MODULE 2   POWER, AUTHORITY AND LEADERSHIP IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

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

UNIT 1   BASES OF LEADER POWER

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   How to study this unit
4.0   Word Study
5.0   Main Content
        5.1   Reward Power
        5.2   Coercive Power
        5.3   Legitimate Power
        5.4   Expert Power
        3.5   Referent Power
        5.6   The Use of Power in School Administration
6.0   Activities
7.0   Conclusion
8.0   Summary
9.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
10.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

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

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

1.   Power refers to potential acts, rather than to transactions actually occurring, it is the capacity to exert influence.
2.   A person may be said to have power to the extent that he influences the behaviour of others in accordance with his own intentions.
3.   Power is the capacity or ability to secure the dominance of one's values or goals over goals of others.
4.   Power in human analysis will mean the generalised ability to satisfy wants – money, status, knowledge, acceptance, persuasiveness, skill etc as particular forms of power. (Stephen et al., 1973)

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

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:
•   define the concept of power;
•   identify and explain 5 sources and bases of a leader's power and influence; and
•   discuss the use of power in school administration.

3.0   HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

•   Read the unit thoroughly and then go back to ensure that you, achieved the set objectives.
•   Carry out all self-assessment and tutor-marked activities to ensure achievement of set objectives.
•

4.0   WORD STUDY

•   **Coercive-**force somebody
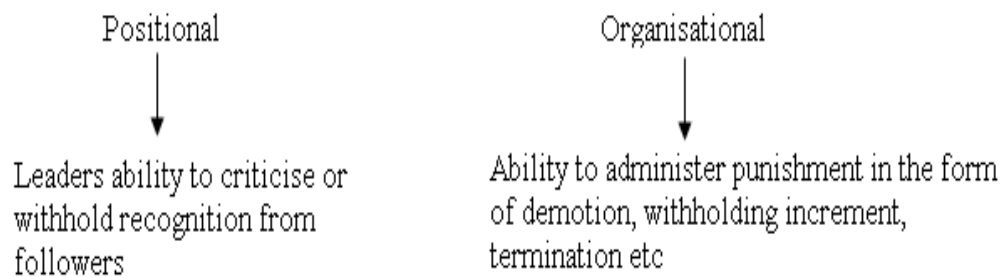
5.0   MAIN CONTENT

5.1   Reward Power

This is the leader's capacity to reward followers. This is the power based on the ability of the school administrator to control and administer rewards to those who comply with his or her directives (Peretomode,

1991). The more a subordinate performs perfectly well, the more reward he receives. On the other hand, to the extent that a leader possesses and controls rewards that are valuable to subordinates, to that extent will his power increase. Two sources of power are open to the leader (Oku, Emenalo & Okeke, 2008).

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

5.2   Coercive Power

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

Positional   Organisational

↓   ↓

Leaders ability to criticise or   Ability to administer punishment in the form
withhold recognition from   of demotion, withholding increment,
followers   termination etc

5.3   Legitimate Power

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

5.4   Expert Power

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

5.5   Referent Power

This is dependent upon the extent to which the subordinates identify with the leader, that is, look up to and wish to emulate him / her. This refers also to power based on the attractiveness and appeal of the leader. Thus the more the subordinates admire and want to be like or emulate the leader the more he is able to influence them. This is commonly associated with charismatic leaders. The leader is said to have charisma to inspire and attract followers and the followers often desire to be like the charismatic leader.

