

(Exceptions exist in the case of some federal states where entrenched laws protect the rights of states or provinces). In other cases, even where significant authority is given to bodies such as local authorities, the powers of these bodies derive from central government and could be revised or revoked by central government.

In most cases, therefore, the most important single organization concerned with the management of education will be the government ministry. The role of such ministries varies widely. In some cases it is largely confined to such activities as setting educational standards and monitoring performance. In others, it extends to direct management of schools and other establishments.

Most countries also give important powers to a number of non-governmental organizations which, nevertheless, base their authority upon statute. Bodies concerned with the registration, discipline or employment of the teaching profession often fall into this category whether in the shape of relatively remote professional bodies such as the Teaching Service Councils or in the much more significant cases, the Teaching Service

Commissions of a large number of countries.

In most countries there is also a substantial body of private schools which are not owned by the government or by any local authority but by in2bt b2d. bn

tier of government. In other cases, the interest will be in developing a district level of management of the ministry itself. In some countries, such as Great Britain, one trend is to transfer power away from the middle tier of local authorities towards central government on the one hand and individual schools on the other. Within schools there may be a desire either to emphasize the need to develop 'whole school' policies or alternatively to foster the autonomy of individual departments.

The concept of decentralization may, therefore, imply a transfer of powers in any one of a wide range of ways among the complex of legitimate sources of authority within the education system. This chapter seeks to identify a number of the common factors which would apply in most of these circumstances.

3. Advantages of Decentralization

Present trends in the management of education take place against a background in which confidence in central planning has greatly diminished. The collapse of the communist regimes of Eastern Europe and the very evident internal stresses being experienced in Russia are considered by many people to have demonstrated the inefficiency of large scale state planning even in countries with, by world standards, relatively developed industrial economies. For the purposes of this chapter, it does not matter whether these perceptions are correct. It is sufficient that they are widely held and help to create a climate of opinion in which decentralization is liked to be seen as desirable.

A second fundamental change also contributed to this climate opinion is the new technology. The growth of new technology has made it more possible than ever before to take key decisions at relatively local levels. Information can be made more readily

available throughout the system than in the past. It becomes ever easier to reconcile genuine local autonomy with strategic control at a central level. Within this broader context in which a climate generally favourable to decentralized systems of management and control prevails, a number of potential advantages relevant to the needs of the education service can be perceived. Among such advantages include the following:

- (a) Local control evidently encourages responsiveness to local needs. Even in quite small countries conditions are not as homogeneous as a highly centralized system requires. Empowering local communities or district authorities can often result in decisions being made on the basis of greater knowledge and in a way which is likely to yield more appropriate needs.
- (b) Even at the level of the individual school or college, differences of geography, resources, tradition and personal preference imply a need for some kinds of significant decision to be within the powers of local management. Indeed, it can be argued that variety among institutions is in itself a virtue, allowing choice, encouraging experiment and permitting the relative effectiveness of different approaches to be assessed.
- (c) Decentralization can speed up the decision making process. If minor issues have to be referred to some remote central authority, rapid response is out of the question. Furthermore, the ability of the centre to deal with its legitimate strategic concerns is impaired. Ministry headquarters become paralysed by the need to reach decisions on a limitless number of minor matters which, by their nature, will be imperfectly understood in an office

remote from the particular district or school.

- (d) Decentralization, encourages the development of a clear distinction between strategic control which is the proper function of the centre and operational management which is more efficiently carried out locally. This distinction in turn helps to create an organizational structure which is both effective and responsive. It should be noticed, however, that the separation of strategic and operational control may in practice be difficult to achieve.
- (e) A serious problem in highly centralized systems is one of scale. The sheer number of individual schools or the size of the area mean that the issues are frequently beyond the comprehension of even perfectly capable administrators. Transferring powers to local level means that managers are dealing with issues which are much more readily understood.
- (f) Decentralization encourages initiative and improves the quality of management, particularly at local level. In a highly centralized system key figures such as district officers or head teachers are denied decision making opportunities and frequently have little, if any, management training. Their quality of management is, therefore, not surprisingly, often poor.
- (g) Decentralization releases human potential. People respond to increased opportunities to use their talents and energies productively.
- (h) Greater involvement in the decision making process improves morale, leading to enhanced job satisfaction and

better motivation,

- (i) A well designed system of decentralized management increases accountability. Clarifying the respective roles of central government, local government, school management and other agencies makes it possible to set appropriate targets for each.

4. Problems of Decentralization

Highly centralized systems did not emerge by accident. They reflect several very legitimate concerns. Governments wish to ensure that the education system respond to national priorities. They want to promote equality rather than allow richer areas to progress while others are denied opportunities. It is important of all, at least in the context of Africa, it is seen as essential to expand the system and extend opportunities as widely as possible within a very short space of time.

The formidable increase in pupil numbers in a short span of years is a tribute to the success of the approaches adopted. The present focus on less centralized structures may perhaps reflect a stage at which emphasis on issues of quality rather than numbers has become appropriate.

If increased decentralization is to work successfully there are a number of potential problems which must first be addressed:

- a) Greater local autonomy implies greater variety. As noted earlier, variety can in itself be a considerable virtue. It can also, however, be a reflection of different standards of provision and spasmodic attention to national policies. If these problems are to be avoided it will be necessary to clarify in considerable detail what are the

standards expected. A well-defined policy framework is thus an indispensable element of a decentralized system.

- b) Any system of educational management depends on effective monitoring. Even in the most highly centralized system, the centre needs to know what is taking place in each of thousands of individual schools. When those schools are permitted greater freedom of action the need for information increases. Furthermore monitoring requires to become more sophisticated as the extent of local differences increases.
- c) At first glance it seems much more difficult to ensure fairness in a decentralized structure. In particular, the equitable distribution of resources presents apparently greater problems. In practice, decentralizing can help to clarify the issues and lead to more effective solutions. For example, there is no reason why the government should not define particular areas as being 'areas of need' in which a higher capitation allowance is paid. The process of creating a more devolved structure makes resourcing issues more explicit and allows government to reach rational conclusions about matters which may currently be taken for granted.
- d) Any attempt to spread decision making powers more widely throughout the system inevitably implies a need for increased training. It may also impose demands for new equipment, particularly computers. However, it is important to recognize from the outset that the costs in terms of developing human expertise will be much greater than any material costs and require to be addressed more

urgently.

- e) Effective decentralization depends upon clear demarcation of the functions and powers of the different tiers of management. It should not imply duplication of effort. Nevertheless, it will almost certainly require increases in staff and equipment. Decentralization will not prove a cheaper form of management; its justification must be that it is better.

Prerequisites of Effective Decentralization

Decentralization has a variety of potential meanings. It can refer to the process of delegating central government functions to local government or to regional or district structures within government departments. It can refer to the empowerment of individual schools and colleges. Within establishment, it can mean giving greater autonomy to departments and individuals. It can indeed be a process applying at all of these levels simultaneously.

Clearly the means by which decentralized authority is made to work effectively also differ depending on the type of structural change which is being contemplated. However, there are three key elements which are likely to play a significant role in any programme of decentralization and which can be seen as prerequisites of success:-

- a) A decentralized system is likely to be ineffective unless there is some structure of public authority at a local level. The authority may be a local arm of central government or a forum of local government. It may operate at a regional or district level. "Whatever form it takes, there

will be a need for officers of reasonable seniority able to exercise initiative and take decisions.

They will need to be properly trained and must be supported by an adequate administrative structure. They should have the means of knowing what is happening in the schools in their areas and should have the authority to require compliance with national policies and reasonable standards of provision.

- b) Monitoring and evaluation will depend on the existence of a field inspectorate, sufficient in numbers, training, confidence and skills for their task. In small systems the local officers and the inspectors may be the same people. In larger systems the inspectorate will be the eyes and ears of senior officers at regional or district level.
- c) The key to successful delegation must be the creation of an effective management structure at the level of the individual school. Such a management structure can evidently take many forms. It may encompass a role for parental and community representatives on management committees as in several African countries or on Boards of Governors of schools. It can take account of the interests of school proprietors such as churches.
In all cases an indispensable element is effective day-to-day professional management through the head teacher with, in larger schools, support from other promoted staff. It is for this reason that training especially management training for head teachers and aspiring head teachers is central to any programme of decentralization.

Successful decentralization also requires that appropriate

mechanisms exist for sharing functions and powers among the various levels of the structure or among the partners contributing to the running of the system. Two of these; scheme of delegation and a well-defined policy framework, may prove particularly helpful in clarifying the process of decentralization and establishing a structure which functions efficiently.

Scheme of Delegation

Effective decentralization within the structure of an organization (whether it be a ministry of education, a local authority or any other body) is assisted by a clear mapping out of the channels along which decisions are referred and the powers which are held at various levels. One way in which this exercise can be carried out is through the drawing up of a formal scheme of delegation. Such a scheme would begin from a statement of the powers of the organization itself. In the case of a public body this would probably be contained in legislation. Thus, for example, the Ministry of Education may have the power (and duty) to maintain a register of recognized primary and secondary schools. The law may also say that the ministry has the right to inspect schools to ensure that standards are being met and that it has the power to lay down what will constitute acceptable standards.

Who within the ministry has the duty of maintaining the register? At what level is a decision made to add a school or to remove a school's registration? What is the mechanism for carrying out inspections? Who draws up the annual programme? Are the standards contained in regulations approved by the minister or are they drawn up administratively? What are the consequences of withdrawal from the register?

The answers to such questions would provide the basis of a section or a scheme of delegation.

Drawing up a Scheme of Delegation

Drawing up a scheme of delegation is largely a process of clarifying existing procedures with a view to either building them into the scheme or modifying them as necessary. It is important that this should be done in such a way as to assist people to do their jobs or find out where a particular decision might be obtained, without inhibiting future change or imposing unnecessary bureaucracy. A scheme should, therefore, be detailed enough to provide guidance but not so detailed as to become rigid and unhelpful. It is important that the process for modifying the scheme should be straightforward enough that changing it is not seen as a formidable obstacle in the road to progress.

In relation to each area of activity, the following preparatory steps may be helpful:

- a) Establish that the activity does lie within the authority of the ministry (or the TSC or the local authority, depending upon which body is drawing up the scheme).
- b) Identify what powers the body has. (for example, the TSC may be able to determine the method of appointing teachers but have no control over the level at which staffing standards are set).
- c) Devise a flow diagram setting out the stages by which the general power is translated into a decision in the field.

(Thus the ministry may have both the powers and the budget to carry out essential building repairs. What are the stages to be gone through in order to reach decision to undertake a particular repair on an identified building?).

- d) Review the diagram in order to eliminate cases of duplication of effort or confused lines of management.
- e) Identify a particular level in the structure at which each staff identified in the flowchart can appropriately be carried out and try to ensure that decisions are being taken as close to the point of implementation as is reasonably practicable. (Thus it will probably be necessary to take decisions about major new building projects at a very senior level so that priorities can be established within a limited capital programme. There is no such necessity in relation to routine repairs).
- f) At this stage in the process, it will probably be necessary to determine thresholds for identifying decisions of similar types but differing importance. (Thus, in the case of the building repairs, the threshold could be financial. Expenditure up to a certain level might be authorized locally with larger sending decisions requiring to be referred to a higher level. By contrast, in relation to curriculum matters, the threshold would be more likely to refer to the type of decision. Thus, it might be decided that a district authority could add to but not subtract from the compulsory elements in the national curriculum).
- g) Ensure that the emerging scheme of delegation allows for unforeseen difficulties and adverse circumstances (what happens if the local community thinks more extensive repairs are needed?)

Is the officer who took the original decision the final source of authority? Has allowance been made for any process of reviewing controversial decisions?).

- h) Review the job descriptions of the staff involved at the various stages to ensure that the scope of activities and responsibilities implicit in the scheme is allowed for.
- i) If necessary, review staffing levels or grading to reflect new responsibilities. This should be as likely to imply a decrease as an increase in staff. If the introduction of a scheme of delegation is accompanied by a process of decentralization, the net effect should be a transfer of responsibilities and, therefore, staff- including decision makers from the centre to the field.
- j) The scheme should indicate clearly the steps that must be taken in order to bring about changes in its operation. These should be simple but are likely to require clearance at a fairly senior level.
- k) Incorporate the scheme into a convenient handbook which is clear and readily accessible.
- l) Each stage should be undertaken in a consultative manner, giving both staff and users of the service the opportunity to comment and make suggestions.

Policy Framework

A scheme of delegation can provide only an administrative skeleton. Successful decentralization of control demands not only a management structure that is clear but also a well defined

concept of what the education system is seeking to achieve. If government policies are to be carried into effect by a large number of local managers of various types, they must first be clearly formulated and effectively communicated. The counterpart of a satisfactory scheme of delegation is, therefore, a well-conceived policy framework.

Such a policy framework would need to cover all those areas of policy where government wished to ensure compliance with nationally- established norms. Obvious examples would include national staffing standards, a national curriculum and so forth.

There can, of course, be considerable scope for debate over what might comprise a satisfactory national policy framework in any of these areas.

framework or political system.

Furthermore, the development of major policies takes time and existing policies could not be systematically reviewed except over a fairly generous timescale.

Nevertheless, if it is intended to introduce greater delegation of authority, it is important that the concept be built into the process of policy making and review. There is no point in having a declared intention of delegating if the policy statements being issued start from the assumption that all important decisions will originate from the centre.

It is possibly reasonable to start from an assumption that power will be decentralized and then consider what exceptions have to be made. In other words, adopt an approach to policy making which puts the onus of proof on those who want to draw a decision into the centre.

A New Kind of Relationship

Thorough implementation of a programme of decentralization essentially involves the development of a new type of relationship between the centre and the other elements in the system. Whatever the variety of decentralization which is being introduced, a kind of contractual relationship begins to evolve and should perhaps be made explicit.

This trend is most easily seen at the level of the individual school. Clear policy statements, improved school management and a well defined delegation of powers to local level allow the school greater discretion but within a prescribed framework. Government is entitled to expect a certain type of service to be delivered (e.g. prescribed curriculum to be made available,

specified groups of pupils to be admitted or approved teaching methodologies to be employed) and required minimum standards to be met. To enable these targets to be fulfilled public support is likely to be available in the form of funds, staff, training, teaching materials, equipment or premises. Failure to provide the stipulated service could result in the application of sanctions which might ultimately include withdrawal of recognition or discontinuation of grant.

A position thus develops in which the public authority specifies a service, provides support and monitors performance while the individual establishment provides the service within a stated framework. The same type of relationship can be seen with somewhat less clarity in the relations between other sources of authority in the system. Thus the government may effect, contract with churches and others as major providers of education. It may fund local government to be the provider of education of a stated type and quality.

The key to success lies in clarity of purpose and function. A system does not require to be run from the centre in order to develop clear aims and effective means of putting them into practice. What is needed is a common sense of mission, clear policies effectively communicated and logical demarcation of powers and functions at all levels. If these requirements are met, delegation allows the release of initiative and energy in the service of shared objectives.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Apple, M. W. (1996): Cultural Politics and Education Domains,
Jack(ed-) (2001) Sociology of Education Today.
London; Palgrave.
- Arnott, M- Bullock, A. and Thomas, H. (1992): Consequences
of Local management, An Assessment by head-
teachers.
- Paper presented at the ERA Research Network, University of
Inovrick.
- Bullock A. and Thomas, H. (1997): Schools at the Centre? A
Study of Decentralisation. London. Rutledge.
- Bullock A. and Thomas H. (1994): The Impact of Local
Management of Schools, Final Report. Birmingham:
University of Birmingham.
- Coopers and Lybrand (1988): Local Management of Schools.
London. HMSO.
- Demaine, Jack (Ed) (2001): Sociology of Education Today.
London: Palgrave-
- Geoff Whitty (2002): Making sense of Education Policy Paul
Chapman Publishing: London.
- Hill, Dave, Mclaven, Peter, Cole, Mike and Rikowski, Glenn
(eds.) (1999): Postmodernism in Education Theory.
London : Infnell Press

Laurie J. Mullins (2000): Management and organizational Behaviour: London. Pitman Publishing,

Michael Armstrong (2001): Human Resource Management Practice, 8th Ed- London Kogan Page.

Tooley, Jones (2000); Reclaiming Education. London: Cassel.

CHAPTER 4

TEACHER EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING PROFESSION: THE CHALLENGES OF THE 21ST CENTURY TO TEACHER MANAGEMENT

The Patterns of Changes **and** their Impact on the Profession

Albert Einstein in his article published in Development Outreach Magazine of World Bank Institute (2001) stated, *"The world that we have created to date as a result of our way of thinking has problems that cannot be solved by continuing to think in the way we thought when we created them"*.

Similar words can rightly be used to express the situation in which teacher education and the teaching profession are confronting in the 21st century. The kind of teacher education and the teaching profession that has been created to date as a result of the politicians; educationalists', and community's ways of thinking has problems and challenges which cannot be solved by such groups continuation to think, in this 21st century, the way when they created them.

Globalization, localizations, technological advances, and the abundant knowledge created as a result of research have created

challenges and problems to the teaching profession which cannot be overcome by using traditional mechanisms and continuing to think in the contexts of the past. However the past can only give us the foundations for initiating new approaches.

The importance of education, for which teachers are the principle agents, to the development of individuals, communities, and societies has of recent become a centre of focus. Education is increasingly being perceived as an instrument by which people are made able to fit into the current era of rapid scientific and technological advances. Education to play this important role, the teaching profession which is the principal agent of education has to be shaped in such a way that it becomes responsive to the demands on it. For any individual to understand the challenges and problems that the teaching profession is facing in the 21st century, one has to know the factors which have shaped the profession up to-date. Such knowledge would enable an individual to understand the current predicaments of the profession and explore possible strategic interventions to resolve the situation.

The recent past has witnessed great demands on the teaching profession and teachers. The demands have reached a level where society expects teachers to provide solutions for its problems, private and public sectors demanding teachers to provide viable and reliable employees and the business communities expecting teachers to prepare cohorts of potential customers. The emerging expectations have consequently caused a strong demand for professionalism in teaching. The demand as identified by Cream Wright(1998), has been fuelled by an exponential expansion in the knowledge or content areas that schools have to cater for increased sophistication of pedagogical skills required to cope with new curriculum, ma-

major changes in the type of society for which learners are being prepared and the emergence of a wide range of additional roles that societies expect the teachers to play in human development. This kind of situation is currently being perceived as the cause for intractable problems in education. Teachers and societies are both frustrated due to the unfulfilled expectations. The teacher of the 21st century feels too much is expected of him/her, yet his/her basic psychological, economic, educational, material, social and professional needs continue not to be met. On the other one hand society invests heavily in the education of its children and yet the majority of its expectations are perceived not to be met.

The society, parents, community leaders and the like, are convinced that a "king's ransom" is being paid for education of their children and that many of their expectations remain unmet.

Consequently, the teaching profession and teachers in particular find themselves at crossroads with the society they are supposed to serve. Many teachers feel threatened, challenged by forces that, for many, have no place in education. Consequently, teachers, once the sole and unchallenged masters of learning, are no longer free to decide on the content sequencing, pacing and method of instruction. In the face of these challenges, teachers have a good reason to feel distressed with the current state of play in education in this century.

The world wants, needs, even cries out for teachers yet on the face it does not do enough to attract either the numbers or more importantly, the quality required. Many would in fact argue that because the profession has become so demanding, so little rewarding, in this 21 century, teachers in increasing

numbers

low moral and declining quality in education. Job dissatisfaction among teachers is becoming rampant and is seriously threatening the productivity, efficiency and effectiveness of the education systems. This is a threat the teaching profession cannot afford to ignore given the increasing public cries for quality education coming at the very time when financial and other resources for education are inexorably diminishing. Scarcity of resources calls for increased cost effectiveness and a more efficient utilization of the little that will be available if productivity both qualitative and quantitative, is to increase in the face of these 21st century adverse conditions.