Figure 1: Types of power at the Leader's Discetion
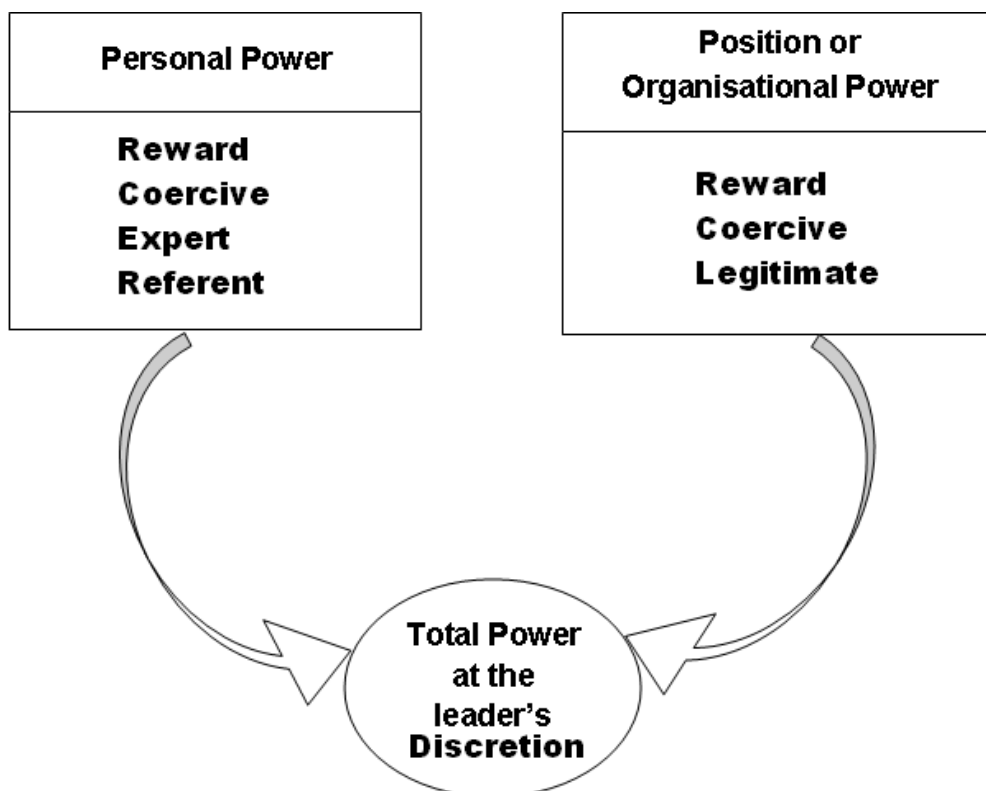
Source: *Adapted from Ukeje, Okorie & Nwagbara (1992)*

5.6   The Use of Power in School Administration

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

Ndu *et al.* referencing Giles (1955) points out that power is used differently by different individuals according to their understanding of the concept of leadership. He made a distinction between 'power over' and 'power with' the group. Power over group constrains initiative and creativity of the group and therefore limits productivity. According to Giles, under the group approach to leadership, a leader is not concerned with getting and maintaining personal authority. His chief purpose is to develop group power that will enable the group to accomplish its goals. He does not conceive of his power as something apart from the power of the group. He is concerned with developing the type of relationships that will give him power with the group.

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

6.0 ACTIVITIES

- What is power?
- Give five examples of types of power.

7.0 CONCLUSION

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

8.0 SUMMARY

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

9.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Define the term of power
ii.   (a)   Identify five sources / bases of power to a leader
        (b)   Explain them briefly
iii.   Discuss the use of power in school administration.
iv.   How can you as a manager apply power practically in your school administration?

10.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Ocho, L. O. (1997). "The Philosophical Context of Educational Administration." *In*: A. N. Ndu, L. O. Ocho & B. S. Okeke (eds.) *Dynamics of Educational Administration and Management, the Nigerian Perspective*, Awka: Meks Publishers Ltd.

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UNIT 2   AUTHORITY

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   How to study this unit
4.0   Word Study
5.0   Main Content
        5.1   Traditional Authority
        5.2   Charismatic Authority
        5. 3   Rational – Legal Authority
        5.4   Other forms of Authority
        5.5   Justification for the Use of Authority
        5.6   Power and Authority: Distinction
        5.7   Problems of Power and Authority in School Management
and Supervision
7.0   Conclusion
8.0   Summary
9.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
10.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

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

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

In the lower level jobs, it is often necessary and desirable to clearly specify the responsibility and the requisite authority and to have them closely supervised and controlled. This is to minimise or control the common tendency, at this level, to overstep the limits of one's authority or to become too officious or overzealous. The source of authority in an organisation is always from above and through delegation. There are different types of authority.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

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

3.0   HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- Read this unit with care
- Attempt to carry out all activities given.