As societies have continued to grow, the pressures of high social demands for education have correspondingly been exerted on to the nation governments- Consequently nation governments have opted for expansion of education provision. The expansion of education provision coped with increased enrolments have automatically resulted into a requirement for corresponding increase in the teaching force. However given the economic bases of our countries, many nations do not have enough qualified teachers to match the demand. Consequently a pool of untrained teachers has been engaged, yet the resulting outcomes of the teaching are attributed to the teaching profession. The grafting of untrained teachers into the work of teaching has undermined the teaching profession and raised serious concerns about the quality of education which is being provided. The expansion has also caused a situation where there are large class sizes, diverse student population, and inadequate teaching-learning resources. Tension between the expansion of education and the quality of, education is now perceived as one of the challenges of the 21 st century to the teaching profession. In responding to this challenge many national governments have embarked on increasing numbers of

trained teachers in the system. Many more teachers' colleges have been put in place and various modes of teacher training have been adopted. The underlying assumption of all these initiatives is that the more qualified teachers you have in the system the better the quality of education. However the assumption falls short of other factors which contribute to and sustain the quality of education. In addition expansion of conventional teacher training facilities has had serious budgetary implications in that more tutors are required to be trained and employed, more learning and teaching resources have to be put to their disposal and the wage bill has to be increased. This automatically has put the cost of education to rise beyond the capacities of most nations.

The need to have as many teachers as possible in schools to support the expansion and maintain quality has consequently become one of the factors that has fuelled the erosion of professionalism in the teaching force. To fulfil this need many nation governments resorted to teacher training crash programmes and massive recruitment of student teachers without discrimination into teacher training institutions. Consequently, the profession has found itself with people who joined the teaching force just to do the work of a teacher other than being professional teachers. This is not the staff of which professions are made. The status quo is posing serious challenges and threats to the teaching profession and immediate corrective measures need to be taken if the profession is to survive in the 21st century.

The responses to this erosion of the teaching profession have not yielded any tangible outcomes. Most of the mentioned factors that are threatening the profession have been overlooked and sometimes not perceived as threats by education planners

the successful teacher
needs to develop.

- d) Fundamental changes in the philosophy or methodology of some subjects, giving rise to new versions of old disciplines such modern mathematics.
- e) A

confidence and status of the teaching profession. However, these changes have, on the other hand, encouraged the professional growth of teachers through responsive training programmes that offer improved skills in pedagogy, a wider and deeper knowledge base, as well as batteries of techniques on how to deal with the many demands placed on the teachers. The ordinary teacher of the 21st century has a lot more is expected to offer in the delivery of the curriculum. Yet many of these teachers are regarded as having some deficiencies which need to be dealt with through in-service training. This has made teachers feel they can never cope fully with the demands being made on them. Curriculum changes have become a threat to many teachers as most of them need to make both professional and academic adjustments to become compatible with the new demands. The adjustment process has become so difficult to some that many have opted to remain where they are and wait for their departure day from the profession.

The 21st century is witnessing a situation where many of the children teachers teach are much more exposed to modern technology than them. They have had access to new self-instructional materials which enable them to learn and master subjects content without much help from the teachers. Teachers have found themselves in situation where they are compelled to struggle to learn what their students already know. Evidently there is no standing still for the 21 " century teacher who wishes to be successful, and this can be disruptive to professional confidence.

Curriculum changes have also placed a demand on the teachers to change in a corresponding manner. However die issue is the way in which teachers respond to these changes. Some changes have rendered skills possessed by some teacher obso-

lete leading them to be dysfunctional. The affected teachers naturally have to resist such changes. Other changes have forced many teachers to struggle to acquire new skills and in most cases without any form of assistance from their employers. These teachers embrace changes in a hard forced way. Their response to changes is not a natural outcome of their desire to improve on the professional skills and growth. It is rather a struggle to survive and continue being employed. The dilemma teachers find themselves in is for educational planners and administrators to assume that all change is good and that those who

resist it are retrogressive. They tend to forget that teachers need to have an operational rhythm based on their knowledge, skills, preferred methodology and the tools they are accustomed to. If change is to be successful it must take this rhythm of the familiar into account. Some sections of scholars have come to conclude that much of the protest from teachers about their workload, conditions of service etc, that is emerging in this century are to large extent a consequence of the changes that disrupt this rhythm and undermine the professional confidence.

The century is also witnessing some teachers responding positively, even enthusiastically, to change. This type of teachers are always at the workshops with the aim of getting recognized and eventually promoted each time something new is being introduced into the system. They always appear to be at the cutting edge of the profession. This can be the profile of successful teacher, and such people can become valuable as resource persons in the professional development of their colleagues. On the

recite every new mantra that comes along and give the impression of being at the forefront of change. The danger is that such teachers can be a source of disillusionment for their hard working colleagues who cope with the everyday realities of the classroom, but do not get much recognition

These examples place the issue of what teachers do as professionals to be the heart of all these difficulties. The century is witnessing a conspicuous failure on the part of teachers to map out this territory of professionalism. This has left the door open for outsiders to dictate what teachers should be doing as professionals, which means that the integrity of the teaching profession is not under the control of teachers.

Strategies for Survival

One important step that needs to be taken for the teachers and teaching profession to survive in the 21st century is teaching to assert itself as a profession. A profession is not simply a job or a trade or a field of occupation. For teaching to assert itself as a profession greater attention to all the elements which enables teachers to be referred to as professionals need to be exerted. In the first place, there must be a unique combination of knowledge and skills which is the basis on which practitioners stake their claim to expertise, as well as the substance of the service they provide. It will not be enough for practitioners themselves to define such knowledge and skills. They will need to be readily acknowledged by the society. However, it is not clear whether teachers understand what is the unique combination of knowledge and skills that underpin their claim to professional status. The teaching professional will need to establish characteristics designed to protect the integrity of the service it offers to society. These

include control over entry to the profession (certification), influence over preparation for the professional training (training programmes), rules

and procedures for providing professional services to the public and code of conduct to guide the behaviour of practitioners. There should also be sanctions for defaulters. All these mechanisms need to be designed with an objective of winning and retaining public confidence in the services the professionals offer and to protect the integrity of the profession as a whole. However to achieve this objective, some issues need to be addressed. Among such issues include.

- a. The tendency to use teaching as a parking space for the educated unemployed, which results into a cadre of teachers who have little commitment to the profession.
- b. The need to develop flexible entry qualifications for would be teachers, matched by an equally flexible structure of education and training through which they can become qualified and trained teachers.
- c. The need for sanctions that would arrest the ethical and moral decline.
- d. The need for empathetic management and professional support services that would help teachers pursue lifelong professional self development.

When all these issues are addressed, then teachers will be empowered to reclaim their profession.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams A. & Tulasiewiczw (1995): The Crisis in Teacher Education: A European Concern? London: Falmer Press.
- Albert Eistein; In Xabier Gorostiaga (2001): Development Outreach: World Bank - Washington DC.
- Apple M.W. (1986): Teachers & Texts. New York: Rutledge &c Kegan Paul.
- Beverly Abbey; ed (2000): Instructional and cognitive Impacts of Web-based education: Idea Group Publishing.
- Catherine Gaynor (1997): The Supply, Condition and Professional Development of Women Teachers: IIEP - Paris
- Codd, J. L., (1996): Professionalism Versus Managerialism in new Zealand. Cream Wright.
- Cream Wright (1998): Re-claiming the Teaching Profession: As a social response to public sector reforms in Africa: Unpublished Key Note address.
- Dan E. Inbor (1996): Planning for Innovation in Education. HEP Paris.
- Deonald B. Hisinger (2000): Positioning Secondary Schools Education in Developing Countries. UNESCO - Paris.

- Dove, Linda. 1986. Teachers and Teacher Education in Developing Countries. Dover, New Hampshire Crooni Helm.
- Farrell, J. and J. Oliveira. 1993. "Teachers in Developing Countries." The World Bank.
- Fullan, M. & Hargreaves (1992): Teacher Development and Educational Change: London: The Falmer Press,
- Geoff (2000): Teacher Education in Transition: Re-forming Professionalism? Buckingham: Open University
- Hardgreaves, Andy (1994): Changing Teachers, Changing Times. London; Cassel,
- Hoyle Eric and John, Peter (1995): Professional Knowledge and Professional Practice. London. Cassel
- Gerard Delanty (2001): Challenging knowledge: The University in the knowledge society: Open University
- J, Victor Baldrige et al (1978): Policy Making and Effective Leaderships; Jossey-Bass Publishers. London.
- Jacques Hallak (1996): Educational Challenges of the 21st Century: The Vision of Quality IIEP - Paris.
Lorin W- Anderson (1991); Increasing teacher effectiveness. IIEP - Paris.
- Maeroff G (1988): The Empowerment of Teachers: Overcoming the crisis of confidence: Teachers College Press: New York.

Maurice Strong (2001): Where on Earth, are we going? Texere:
USA Peter Williams (1979): Planning Teacher demand
and supply. HEP-Paris.

Shanker, Albert. (1995): "The Making of a Profession".
American Educator 9(3) 10-17, 46-48.

Steven j. Hite (2001): Reviewing quantitative research to
inform education policy process. HEP - Paris.

Thompson A. R. (1995): The Utilization and Professional
Developments of Teachers: Issues and Strategies HEP
- Paris.

UNESCO (2002); Guidelines for Education in situations of
emergency and crisis: UNESCO doc. Ed. 2002/vos/33

UNESCO (2001): Quality and Learning: Perspectives from
Development co-operation. UNESCO- Paris

World Bank (1995): Priorities and strategies for Education:
World Bank: Washington DC.

World Bank (2002); Constructing knowledge societies: New
challenges for Tertiary Education; The World Bank,
Washington D.C.