4.0   WORD STUDY

- **Legitimate:** Legal – Complying with the law
- **Justification:** Something that justifies

5.0   MAIN CONTENT

5.1   Traditional Authority

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

5.2   Charismatic Authority

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

5.3   Rational – Legal Authority

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

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

1.   Formal Authority

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

2.   Functional Authority

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

5.4   Other Forms of Authority

A person may be endowed in a particular area of human endeavour, and as such may be described as an authority in the area. For example, Professor Chike Obi of Mathematics, Professors Chinua Achebe and Wole Soyinka of Literature etc. This means that they are persons whose

pronouncements in these areas carry a lot of weight because they have studied the subject for a long time and have become experts in them.

As children, we were under the authority of our parents. The authority of the institution in society is indispensable. Suffice it to say that we think, teach, and learn only on the authority of the family, school, the church or religion. They are part of the unifying influence of society. They also give stability which enables us to feel free to explore, criticise and try new experiences which establish values. In a school situation also, students may be given authority as prefects in consideration of their capabilities.

Briefly discuss formal and functional authorities.

5.5   Justification for the Use of Authority

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

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

It is necessary to institutionalise authority in the sphere of knowledge in educational institutions. Hist and Peters (1980:113) stated that "it takes civilised men to bring up other civilised people". Society has become so complex that no man can possibly fully understand the industrialised world. This necessitates the establishment of authorities in different branches of learning in addition to the general authority of the institution that ensures that the atmosphere is conducive to the growth and transfer of knowledge. No authority is ultimate because all authorities do make

mistakes. Authorities in specialised areas of learning or activity should be regarded as provisional. It is the duty of such authorities to ensure that their students learn enough to challenge their authority or even overthrow it.

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

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

5.6   Power and Authority: Distinction

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

5.7   Problems of Authority and Power

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

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

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

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

6.0   ACTIVITIES

i.   What is authority?
ii. List five source of authority
iii. Give three reasons for use of authority in school system.

7.0   CONCLUSION

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

8.0   SUMMARY

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

9.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Outline and discuss five sources of authority
ii.   Discuss the need for rational – legal authority
iii.   Is there any distinction between power and authority?
iv.   Discuss justification for the use of authority
v.   Give an overview of the problems of power and authority in school management and supervision.

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UNIT 3   LEADERSHIP IN CHILDHOOD INSTITUTIONS

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   How to study this unit
4.0   Word Study
5.0   Main Content
        5.1   What Is Leadership and Who Is a Leader?
        5.2   Theories of Leadership
                5.2.1   Trait Theory
                5.2.2   Personal Behaviour Theory
                5.2.3   Situation or Contingency Theory
        5.3   Dimensions of Leadership
        5.4   Leadership Styles and Effective School Management
6.0   Activities
7.0   Conclusion
8.0   Summary
9.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
10.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

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

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

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

•   define leadership;

- identify three qualities of a good leader;
- discuss effectively at least three theories of leadership;
- explain the dimensions of leadership; and
- describe briefly three leadership styles and their effects on school management.

3.0   HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- Read through carefully.
- Carry out all activities and assessments

4.0   WORD STUDY

- **Initiate-** Make something start, process of beginning something
- **Theory-** Speculation abstract thought or contemplation

5.0   MAIN CONTENT

5.1   What is Leadership and who is a Leader?

What Is Leadership?

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

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

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

From the above conceptualisation we deduce that:

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

Who is a Leader?

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

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

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

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

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

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

Other Leadership Approaches

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

1.   Dictatorial/Authoritarian or Authoritarian leadership
2.   Participatory or Democratic leadership and
3.   Laissez-faire or Disappearing

•   An **Autocratic Leader** is a leader who assumes almost all of the responsibility in deciding for what purposes a group will strive, what actions will be followed in reaching these purposes and specially what action each member of the group will contribute to the total group action. This type of leader assumes that he knows all the answers.