CHAPTER 5

EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT: A PHILOSOPHICAL AND CONCEPTUAL VIEW

Introduction:

Education is a major socialization agency developing in individuals the commitments and capacities necessary for role-performance. It develops commitment to society's broad values and to the performance of a specific type of role within society. It also ensures that people are able to do what they are committed to. They have to acquire, through education, a range of technical and social skills. In this way education sustains the common culture of society and provides the appropriate human material for the development of a nation. It helps to maintain society as a well coordinated whole. In this context education is perceived as an instrument for developing the people, the society and the economy. However, the way people obtain knowledge and the incentives to gather, provide and use it are affected by the institutional structure of a nation or society. Thus the need for strong institutional structures in which education can play its role.

This chapter tries to discuss the theoretical, conceptual and contextual factors which underpin the concept of education for development. It also tries to discuss the basic philosophical,



social and education foundations which inform education policies and practices aimed at relating education to development.

1. The concept and definition of Education for development.

Moving towards the goal of development requires fundamental changes in human attitudes and behaviour. Progress in this direction is thus critically dependent on education and public awareness. Education for development is used to mean adopting to an education system that serves the needs of society, encourages maximum public participation in the development endeavours, education that is demand driven other than supply driven and above all oriented to the promotion of a decent living of the population and promoting high level resource(both natural and human) employment.

Most people in the world today have an immediate and intuitive sense of the urgent need to build a sustained development future. They may however not be able to provide a precise definition of development itself but in the world today, the concept of development is highly associated with the challenges of poverty.

Poverty is, in part, a consequence of the present pattern of population growth and is a serious threat to both human dignity and sustainable development. Over a billion people, about a third of the total population of the developing countries, are desperately poor, struggling to survive on less than a dollar a day. Hundreds of millions more live on the threshold of poverty and face the constant risk of sinking below it. People unable to care for themselves can be excused for failing to care for their environment. Necessity drives them to use, and eventually

overuse, all the resources at hand: land, water, wood, vegetation and indeed, anything that can help them to meet their vital needs. Poverty also makes it difficult to mobilize people to work together for common goals, be they healthful environments, food security, jobs or other aspects of sustainable development. Poverty makes the delivery of education and health services more difficult and spurs population growth. Poverty also contributes to much of violence and war which destroy lives and undermine social and economic progress.

The solution to poverty must be found not only through economic measures, but also through political and social reforms, as poverty is caused not only by natural scarcities, but also by domination, exploitation and exclusion. Nor can the answer to poverty be sought only through increased production. What is produced, and the employment generated in producing it, must also be more equitably shared. At present, one quarter of the world's population consumes three-quarters of the world's natural resources. For particular resources, petroleum for example, the disparities are even greater: the average consumption of a North American is fifteen times greater than that of an Indian. At the extremes of wealth and deprivation- where the comparison is between individuals, not countries- the disparities defy belief: by one estimate, for example, the wealth of the world's richest 359 individuals equal the annual income of the poorest 2.4 billion people, almost 40% of humankind poverty reduction is, at once, an essential goal and indispensable condition for sustainable development,

It's widely agreed that education is the most effective means that society possesses for confronting the challenge of the future. Indeed, education will shape the world of tomorrow. Progress increasingly depends on the products of educated

minds. Upon research, invention, innovation and adaptation of courses, educated minds and instincts are needed not only in laboratories and research institutes, but in every walk of life. Indeed, access to education is the prerequisite for effective participation in the life of the modern world at all levels,

Education, to be certain, is the whole answer to every problem. But education in its broadest sense must be a vital part of all efforts to imagine and create new relations among people and to foster greater respect for the needs of the society. Education for development should be looked at in a broader sense of education- It must not be equated with schooling or formal education alone. It includes non- formal and informal modes of instruction and learning as well, including traditional learning acquired in the home and community. By defining education for development broadly, one also widens the community of educators, to include teachers, lecturers, curriculum developers, administrators, support staff, industrial trainers, countryside rangers and staff, environmental health and planning officers, education officers with NGO's, community educators, youth leaders . parents association members , media people, representatives of learners in all contexts and yet more." One might further widen this community to include all those, whatever their role in society, who perceive a need or duty to inform and educate people regarding the requirements of a sustainable future. International organisations, government, departments and institutions, foundations and others are deeply involved in education in the broad sense of the term used here. Many firms in the private sector also see the need to play their part in promoting awareness and are doing so in innovative ways. For example environmental and social issues.

The above vast community of educators represent an

enormously potent but largely untapped human -resource for development that can be invaluable in a range of contents as well as education. It represents, above all, a means for bringing the struggle for development into communities and local institutions around the world, which, in the final analysis, is where the cause of development will either triumph or fail.

Education serves society in a variety of ways that it cannot be deviated from any development oriented program- The goal of education is to make people wiser, more knowledgeable, better informed, ethncal, responsible, critical and capable of continuing to learn. Were all people to posses such abilities and qualities, the world's problems would not be automatically solved, but the means and the will to address them would be at hand.

Education also serves society by providing a critical reflection on the world especially its failings and injustices and by promoting greater continuousness and awareness, exploiting new visions and concepts, and inventing new techniques and tools, for behaviours, values and lifestyles and for promoting public support for the continuing and fundamental changes that will bee required if humanity is to alter its course, learning the familiar path is leading towards growing education , in short, is humanity's best hope and most effective means in the quest to achieve development.'

Given the previous presentation about education for development, it is important to highlight on the important elements of education for development.

Public awareness and understanding

Awareness is a prelude to informed action in democratic societies, action towards development will ultimately depend on public awareness, understanding and support. Common information and shared understanding however are important not only for mobilizing public support but also for carrying out work. Consultative and participatory approaches in all fields.

Public awareness and understanding are, at once, consequences of education and influences on the educational process. A public that is well informed of the need for development will insist that public educational institutions to include in their curricula, the scientific and other subject matters needed to enable people to participate effectively in the numerous activities directed towards achieving development. The students that emerge from such courses will for their part be alert to the need for public authorities to make adequate provisions for the protection of the environment in all development plans. Education is particularly important in developing a "taste for knowledge"

Perhaps the greatest problem that advocates for development face is to convince not only those who are opposed to their ideas, but also those who simply "don't want to know." An approach that emphasizes local issues, rather than global ones, is likely to be most effective in dealing with this consistency. This may account, in part, for the success of non-formal community education and local environmental communication programs in reaching and sensitizing people to environmental and local environmental communication programs in reaching and sensitizing people to development issues in both developing and industrialized countries. A particular benefit of

such programs is that they are often directly linked to action to control or solve the problems identified.

The need for effective communication in education for development

Education for development, can never be effective unless its needfulness is fully communicated to the public concerned. Advocates of development should learn to communicate effectively. Initially, the emphasis of development advocates was on "getting the science right" with little thought given to how to communicate findings and make them meaningful to a wide and non technical public- It was assumed that the facts would speak for themselves. Sadly, it didn't prove that easy. Even today however, there are several sorts of similar problems. The influence of vested interests and the unfortunate tendency of some of the messengers to spend more time squabbling with one another than communicating with the public.

In any struggle, including one to win over the minds of the public, it is important to understand the motives and strengths of those on the other side of the issue. Naively, one might imagine that few would find reason to oppose measures necessary to avoid potentially calamititious consequences for humanity. But what is good for humanity in general may none the less be costly and inconvenient to particular individuals, groups and other vested interests. In these circumstances, education and sensitization are essential, if effective measures are to be enacted into law and enforced.

Until quite recently, advocates of the common interest have had difficulty mustering the needed public relations expertise

and support to overcome the influence of vested interests. Fortunately in the past two decades, many lessons have been learned, especially by economists on how to convert a growing public concern for the state of earth into effective support for specific measures to address concrete problems. Yet, in most countries while environmental issues are now receiving greater support, measures aimed at promoting population policies, social development, poverty reduction and other necessary measures for achieving sustainable patterns of development continue to be largely ignored by the general public. Ultimately, though there can be no solution to environmental problems which is the major hindrance to development, unless the social and economic ills besetting human kind are seriously addressed. It is this broader message and reality which remains to be effectively communicated (educated) to and internalized by the public. '

Moving towards the goal of requires fundamental changes in human attitudes and behaviour. Progress in this direction is thus critically dependent on education and public awareness. The concept of education and development as this chapter suggests- is not a simple one, and there is no road map to prescribe how we should proceed. We must move ahead now in a spirit of exploration and experimentation and with the broadest possible range of partners, so as to contribute through education to correcting trends that places in Jeopardy our common future. Education for Development requires a thorough re-orientation of the education system to the entire needs of the society though this orientation is not easy. However, the following discussion provides great choice.

Reorienting education to support development

Until recently, the planet was a large world in which human activities and their effects were neatly compartmentalized within nations and within broad areas of concern (environmental, economic, social and political). These compartments have begun to dissolve. This applies in particular to the various global 'crises' that have seized public concern. These are not separate crises: an environmental crisis, a development crisis, an energy crisis. They are all one. (World Commission on environment and Development, 1987).

Reorienting education to development requires recognizing that traditional compartments and categories can no longer remain in isolation from each other and that we must work increasingly at the interface of disciplines in order to address the complex problems of today's world. This is true both within education, where interdisciplinary is slowly and with difficulty gaining ground, and between the spheres of education, work and leisure as lifelong learning emerges as a key concept for planning and developing educational systems. It is also true as concerns the most for planning and developing educating systems. It is also true as concerns the most important boundary of all; that separating those included in education systems from those who are excluded from them. These changes are not occurring nearly as rapidly as would be desired, but they are nonetheless taking shape within education at all levels.

Ultimately, development will require an education that not only continues throughout life, but is also as broad as life itself, an education that serves all people, draws upon all domains of knowledge and seeks to integrate learning into all of life's major

activities. The time when education was the activity of childhood and work the pursuit of adults is long over. The rapid growth of knowledge has rendered the notion of schooling as a "once and for all" preparation for life utterly obsolete. The growth of knowledge is advancing exponentially, yet not nearly as fast as the need for understanding and solutions at which it is aimed. As concerns development specifically, it is impossible to predict with reliability what will be the key issues on which people will need information in five, ten, twenty or fifty years. It is predictable, however, that such developments will not fit

The concept of Basic education

Inherent in the concept of education for development is the vision of a more equitable world. This can only be achieved by providing the disadvantaged with the means to advance themselves and their families. Among these means, the most essential is education, particularly basic education. Over 100 million children between the ages of 6 and will never attend school and tens of millions more illiterate adults, most of whom have never been enrolled in school. The first requirement in the quest for development and equity must be to change this situation and make schooling of quality available to all. But that goal is, still far off. For the present, the challenge is to make the best of an unfortunate and unjust situation.

The World Conference on Education for All used the term "basic education" to refer to all forms of organized education and training that meet the basic learning needs of individuals, including literacy and innumeracy, as well as the general knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that they require to survive, develop their capacities, live and work in dignity, improve the quality of their lives, make informed decisions and continue learning. The conference consciously chose to define education in terms of learning outcomes rather than levels of instruction.

Given the situation today in many developing countries, Uganda in particular, it does not suffice to orient formal education towards development. Attention also has to be given to those who are presently un-served or poorly served by schools. This is a large group, well over a world billion people, and a vital one for the future. Girls and women, the mothers of today and tomorrow, are in the majority. They are, or will be,

the first and most influential teachers of their children. The goals of educating young children are focused on ensuring their health, development, happiness, well-being and adjustment to the environment in which they live. These goals are not achieved, the future of the child is compromised and the prospects of sustainable development diminished without properly making education focused to this cause.

Basic Education provides that foundation for all future education and learning. Its goal, as concerns those in the pre-school, primary school-age population, whether enrolled in school or not, is to produce children who are happy with themselves and with others, who find learning exciting and develop inquiring minds, who begin to build up a storehouse of knowledge about the world and more importantly, an approach to seeking knowledge that they can use and develop throughout their lives. Basic education is aimed at all the essential goals of education: learning to know, to do, to be (i.e. to assume one's duties and responsibilities) and to live together with others, as outlined in Education: the Treasure, within, the report of the independent commission on education for the twenty first Century Report published in 1996 by UNESCO. It is thus not only the foundation for lifelong learning, but also the foundation for sustainable development.

Basic education for adults is aimed at empowerment. It is, in the words of the Amman Affirmation, the 'document summing up the mid-decade review of progress towards Education for All. The key to establishing and reinforcing democracy to development which is both sustainable and humane and to peace founded upon mutual respect and social justice. Indeed in a world in which creativity and knowledge play an ever greater role, the right to education is nothing less than the right to participate in the life of the modern world.' In sum, if our

vision of the future is a world based on democracy, striving to achieve greater social justice and economic opportunity, and concerned to improve the quality of life and preserve the environment, then basic education has to be the first order of business, for it holds the power to contribute to all of these goals by enabling people to take their destinies into their own hands and play their role in shaping the common destiny of humanity. Development cannot be achieved by a small minority on behalf of the vast majority. It will require the contribution and commitment of each and all. That is why it is essential to give all people the means- starting with basic education to participate in shaping a sustainable future.

What changes does Education for development require ?

In spite of the considerable progress, which has been made, there are still enormous barriers to reorientation of formal education to development concerns. Barriers that cannot be addressed by the efforts of individual teachers or even schools, no matter how committed they might be. Effectively overcoming such barriers requires commitment by society as a whole to sustainable development.

Such commitment would involve all of collaboratively and in partnership including industry, business, grass root organizations and members of the public, to develop policies and processes which integrate social, economic, cultural, political and conservation goals, a sustainable society will be one in which all aspects of civic and personal life are compatible with sustainable development and all government departments at all levels of government work together to advance such a society.

Education plays a dual role, at once in both reproducing certain aspects of current society and preparing students to transform society for the future. These roles are not necessarily mutually exclusive. However, without commitment of all of society to development, curricula have tended in the past to reproduce an unsustainable culture with intensified environment and development problems rather than empower citizens to think and work towards their solutions. The role of formal education in building society is to help students determine what is best to conserve in their cultural, economic and natural heritage and to nurture values and strategies for attaining sustainability in their local communities while contributing at the same time to national and global goals. With the above views in mind therefore, the following reforms are necessary in the formal education in the bid to achieve education for development.

Curriculum reform

To advance the goal of achieving education for development, a curriculum reoriented towards sustainability would place the notion of citizenship among its primary objectives. This would require a revision of many existing curricula and the development of objectives and content themes, and teaching, learning and assessment processes that emphasize moral virtues, ethical motivation and ability to work with others to help build a sustainable future. Viewing education for development as a contribution to a politically literate society is central to the reformulation of education and calls for a "new generation" of theorizing and practice in education and rethinking of many familiar approaches, including within environmental education.

Education for development calls for a balanced approach,

which avoids undue emphasis on changes in individual life styles. It has to be recognized that many of the world's problems, including economic problems, are related to our ways of living, and that solutions imply transforming the social conditions of human life as well as changes in individual lifestyles. This draws attention to the economic and political structures which cause poverty and other forms of social injustice and foster unsustainable practices. It also draws attention to the need for students to learn the many processes for solving these different subject matters, but equally to discovering real world problems of their society and the requirements for changing them.

This kind of orientation would require, inter alia, increased attention to the humanities and social sciences in the curriculum. The natural sciences provide important abstract knowledge of the world, but, of themselves, do not contribute to the value and attitudes that must be the foundation of sustainable development. Even increased study of ecology is not sufficient to reorient education towards sustainability. Even though ecology has been described by some as the foundation discipline of environmental education, studies of the biophysical and geophysical work are necessary- but not sufficient- prerequisite to understanding development. The traditional primacy of nature study, and the often apolitical contexts in which it is taught, need to be balanced with the study of social sciences and humanities. Learning about the intersections of ecological processes would then be associated with market forces, cultural values, equitable decision-making, government action and the environmental impacts of human activities in a holistic interdependent manner.

A reaffirmation of the contribution of education to society means that the central goals of education must include helping students learn how to identify elements of unsustainable development that concern them and how to address them. Students need to learn how to reflect critically on their place in the world and to consider what sustainability means to them and their communities. They need to practice envisioning alternative ways of development and living, evaluating visions, learning how to negotiate and justify choices between visions, and making plans for achieving desired ones, and participating in community life to bring such visions into effect. These are the skills and abilities which underlie good citizenship, and make education for development part of a process of building an informed, concerned and active populace. In this way, education for development contributes to education for democracy and peace.

Structural reform

Reorienting the curriculum towards education for development requires at least two major structural reforms in education. The first is to re-examine the centralized mandating of courses and textbooks in order to allow for locally relevant learning programmes. Local decision-making can be facilitated through the reform of centralized educational policies and curricula, and the formulation of appropriate syllabuses and assessment policies. Nationally-endorsed syllabuses can serve as "broad framework documents" which provide aims and general objectives for subjects, an overview of broad content themes, appropriate learning experiences, relevant resource materials, and criteria for assessing student learning. This type of syllabus can provide centralized accountability, while allowing schools, teachers and students to make choices about the specific

learning experience, the relative depth and breadth of treatment for different topics, the case studies and educational resources used, and how to assess student achievements.

A second major area of structural reform is the development of new ways to assess the processes and outcomes of learning. Such reforms should be inspired by what people want from their education system, as well as what society needs. The period of profound change in which we are living needs to be taken into account by educational systems, which were, for the most part, designed to serve a society which is fast becoming history. Learning needs to be seen as a lifelong process which empowers people to live useful and productive lives. The reorientation of education along these lines and in anticipation to the extent possible of future needs-is fundamental for sustainable development, including its ultimate objective not only of human survival but especially of human well-being and happiness. Similarly, there also needs to be a revamping of the methods of credentialing students. The various ways in which students are judged (testing, report cards, evaluations) and the basis for awarding Certificates, at all levels need to reflect the reformulation of outcomes of learning towards sustainability.

Education, ethics, and change

In the early 18th century, the bases of the industrial revolution that was then beginning did not exist: neither mentally nor socially nor technically. But the vision of a society organized in a new way and operating by new rules took root. At the close of the 20th century, it is clear that societies are beginning to consider the concept of development and, in some cases to confront the profound changes that it implies. Fundamental

social changes such as those required to move towards sustainability, come about either because people sense an ethical imperative to change or because leaders have the political will to lead in that direction and sense that the people will follow them. Human societies are skilful at estimating risks, dangers and limitations. They are much less experienced in calculating their own potentialities: their capacities to invent, innovate, discover, reorganize, create, correct and improve. Societies need to be convinced of the need for development, in order to show their capacity to devise solutions to the problems confronting them,

It is in this context that education and public awareness are seen as essential to bringing about conditions conducive to development. Ethical values, such as equity, are shaped through education. In the broadest sense of the term, Education for development is also essential in enabling people to use their ethical values to make informed and ethical choices. Over time, education also powerfully affects cultures and societies, increasing their concern over unsustainable practices and their capacities to confront and master change. Indeed, the potential of education is enormous. Not only can it inform people, it can change them. It is not only a means for personal enlightenment, but also for cultural renewal. Education not only provides the scientific and technical skills required, it also provides the motivation, justification, and social support for pursuing and applying them. Education increases the capacities of people to transform their visions of society into operational realities. It is for this reason that education is the primary agent of transformation toward sustainable development. It is also for this reason that society must be deeply concerned that much of the education presently on offer falls far short of what is required. Improving the quality and

coverage of education and reorienting its goals to

Interdisciplinary education

A basic premise of education for development is that just as there is a wholeness and interdependence to life in all its forms, so must there be a unity and wholeness to efforts to understand it and ensure its continuation. This calls for both interdisciplinary inquiry and action. It does not, of course, imply an end to work within traditional disciplines. A disciplinary focus is often helpful, even necessary, in allowing the depth of inquiry needed for major break through and discoveries. But increasingly, important discoveries are being made not within disciplines, but on the borders between them. This is particularly true in fields such as environmental studies which are not easily confined to a single discipline. Despite this realization and a broadening support for interdisciplinary inquiries, the frontiers between academic disciplines remain stoutly defended by professional bodies, career structures and criteria for promotion and advancement, it is no accident that education for development, has progressed more rapidly at the secondary and primary levels than within the realm of higher education.