•   **Laissez-Faire** leader is one who feels that leadership should reside with the group rather than with any single (person) member of the group. He feels that one of his tasks is to reduce dependency of the group members upon himself.

•   **Democratic leader** is interested in bringing people together so that they work effectively and happily to achieve agreed-upon goal. He does not compel, decide, coerce, order, drive or force others to accept his will. He gets his way through conviction and by invoking his mandate 'we agreed'.

5.2   Theories of Leadership

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

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

5.2.1 The Trait Theory

The earliest studies of leadership were characterised by the search for personality traits or attributes which effective leaders were thought to possess. The theory rested on the great man concept that leaders are born not made. It was believed that the inherent personal characteristics,

qualities or attributes are transferable from one situation to the other, and that only those who possessed such trait were potential leaders. Studying leadership by this approach, attention is focused on the natural traits of the individual such as physical attributes, personality traits and general ability characteristics.

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

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

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

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

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

Weaknesses of Trait Theory

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

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

5.2.2 Personal-Behavioural Theory

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

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

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

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

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

Weakness of Behavioural Theory

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

5.2.3 Situational Theory

The situational approach to the study of leadership is concerned with trying to identify situations to which the leader's behaviour can be

attributed. Hence this approach can be sub-divided into two. First, was the classical situation and second was the neo-classical situation theory.

The classical situation theory of 1950s believed that it was the situation which produced the leader. Leadership according to this school of thought is vested in a person by a group not because his person is inherently a leader but because he performed needed functions for his group. In their study with 470 naval officers, Stodgill was affected by the organisational environment. This simply means that leaders are made by the situation.

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.4 Contingency Theory

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.5 Path-Goal Theory

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

Ukeje, Akabogu and Ndu (1992), Evans (1970), House (1971) and House and Dester (1974), hold that the primary task of leader is to

increase the attractiveness of the reward outcome associated with task performance. In other words, effective leadership should encompass those behaviours of the leader that increase employee's performance and satisfaction.

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

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

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

1.   Initiating structure
2.   Consideration

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

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

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

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

5.3   Dimensions of Leadership

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

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

The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions:

a)   Its effectiveness and   (b)   Its efficiency.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 1.1:   Proposed Leadership Dimensions and Descriptions by Stogdill

System-Oriented	Persons-Oriented
Production emphasis-applies pressure for productive output	Tolerance of freedom -allows staff member's scopes for initiative,

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

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

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

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

If the four dimensions are collapsed into two, the same dimensions reappear. That is, supportive behaviour and interaction facilitation are neatly subsumed under group maintenance functions or expressive

activities, goal emphasis and work facilitation tend to be encompassed under goal achievement functions or instrumental activities.

5.4   Leadership Styles and Effective School Management

Style of leadership in any positional incumbent depends on the following factors:

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

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

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

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

Responsibilities are shared and this leadership demonstrates respect for every person. Decision making is based on consultation, deliberation and participation among the group and this increases output. This method of leadership is considered the most acceptable because most practitioners have achieved great success in running their organisations with it. Employees are always satisfied with it because their opinions, comments and suggestions are needed for decision making. This gives them sense of belonging and increases their effectiveness. Decisions reached through consultation attract more loyalty and acceptability than those imposed. By involving the workers in the decision making process, the workers wealth of experience is exploited to the benefit of the organisation.

This style of leadership emphasises that the leader should be a friend to all but a special friend to none within the organisational framework and must maintain a respectable distance from all. The leader provides explanations and permits discussions in work situations when required.

The leader normally makes constructive criticisms but does not blame unnecessarily. Communication flow between the leader and the led is effective. This is because written communication is supplemented with oral one.