Yet, higher education has an indispensable role to play. This is true both in the area of research and in the training of specialists and leaders in all fields. A failure to develop educational programmes related to development sustainability in universities and specialized institutes has therefore, an impact on society as a whole. It is, for example, increasingly important to include appropriate materials on development concerns in the programmes of study of journalists, engineers, managers, doctors, lawyers, scientists, economists, administrators and numerous other professions. Universities could also render a

valuable service by building components of development into the special programmes for teachers, senior managers, local leaders such as mayors, parliamentarians, and others in leadership positions. Universities also play a key role in international cooperation and would do so more effectively if they gave fuller consideration to the needs of scientists and social scientists from developing countries, especially as concerns interdisciplinary inquiries into development issues.

Fortunately, the situation appears to be evolving in a favourable direction. Faculties of economics, for example, are adding specialists in environmental economics to their staffs who, by the very nature of their work, are required to develop expertise in scientific and other disciplines. As students arrive at the university from secondary schools with experience in and a taste for interdisciplinary work, universities in many countries are slowly adapting to meet their needs and demands. Major research projects, such as that on climate change, are also developing in specialists the habit of working across disciplines. Ultimately, the growing necessity for interdisciplinary inquiries can be expected to reduce the resistance imposed by entrenched habits and conservative institutional structures.

2. Philosophical Foundations of Education for Development

The development of any country or organization must be based on a strong sustainable national/organization philosophy. A nation or society that lacks a sustainable strong philosophy in which its values, beliefs and practices are anchored, always has a short life span, becomes socially, politically and economically unfocused and vulnerable to any disorder, the

educational system and content becomes irrelevant to its development, the development becomes stunted and the national or societal governance become prone to manipulations and visionless. A national or societal philosophy informs the design, shape, and development of all other philosophies. It is from this national or societal philosophy that the political, economic and educational philosophies emerge. In other words a nation's political philosophy has to be anchored in the national philosophy and must contribute to its sustainability. The political philosophy of a nation informs all the philosophies of the social servicing systems, which contribute to, and sustain national development. Among them is the education system. Education has a major role to play in attaining this development. However, for education to play this role, its philosophical underpinnings must be well grounded in a strong and sustainable national philosophy serviced by a strong, focused and sustainable political philosophy. In other words, an educational philosophy is anchored in the political philosophy which must be well grounded in the national philosophy. A good national philosophy leads to designing and developing sustainable political philosophies which inform educational philosophies and other philosophies that promote and sustain national development.

The options to be considered and decisions to be made regarding the orientation of education philosophies should be guided by the three watch words which determine the strategic positioning of education in national development as well as its internal functioning. These are **relevance, quality** and access. Relevancy is considered in terms of the role of education as a system and of each of its institutions towards society, as well as in terms of the latter's expectation with regard to education. It must include matters like democratization of ac-

cess and broader opportunities for participation in education during various stages of life, links the world of work and the responsibilities of education towards national development. The aim should be to make education more responsive to the general problems facing humanity and the needs of economic and cultural life, and more relevant in the context of the specific problems of the country. The achievement of this aim necessitates shaping educational policies concerning the missions and functions of education which deal with questions such as:

- a) How can education and its various institutions contribute to socio-economic change and help to promote sustainable human development?
- b) How can education contribute to the organization of modern society and be involved in actions aimed at reducing poverty, protecting the environment, improving health care provision and nutrition, promoting the principles of civil society, shaping the ethical and moral principles of humanity, and instilling a spirit of respect and love for each other?
- c) How can education respond to the changes in the world of work and civic culture needed to answer these challenges?

Answers to these questions will provide a framework for the development of an educational philosophy which will inform educational reforms and initiatives aimed at achieving sustainable development.

3. Why should Education be for Development?

Many people have tried in their own contexts to interpret the concept of education for development. Some have based their interpretations on the notion that education is the fountainhead at which the people who find their own sense of curiosity a way of giving meaning to their lives. Others perceive it as an instrument of liberation from estrangements and bewilderment faced as a result of seeking ideas that would make the world and their lives intelligible to them. People tend to seek education to give purpose to their lives. Knowledge acquired through education helps to create a more socially equitable world. Therefore people are educated to be better citizens and enhance to build their capacity to be visionary, responsible and entrepreneurial. Human capacity in this context is perceived as a product of complex interactions of values, skills, abilities and potential which lead to individual self-government and to the consequent ability to pro-act, reflect and react. It is believed that all these factors are connected in a self-supporting circuit. Researchers have also found out that the capacity of an individual is also partly determined by the environment in which he or she is operating. However education helps to create such environment. That is an environment of an informed society where free enquiry, open minds, democratic thinking and acting, respect for nature and humanity are freely exercised.

The analysis of the total sum of these factors would reveal that education plays its role in development by creating and developing human capacity with the ability to translate into action recognized social values which are in turn translated into consistent behaviour. Given this

preservation of those features which need to remain as part of the educational and cultural heritage and the changes which are essential to preserve the role society accords to education. The whole aim should be to make education more responsive to the general problems affecting the social, economic, political, and moral status of the communities. Thus contributing to social development.


The task of education is to transmit ideas of value and what to do with our lives. This is intended to make people not to act destructively without wisdom. Education can help people only when it offers such wisdom. The wealthier a society is in terms of wisdom the more development oriented it becomes. The degree of wisdom wealth of any society depends on the number of people possessing the wisdom, the quality of such wisdom and the readiness of society to absorb it. Education is an instrument by which this can be achieved.

Education can help society only when its h"who

It recognizes the context from which people come and the society in which they are called to serve.

Education empowers people to shape their lives and develop a sense of purpose so as to gain esteem. This leads to recognition of morality of knowledge which compels people to be held responsible for the moral use of what they learn. It also helps people to develop a kind of personal faith and genuine spirituality which satisfies their needs of daily living and development. Further more education helps people to develop ability to engage in critical analysis and to decide how to act on the basis of their analysis. This requires them to become aware of the major social problems, to be informed about policy options and to be able to act responsibly. It also involves recognizing the importance of civic involvement and community participation in development. Education helps people to learn to move beyond analysis to initiate action to correct social injustices and ensure equitable treatment to all persons. Thus eliminating racial and sexual discrimination, militarism, economic exploitation, persecution, censorship of dissent, abuse of the environment, and abuses of human rights. All these social disorders are detrimental to development, if not eliminated. Education facilitates their elimination by empowering the eliminators with tools of wisdom to do so.

The products of education are important in creating, developing and changing the world. They do it through business, law, politics, community leadership, religion, education, economics, etc. The years of education are the most formative to any individual. It is in these years that people undergo a process of maturing in terms of opinions and reasoning on social issues such as peace, democratic participation and development. It is also in these years that a process of crystallization for



entrepreneurial thinking, responsibility for society and visionary attitudes is developed and paved to development. During the same period cultural and social contexts are reflected in education in order to provide real analytical capacity to tackle problems in society. The curriculum therefore is geared to better reflect the realities of society. By reflecting such realities, education helps in contextualizing development.

4.Promotion of Education for Development

Having discussed the underpinning philosophical and conceptual factors which make education central in development one, needs to know how such important concepts can be promoted and sustained. Several scholars have come up with several approaches of promoting and sustaining the concept of education for development. Their contributions have helped in identifying the basic assumptions about the concept. These assumptions are examined one by one.

a) Integration is crucial for holistic education which promotes development

This assumption assumes that education should cater for the whole person and to achieve this an integrated curriculum is necessary. Barriers between disciplines which encourage people to only specialize and not to understand the links between disciplines and their relationship with the environment in which they are, need to be eliminated. Humanistic considerations have to become a standard element of all disciplines. Through this integrated approach education produces the kind of people which society wishes to be but not what individuals wish to be- This is so because education fits into society but not society fitting into education. The prime

function of education is not to develop the individuals abilities and potentials for their own sake. Rather it is to develop those abilities and capacities that society needs. Each society sets up an ideal man, of what he/she should be, as much from the intellectual point of view as from the physical and moral.

The general function of education then must be to arouse in an individual:

- a) A certain number of physical and mental states that the society to which he belongs considers should not be lacking in any of its members.
- b) Certain physical and mental states which the particular group (class, family, profession) considers, equally ought to be found among all those who make it up.
- c) Each society needs some basic similarity of thought, values and norm among its members if it is to continue, it also requires some specialization, for the division of labour is necessary to maintain society. This can only be fulfilled through an integrated approach that produces the kind of holistic person which society defines as desirable for its sustenance and development. If this function is effectively played then development will have a fertile ground to flourish.

b) Education must be an interactive process

This assumption is based on the belief that education's function of fitting people into society is accomplished in the process of socialization. During this process people are formed according to society's requirements. This implies that the function of

education is to preserve society to socialize and humanize man by providing the normative and cognitive frameworks he lacks. This encourages man to develop intellectual curiosity and to analyze situations from many angles with the purpose of laying a foundation for social development. It is therefore important that policies are designed to promote the concept of integration in education. Through integration on education system can produce a whole person in a holistic manner.

c) Appraisal systems should redefine the meaning of achievement

Appraisal systems encourage student to evaluate what they are learning from each experience and develop a record of achievement, acknowledging all their activities and skills. An appraisal system which concentrates solely on exam results does not prepare a person to play an active role in society. The appraisal schemes should promote a production of the sort of people society desires for its sustainability and development. Exploration and development of people's potentials for the benefit of society should be promoted by the appraisal systems.

d) Learning to learn should be the ultimate goal

Today new emphasis is placed on lifelong learning which provides people with enormous new opportunities, responsibilities and challenges to adapt. It is well known that knowledge becomes outdated very fast and so rigid educational methods which make learning a fixed product must be rendered less adaptable. Education and training should promoted the capacity to reason, to use intuition and to understand changing realities through holistic thinking. By doing so. education will

have enormously contributed to social development.