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

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

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

The following are Characteristics of Autocratic Leadership

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

Implications of Autocratic Style in Organisation

Some of the under listed are Implications of Autocratic Style in Organisations

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

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

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

It is more or less a free-rein leadership

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

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

Implications of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

The following are Implications of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

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

2. Most of the staff may seize the opportunity of the free-rein to absent themselves from duty without permission. Because of the absence of effective leadership, some influential and ambitious members in the organisation may struggle for the power to fill the leadership vacuum. This may lead to chaos.

Some renowned scholars like Lawler (1970) in Emenike (2003) have intimated that a Laissez-faire leader is really no leader at all. While he holds the formal leadership position, he acts as the group figure head.

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

Charismatic Leadership Style

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

The leadership is loved, adored, the command is unchallengeable and the authority is legitimised through the over whelming devotion to him by the group (Emenike, 2003). Knezervich (1975) refers to this type of leadership as symbolic leaders. They have such personality qualities as ambition, dependability, force, endurance, wisdom, humility, patience and pride. Because of these special traits which the charismatic leader shows or exhibits in organisations, subordinates usually obey him, offer him maximum cooperation, and generally work to satisfy him.

Implications of Charismatic Leadership Style

1. It may not produce organisational effectiveness
2. It ignores the influence of the situation and the followers on the leader.

3.   Leaders alone cannot do the magic of delivering the goods in the organisation without the positive contributions of subordinates.
4.   It has been proved from research that most charismatic leaders have autocratic tendencies which have negative consequences in organisations.
5.   Charismatic leadership style cannot be strictly defined as a leadership style (Mgbodile, 1986).

6.0   ACTIVITIES

- Define Leadership
- List three types of leadership
- Differentiate between the states and functional leadership

7.0   CONCLUSION

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

8.0   SUMMARY

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

9.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Leadership is indispensable in an organisation. Discuss.
ii.   Discuss two theories of leadership.
iii.   Who is a leader?
iv.   Explain the dimensions of leadership.
v.   (a)   Outline four types of leadership styles
            (b)   What are their implications in organisation?

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UNIT 4   ROLE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM AS AN ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

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

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

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

3.0   HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

- Read through the unit carefully
- Carry out all activities outlined

4.0   WORD STUDY
- **Policy:** the act of governance

5.0   MAIN CONTENT

5.1   Brief Overview on Primary Education

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

5.2   Role of Primary Education as Defined by the National Policy on Education

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

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

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

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

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

5.3   Enhancing Childhood Development in Nigeria through Primary Education and Participation Rights

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.4   Reforms in Primary Education in Nigeria

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

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

These reforms have played a lot of roles in the restructuring of primary school system as an organisation in Nigeria.

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

6.0   ACTIVITIES

  i.   Ogoamaka (2007) outlined the changes primary education has gone through, list the areas in which these changes have accrued
 ii.   Give five ways in which effective participation in education enhanced through the Child Rights Acts.
iii.   What is Primary Education?

7.0   CONCLUSION

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

8.0   SUMMARY

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

9.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   Briefly explain primary education
ii.   Discuss the role of primary education as outlined by the National Policy on Education
iii.   Discuss childhood development
iv.   Outline areas of reform in primary education in Nigeria.

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UNIT 5   DISCIPLINE AND PUNISHMENT IN CHILDHOOD SCHOOLS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

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

Olympic games and starts training for it or a person submits to regular exercise in order to reduce his weight.

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

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

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

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

3.0   HOW TO STUDY THIS UNIT

• Read through carefully
• Carry out all exercise

4.0   MAIN CONTENT

4.1   Modern Objectives and Concept of Discipline

Discipline in the simplistic sense is the control of behaviour for the right purpose (Ukeje, Akabogu & Ndu, 1992). An individual is said to exhibit self discipline when he can set a goal for himself and then make sacrifices and efforts necessary to obtain it. The emphasis today is on permanent educational values, rather than on maintaining order in the school; on training boys and girls to desire to be acceptable and useful

beings. Furthermore, it is on training individuals to develop better conduct, rather than to be dependent upon government. It is worthy of emphasis that to the modern educational objective of discipline, order is largely incidental and secondary. Order is to be maintained in so far as it is necessary to maintain satisfactory work conditions.