In conclusion, the importance of education to the development of an individual and society at large cannot be over-emphasized. Education equips people with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that enhance their capacities to change and their willingness to accept new ideas. In this era of rapid scientific and technological advance, education becomes even more significant as so many methods of production depend not only on appropriately trained personnel but also on an intellectually flexible labour force. However, if education is to play its important role in development, we cannot ignore the teaching force as the principle agent of these changes without deleterious consequences.

REFERENCE

- Aaron M. Pakas (1996): Research in Sociology of Education and Socialization, College of Education, Michigan State University, U.S.A.
- Abraham Yogev; International Perspectives on Education and Society: School of Education Tel Aviv University.
- David Blackledge and Barry Hunt (1985): Sociological Interpretations of Education. Croom Helm London.
- Akimpelu J.A. (1989): An Introduction to Philosophy of Education. McMillan Publishers Ltd., London.
- Knight, George (1980): Philosophy of Education. Berrien Springs: Andrew University Press.
- World Bank (2002): Development Outreach; Journal: World Bank Institute, Washington, U.S.A,
- Edmunds John and Karen Maccaro (2000): The Wealthy World: The Growth and Implication of Global Prosperity; John Wiley and Sons, Washington, U.S.A,
- Maurice Strong: (2001): Where on Earth Are We Going? Texere U.S.A..

CHAPTER 6

THE CONCEPTUAL MAP FOR UNIVERSITY EFFECTIVENESS

a) The productivity criterion:

This criterion is concerned with the consideration of the output of the organization primary process. It is mainly concerned with the economic rationality of the process.

b) Adaptability:

This criterion is concerned with how much the organization can adopt to external circumstances. It is anchored in the orientation of organizational science known as organic systems theory. This theory views the organization as being in constant open exchange with the environment. In order to survive the organization has to adapt to external circumstances. The view dictates that adaptability is the main criterion to judge whether an organization is to be seen as effective. Adaptability can be manifested by choosing the right objectives, acquiring vital resources and satisfying external constituencies and clients.

c) Involvement and satisfaction of the members of the organization.

This criterion originates from the human relations school of organizational thought, which emphasizes the human side of the organization.

d) Continuity:

This criterion is concerned with the ability of the organization to run smoothly and harmoniously within a competitive environment. The ability to predict the likely circumstances and

events which may threaten the health of the organization ensures its continuity.

e) Responsiveness:

This is the degree to which an organization adapts to emerging situations. It leads to the satisfaction of its external stakeholders.

The multiplicity of these criterion has of recent generated a lot of debate as to how to deal with them. Fearman and Quinn (1985) perceives them as competing values, while Scheerens (1992) argues that the criteria can be related to each other according to a means to end framework, with productivity as the ultimate criterion and the others "supportive conditions; to this criterion. Cheng (1993) considers alternative effectiveness criteria from a contingency perspective. He takes the relevancy of a particular criteria as dependent on characteristics of the situation in which the organization finds itself at a given time. He identifies three relevant situational dimensions namely:

- a) the degree to which goals are clear and consensual
- b) the importance of powerful constituencies
- c) the degree to which relevant environmental contingencies are changing.

From these perspectives two important implications to the criteria for university effectiveness and improvement can be identified. These are:

- a) Each of the criteria can be used as a target for university improvement oriented actions.
- b) The realization is that the bulk of effectiveness research is only relevant to the degree that the university

improvement is outcome oriented.

Despite these perceptions, a new approach to university effectiveness and improvement is emerging. This approach advocates for a "holistic" approach which addresses all criteria at the same time. This is based on the dictates of the concept of university effectiveness which is divided into two basic domains namely:

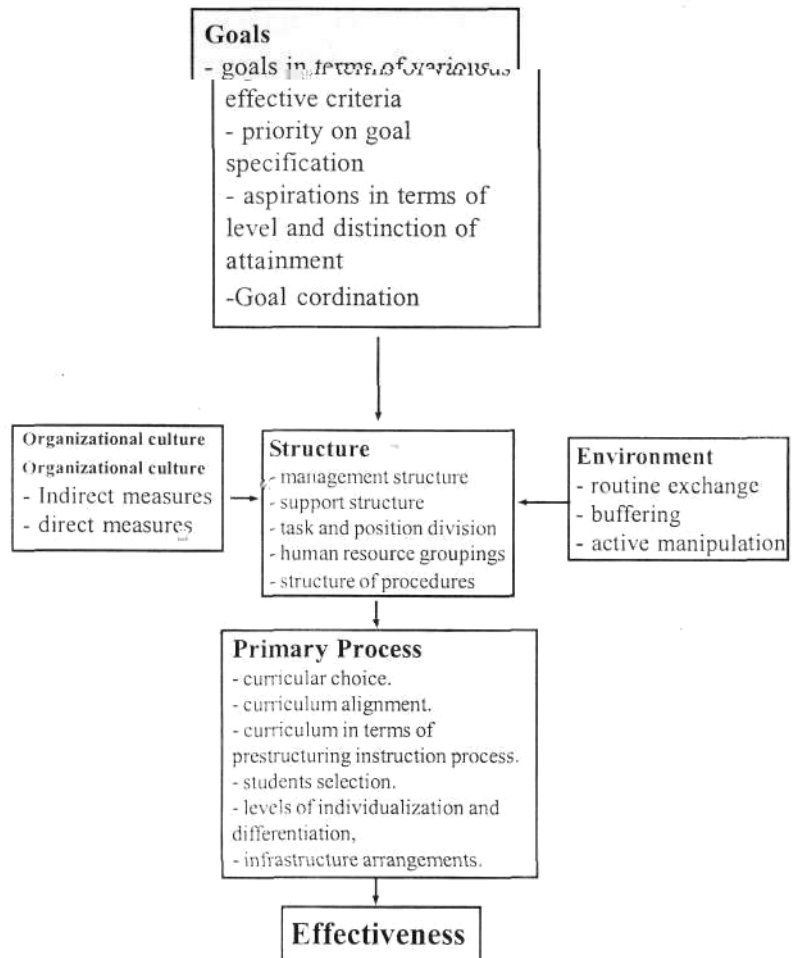
- (a) a domain of effect
- (b) a domain of causes or means.

In differentiating the two there is a need to draw a distinction of all possible features of the functioning of a university which are malleable in order to reach the effects that are aimed for. This broader perspective is needed to obtain as complete picture as possible on elements and aspects of university education and university functioning which are potentially useable in improving effectiveness. Mintzberg (1979) and De Teeuw (1986) came up with the following aspects of the organization which are applicable to universities. The degree of harmonious relationship of these aspects to each other determines the effectiveness of the organization. These are:

- a) goals
- b) the structure of the positions and sub-units
- c) the structure of the procedures
- d) the culture
- e) the environment
- f) the primary processes.

Each of these aspects has various sub-aspects which also must effectively interrelate to produce the desired outcomes. The flow of interrelationship is important in that if the interrelationships wrongly flow, the results are likely to be impediments to achieving effectiveness.

Fig. I: Effectiveness Model



Source: Mintzberg (1979) and De Leeuw (1986)

Every organization to exist must have goals that are pursued to be achieved. The goals must be structured in terms of the reasons for which the organization exists. These goals inform the cultural domain which refers to the measures that can be used to shape the organizations culture in a way that is supposed to be effectiveness enhancing. Direct measures refer to attempts to deal directly with cultural aspects while indirect measures refer to cultural implications of the structural innovation. The goals also inform the way the organization is structured both at strategic and operational management levels. They inform the structure of the technologies of social control (policies, rules and regulations). Goals are also set to be achieved in a particular environment (organizational environment). Such environment must favour the existence of the organization. The way the organization is structured is much influenced by the cultural and environment domains, in other words, for any organization to survive and be effective, must accommodate , in its structure, the cultural and environmental domains which support the existence of the organization.

In the context of the university the interrelationship of the three domains (culture, structure, and environment) informs the primary processes. It is the well functioning of these processes that leads to effectiveness.

The Theoretical Orientations of University Effectiveness

There is little literature and research outputs on specifically the theoretical orientations of university effectiveness. However, since universities are considered as organizations and more so, education organizations, attempts to relate economic and

organization theories to university effectiveness have been made. Scholars, such as Scheeren (1996) identified synoptic planning and bureaucratic organization, retroactive planning and the learning organization, public choice theory, contingency theory and chaos theory, as theoretical orientations that are applicable to university effectiveness. He categorized them as the mechanisms and levers of university effectiveness:

(i) Mechanisms of university effectiveness

These mechanisms are also referred to as theory embedded principles. They are considered as generally applicable explanatory principles that may be used in making clear why and what works in educational organizations such as universities. Levers are very much applied in these principles. Nevertheless the term is thought to have additional meaning because the "levers" refer to directly operational measures to realize the action potential implied in the levers. For instance, the cybernetic principle (evaluation/feed back/correction) is seen as a mechanism, whereas the application of university self-evaluation system is taken as associated to "lever".

Theoretical orientation of university effectiveness are perceived as using available theory to deduct levers that, applied to a mode of university education, may explain why a particular factor (or set of factors) is expected to increase the chance of the attainment of a particular effectiveness criterion.

(ii) Synoptic planning and bureaucratic structuring

Synoptic planning results into conceptualization of a broad spectrum of long term goals and possible means to attaining

them. Instrumental relationship plays an important role in selecting alternatives. The main characteristics of synoptic planning as a prescriptive principal conducive to effective organizational functioning as applied to university are:

- a) proactive statement of goals, careful deduction of concrete goals, operational objectives and assessment objectives.
- b) decomposition of subject content matter, creating sequences in a way that intermediate and ultimate objectives are approached systematically.
- c) alignment of teaching methods (design of didactical situations) to subject content matter segments.
- d) monitoring of the learning progress of students by means of objective assessment.
- e. creating knowledge through research and disseminating it.

Synoptic planning approach as applied in university settings is concerned with curriculum planning, planning of supportive resources and structures to curriculum implementation.

When the ideal of rational planning is extended to organizational structuring, related principles about controlled arrangements, are applied to the division of work, the formation of units and the way supervision is given shape. The organizational, structural pendants of rational planning are mechanistic structure, scientific management, and machine bureaucracy (Morgan 1986). It is also based on Max Weber's ideas of the principles of bureaucracy which put emphasis on precision, speed, clarity, regularity, reliability and efficiency

achieved through the creation of fixed division of tasks, hierarchical supervision, and detailed rules, procedures and regulations.

(iii) Individual Vs Organisational rationality

A central assumption in the synoptic planning and bureaucratic interpretation of the rationality paradigm is that organizations act as Integrated purposeful units. Individual efforts are directed towards collective efforts to attain organizational goals.

Morgan (1986) rejects this assumption by emphasizing that organizational goals may be rational for some peoples interests, but no for others. The fact that universities consist of relatively autonomous professionals, and loosely coupled sub-systems are seen as general conditions stimulating political behaviour of the members of the universities.

In public choice theory the lack of effective control from democratically elected bodies over public sector organizations makes these organizations as being prone to inefficient behaviour, caused by the leeway that is given to managers and officers to pursue their own goals besides serving their organization's primary mission (Scheeren) 1992. Public choice theory provides the diagnosis of instances of organizational ineffectiveness, such as goal displacement, over- production of services, purposefully counter-productive behaviour, hidden agendas and time and energy consuming schisms between sub-units. When discretionary leeway of subordinate units goes together with unclear technology, this too adds to the overall nourishing ground for inefficient organizational functioning. Universities are usually mentioned as examples of types of organizations where these phenomena are likely to occur. The

remedies to these sources of organizations mal-functioning are market mechanisms and choice. .

(iv) Retroactive planning Vs the learning organization

To use evaluative information on organizational functioning as a basis for corrective or improvement oriented action is a less demanding type of planning than synoptic planning. This makes planning to have a more step by step incremental orientation, and goals or expectations, get the function of s for incterpretnng evaluativeg

mechanism of organizational effectiveness. Evaluation and feedback have a place in synoptic planning and in the perspective from public choice theory. In the former case evaluations are mostly likely to be used for control purposes, while in the later case there would be an emphasis on positive and negative incentives associated with review and evaluations.

(v) Contingency theory

This theory is also referred to as situational theory or contingent approach. It is taken as the perspective from which the optimal structure of an organization is seen as dependent on a number of other factors or conditions. These other factors are referred to as contingency factors. Contingency factors are rather a heterogeneous set of conditions both internal and external to the organization. These include age and size of the organization, the complexity of the organizations environment and the technology of the organization's primary process.

There are general hypotheses about effective combinations of contingency factors and structural configurations. These hypotheses are:

- a. the larger (he organization, the more elaborate its structure, that is the more specialized its tasks, the more differentiated its units, and the more developed its administrative components.
- b. the more sophisticated the technical system, the more elaborate the administrative structure, specifically the larger and more professional the support, the greater the selective decentralization, and the greater the use of liaison devices.

- c. The more dynamic the environment, the more organic the structure (Minzberg 1979).

This theory offers possibilities to improve the theoretical basis on university effectiveness.

The Chaos theory

The chaos theory also referred to as the dynamical systems theory is mainly concerned with the exploration of patterns emerging from apparently random events within a physical or social system (Griffith, Hart, and Blair (1991). One of its basic principles is that small causes may have large effects and that relatively minor variations in entrance conditions may have enormous consequences when interrelationships between phenomena develop overtime- New patterns of subsystems that may emerge in a seemingly chaotic environment are sometimes interpreted in terms like synergism, self-organization or autopsies. Autopsies points at the tendency of self-reproduction of systems and organism. Synergism is to do with the involvement of new macro-level structures when micro-level subsystem interact in a complex way. It should be noted that the construct of self-organization inspired by chaos theory is none extensive than the principle of double loop learning. Chaos theoretical orientations of self-organization include positive feedback cycles, next to negative feedback and developments that do not confirm to the phenomenon of homeostasis.

Mechanisms Vs Levers:

Mechanisms can be described as general explanatory principles. The term lever is coined in order to emphasize the action potential that is more or less inherent in the mechanisms. A lever characterizes a particular type of action orientation.

Fig. II : Mechanisms Vs Levers

Theory	Mechanism	Lever
- Synoptic planning bureaucracy	Proactive planning and structuring	Programme/ monitoring
- Retroactive planning learning organizations	cybernetic principle Market mechanism fit with organization	Evaluation and feedback Choice and competition laissez- fair Serendipity
- Public choice theory - Contingency theory Organizational design - Chaos theory		

The most straight forward mechanisms are those in the two upper rows of Fig. II. Both levers require structured action and instrumentation. They differ, however, by a proactive versus retroactive orientation. The retroactive orientation in evaluation based university improvement is also more modest in the comprehensiveness and time- horizon of taking action. Retroactive planning is more in line with piece-meal engineering and incriminations.

Creating market mechanisms is a lever which is more relevant at the university level. The university can enlarge opportunities for more stakeholders' participation with the aim of improving performance to compete with other universities.

The same type of reasoning applies to the levers of organizational design to make the university responsive to basic contingencies. Some of the contingencies may not be specific to the university. The contingency thesis from contingency theory is more amenable to internal control of the university. This thesis calls for fitting arrangements between internal design parameters like the style of leadership and the autonomy of units in the university. Levers, in respect to the enhancement of self organization are creating a low degree of formalization, horizontal decentralization and a playful, dynamic interaction vis a vis external developments. The problem with this organizational image is the degree to which it corresponds to the reality of the university in most countries, assuming that this reality is still rather formalized, predictable and situated in relatively stable environment.

The mechanisms have so far been associated with levers that are of a structural asmil5w(a) Tj0.830 Tw9 Tj0 Tc(e) Tj0.228 Tw-0.149 Tc(Leve9Tj0 Tc(t) Tj

a. The

optic planning and bureaucracy call for unity of purpose and harmonious cooperation. The choice perspective encompasses value conflicts between individual and organizational goals and the metaphor the learning organization implies openness to new developments and participative planning. Therefore, one can take the position that culture can be changed indirectly, through structural modifications. Schein (1985) dismisses several other indirect mechanisms to change organizational culture; apart from structural design or redesign and common procedures. He identified five direct mechanisms:

- a. Priorities set by organization leaders.
- b. The leaders' reaction to critical events
- c. The enactment of desired behaviour
- d. The setting of norms and standards of delivering rewards and providing status.
- e. Criteria with respect to hiring and firing.

In the light of the discussion about direct mechanisms distinguished by Schein rather enforce the Impression that culture follows structure. The question that arises is the question which arrangements exist for activities like priority setting, being explicit on desired behaviour, students and criteria setting. It seems the question as to which degree they exist and what their substantive direction is a question of structure rather than culture.

Conclusive Remarks

From the earlier discussions, it can be concluded that work in university education, and the implications of university effectiveness knowledge base for improvement-oriented university management, has to be seen in terms of general orientation

rather than precise recipes.

Where policies of decentralization put certain premium on university management, university effectiveness provides a counterbalance by emphasizing leadership. Some authors who define educational leadership say more about structural conditions surrounding the instructions process, whereas others are more focused on cultural aspects. According to Irwin (1986) the following aspects of educational leaders are very essential in university effectiveness.

The University Leader:

- a) functions as an initiator and co-ordinator of the improvement of the Instructions programmes.
- b) states clear mission of the university or units.
- c) has task oriented attitude
- d) establishes clear objectives
- e) supports innovation strategies
- f) stimulates effective instruction
- g) is quite visible in the university or units
- h) sees to it that students progress is monitored regularly.
- i) delegates routine tasks to others

In addition, Leithwood and Montgomay (1982) identified cultural aspectsofs I

- a) stimulation of an achievement oriented university policies.
- b) commitment to all types of academic decisions in the university
- c) stimulating co-operation relationship among academic staff, non academic staff and students in order to realize a joint commitment to the achievement-oriented university mission.
- d) advertising the central mission of the university and obtaining support of external supporters and stakeholders.

In more recent views on university leadership, inspired by the concept of the learning organization, motivating staff by providing incentives and creating consensus on issues concerning the university is emphasized. Transactional leadership and transformational leadership concepts are the basic examples. Staff development and the human resource factors are strongly emphasized in these approaches.

Some hypothetical university effectiveness enhancing factors fall in line with the mechanism of synoptic planning and bureaucratic structuring. That is, clear goal statements, orderly climate, and frequent monitoring. This general principle of organizational functioning is also close to the principles of structured direct instructions. Stringfield (1995) uses a metaphor of high reliability organizations, in a further conceptualization of this general principle and also provides an interesting successful example.

In conclusion, the message from university effectiveness thinking, as far as improvement-oriented university management is concerned, focuses on three main principles namely :

- a) clear structuring

- b) Enhancing of university learning by means of evaluation and feedback.
- c) Obtaining consensus and cohesion with respect to basic goals and values.

- Cheng, Y. C. (1993): Conceptualization and Measurement of School Effectiveness: An Organizational Perspective:
A paper presented at EARA
annual meeting - Atlanta Georgia.
- Mintzberg H. (1979): The structuring of organizations.
Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliff.
- SchreenJ. (1996) Theoretical embedded principles of effective schooling.
Morgan G. (1986) Images of organizations; Sage,
Beverly hills.
- GrimhE-.E. HartA.W-andBlamGB.(1991): Still another approach to administrate: Chaos Theory; Education Administration Quarterly Vol.17pg. 430-541.
- MaslowskiR. (1995): Organizational cultural system.
- Stringfiled S. (1995): Attempting to enhance students' learning through innovative programmes; the case for schools evolving into high reliability organizations: School effectiveness and school improvement.
- Laurie J. Mullins (2000): Management and organizational Behaviour Pitman Publishing.
- Tim Hannagan (1995): Management: Concepts and Practices.
- The World Bank (2000): Higher Education in Developing countries: World Bank.
- Cole, G. A. (1996): The Administrative Theory and Workers'

Motivation; Zante; Institute of Administration Press
Ltd. ABU, Zaria Nigeria.

Smith, R. D. Houston J. M. and McIntire, S. A. (1996):
Organization Development: Strategies for changing
environments: London, Harper Colins.