Respect for authority should be at least partly the result of leadership which is inculcated through self-discipline. The approval of the school community should be the natural outcome of the more modern effective programme of character development not a primary objective.

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

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

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

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

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

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Define the concept discipline

4.2   Classroom Discipline

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

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

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

4.3   Factors Affecting School Discipline

i.   School Morale

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

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

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

ii.   Attitude of the School Authority to Pupils

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

iii.   Early Recognition of Symptoms.

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

iv.   Discipline Policy of the School

The policies put in place by a school about discipline and how they are implemented have far reaching effects on the discipline situation in the school. Clear cut policies on discipline for the guidance of staff and students must be stipulated by school administrators. Efforts must also be made to implement them. Individual teachers must understand principles underlying modern school discipline. This is of utmost importance. Disciplinary policies must be in harmony with the principles of democracy. Disciplinary policies should stress the responsibilities as well as the rights of an individual. They should be

positive and directed towards the goal of self-discipline. In the whole, they should be primarily preventive, secondarily corrective, and never retributive. Discipline problems are kept to the barest minimum if these policies and principles are fairly and firmly implemented.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3
List five factors affecting school discipline

4.4   Some Factors and Attitudes that Promote Discipline

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

(a)   Leadership   (b)   Frankness in admitting error

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

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

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

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

another disorderly person whom the students may regard as a weak administrator who has exhausted his resources.

d. **Using commendation:** Discipline and morale should be positive rather than negative. Scolding and magnification of the undesirable actions does not improve them. Rather they are improved by emphasising, commending and encouraging activities that are well done. Administrators and teachers who fail to provide objective appraisal of mistakes and successes and to encourage students to evaluate their own activities are not fair to students.

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

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

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

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

Programme for the Provision of Opportunities for Pupils to Behave Desirably

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

1. **Develop school ideals and spirit:** This is best achieved through assemblies, home – room discussions and other students' group meeting where character, good citizenship and good spirit are deliberately cultivated.
2. **Develop favourable relations:** The desire to have the good will and respect of teachers and head teachers who are well liked and respected makes students behave in a way that will merit approval. Consequently, administrators should, wherever possible, exhibit at least a casual interest in every pupil and in all pupil activities, congratulating them upon their successes and sympathising with them in their misfortunes.
3. **Remove temptations and possibility of misbehaviour:** Careful planning by the administrator can remove many disciplinary situations. For instance, pilfering can be reduced to a barest minimum if all students deposit their pocket money and other consumables with the house master. He will lock them away in a house safe and keep a record of periodic issues to each student for the students' immediate needs. Rules about locker room uses and entries can be enforced strictly and consistently not periodically. Careful and daily roll calls will forestall truancy. Careful seating arrangement and custody of all examination papers will prevent cheating in examinations. If the individual feels secured, accepted, liked and satisfied most of the time, he will exhibit good behaviour.

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

4.6   Discipline and Mental Hygiene

It is an unfortunate aspect of the school discipline to give insufficient thought to the effect of disciplinary measures upon the personality of pupils. Very often teachers and administrators are prone to seek order at the expense of pupil growth. According to Harl Douglas (1964:337) in

Ukeje, Akabuogu and Ndu (1992) administrators and teachers need to be trained to observe such principles as the following:

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

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

4.7   Punishment

The concept of punishment is precise. It is only a device to maintain discipline. In an administrative situation, failure to meet role requirements is punished. There are arrays of punishment which among others include:

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

Teachers in the school situation resort to punishment in order to maintain discipline. Our attention is called once more to the fact that

punishment does not necessarily mean discipline. Discipline is a far wider concept.

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

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

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

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

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

4.7.1 Guiding Principles on Punishments

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

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

Two standards that courts have advanced to guide are:

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

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

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

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

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

Corporal Punishment: Entails physical action to chastisement of a pupil. It is a punitive response to students' behaviour.
Suspension / Expulsion: They are punitive responses or punishment alternatives utilised by school administrators in cases involving extreme misbehaviour – assault or battery, upon a member of staff or student. Suspension connotes a temporary exclusion of a student from school for a specified period of time – say from one day to several weeks until something is done by the student or his parent.

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

4.8   Students Rights under 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

Fundamental Rights	Punishments/Practice in Schools that Violate /Tend that Infringe on students' Rights
Section 3.3 Right to Life	Corporal punishment or any other form of punishment that leads to the loss of student's life or causes him permanent disfigurement.
Section 34: Right to the Dignity of Human Person	- Excessive or unreasonable corporal punishment. - Shaving student's hair, cutting student's skirt to fit in school assembly or classroom in the name of grooming where a mild correction can be adopted. - Making a student go partially naked before other students for wearing wrong dress. - Using excessive or derogatory or dirty language on a student in the presence of others that lowers his person before others or cause him emotional disturbance. - Teacher's assault and battery (trespass) on the person of a student.
Section 35: Right to Personal Liberty	- Barring a student from talking an examination, to which he has duly registered for. - Barring a student from graduation ceremonies after satisfactorily completion of studies. - Unreasonable detention of student after school. - Refusal to issue or sign transfer certificate in the form approved by the Ministry of Education to a parent or guardian if all fees owed to the school have been paid.
Section 36: Right to Fair Hearing	- Punishing a student e.g. suspension, expulsion without giving him the opportunity to defend himself against the charges, that should be made known to him in advance. - Not following laid down procedure in punishing (suspending or expelling) a student. - Not giving opportunity to a student to call his witnesses and to question those who have testified against him - Accusers taking part in the trial of students. - Suspending or expelling or denying a student a right without formally accusing him or allowing him to state his case.

Section 38: Right to Freedom of Thought, Conscience and Religion	- Not honouring parents or guardians request to allow their children/wards attend only a particular religious denominational service. - Requesting students to take part in services or morning assembly worship where the religious observances are not related to their own religion. - Encouraging the formation of a particular religious movement in a school and forbidding others. - Punishing students who refuse to recite the pledge or take part in the flag salute.
Section 39: Right to of Expression and Press	- Disallowing the formation of a Press club Freedom or other social or educative clubs that are not prohibited by law. - Preventing students from expressing their opinions, in a peaceful manner or in a protest letter. - Limiting or censoring the contents or opinions of students (which are not likely to promote immorality) in students' newspaper. - Suspending a student for expressing his views about certain practices or aspects of the school administration (where there is no incitement to violence).
Section 40: Right to Peaceful Assembly and Associations	- Barring students from forming or belonging to social clubs/societies of their choice in school. - Barring students from carrying out peaceful demonstration or rally that are permissible. - Barring students from conducts which are not descriptive of good order on campus. - Forcing membership of a certain social school club on students (N.B. the Right to associate also implies the right not to associate).
Section 41: Right to Freedom of Movement	- Excessive or unreasonable use of authority to detention or false imprisonment in a school room or office as a form of punishment.
Section 42: Right to Admission	- Refusing to admit a qualified student to your school on the basis of tribe, religion, political belief, state etc. - Basing admissions on quota-system particularly admitting candidates with lower test scores and leaving un-admitted those with higher scores on the same test because of states of origin, sex, religion etc. (Corpus Juris Secundun, 79 C.S.493)

5.0   ACTIVITIES
  i.   Define the concept of discipline
  ii. list five factors that can be taken to promote discipline
  iii. enumerate two ways you can use to promote good behavior among pupils.

6.0   CONCLUSION

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

7.0   SUMMARY

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

8.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   (a)   What is discipline?
      (b)   Discuss three objectives discipline
ii.   How can you maintain discipline in the classroom?
iii. Outline factors that affect school discipline
iv.   What attitudes promote discipline in schools?
v.   Explain discipline as it relates to mental hygiene.
vi.   Define punishment and outline its guiding principles

9.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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