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**EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF CERTAIN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN BENDEL STATE, NIGERIA, AS PERCEIVED
BY PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS**

Approved By

DISSERTATION

Wayne M. Carlee
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Education in the Graduate School
of Texas Southern University

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Committee Member

By

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VITA

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Oborakporon, Virrinda, and Stephanie Ekerakye.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express his heartfelt gratitude to Dr. Wayne M. Carle, Dr. Launey F. Roberts, Jr., Dr. Willie A. McCree, and Dr. Antoinette Boecker. Each of these members of his research committee made valuable contributions to this study.

In particular, the writer would like to acknowledge the efforts made by his chairman, Dr. Wayne M. Carle, who supervised every aspect of the study which made its completion possible. Appreciation is also extended to Dr. Sharon Brown for her support and assistance in the final stages of the writing.

The writer wishes to thank Dr. Adeg0 E. Eferakeya for his support and dedication to the education of every member of the family. He is also deeply grateful to his friends and colleagues who invariably encouraged the efforts of the writer and to Sharon Bierman of the Devereaux Bureau for her assistance in the final preparation of the manuscript.

Finally, the writer wishes to express love to his wife, Marilyn Kay Eferakeya, for her support and patience and to his children, Eneneakpogbe, Oborakpororo, Virrinda, and Stephanie Eferakeya.

DEDICATION

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Eferakeya family.

Of immense importance to the study for the improvement and effectiveness of educational programs is the determination of educational needs as perceived by those individuals who function within school establishments. The intent of the study is to generate accurate data required for the formulation of policy and decision-making relevant to desired change in educational programs.

Likert (1967, p. 84) states that work-related attitudes of organizational participants contribute directly, at least in the long run, to organizational effectiveness. He maintained that a determination of the actual worth of an organization must include measures of human assets, as well as the normal accounting data, and proposed that much of this information should come from surveys of the perceptions or attitudes of the organizational participants.

In a review of over 100 empirical studies of change completed since 1970, Paul (1977, p. 49) was able to generalize that recognition of school needs and congruence of changes in the program facilitate change. The studies reviewed showed need recognition to be the first step toward successful change and school improvement. Furthermore, these studies indicate that the change should address the perceived needs of teachers. Conversely, if teachers do not perceive the need for change, then successful implementation is doubtful. Paul is supported by Rockafellow (1973, p. 75) who, in commenting on strategy selection for change, asserted that members of the social system affected should recognize the need for

Chapter 1

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change and participate in a needs assessment activity as a means to that end. Similarly, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971, p. 44) reported research data clearly indicating that change agent success is positively related to the degree to which innovation (change) is compatible with the perceived needs of clients.

Carlin and Scott (1981, p. 57) asserted that those who participate in a needs assessment to perceive the identified needs as accurate are important because a needs assessment does not exist in a vacuum. It is only a part of the larger change process. This larger process is best observed when needs surfacing in the assessment process are perceived as representing the real situation by a majority who comprise the system to be changed.

Since the perceptions of those individuals who are directly involved in school systems are sine qua non to the generation of accurate data for the needs assessment pertinent to educational programs improvement and success, it was the purpose of this study to determine educational program needs as perceived by principals and teachers. Further, it was the purpose of this study to ascertain the degree of consensus between principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational program needs so that improvement requirements could be assessed for the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program.

Background of the Study

Studies which utilized the perceptions of principals and teachers in the United States focused on the identification of needs as the basis for improvement and effectiveness of educational programs. These studies were able to identify several educational program needs.

Maben (1973, p. 87) reported in his study that factors considered by

principals and teachers as giving great difficulty were inadequate room facilities, classrooms with high pupil-teacher ratios, insufficient funds for purchasing needed supplies, such as lack of consultant services, and resource materials. In the same vein of study, the National Education Association, Research Division (1978, p. 49), using a nationwide sample of public school classroom teachers, found that educational innovations, curricular problems, and technology constituted areas of perceived needs requiring improvement.

While these studies and others have been conducted in an effort to determine educational needs and to provide information on areas of educational programs needing improvement in the United States, similar studies are lacking in Nigeria. However, it is important to provide base-line information on the situation in Nigeria.

A brief review of the history of education in Nigeria indicates that colonial education failed because of its inability to adapt educational programs to the needs of the native people. Scanlon (1964, p. 53) stated that the Phelps-Stokes Reports of 1922 pinpointed these defects under the umbrella of adaptability of education to the mentality, aptitudes, and conditions of local needs. In essence the curriculum, administration, and instructional materials of colonial educational systems were inadequate for local consumption. Scanlon (1964) went so far as to say:

The wholesale transfer of the educational conventions of Europe and America has certainly not been an act of wisdom, however justly it may be defended as proof of genuine interest in the Native people. Now that the futility of many of these conventions for advanced social groups has been recognized, is

it not imperative that the Africans and their friends shall urge the greater injustice of applying them to the widely diverse conditions of the primitive groups in Africa? The too frequent charges of the failure of Native education are traceable in part to the lack of educational adaptation to Native life. These charges of failure have, of course, been overemphasized by those who have no interest or faith in the development of Native people. It is probable that only time will overcome the indifference or hostility of those whose racial conceit or racial selfishness blinds them to the educational possibilities of the African people. (p. 53)

The point is that colonial education in Nigeria did not lend itself to the social, political, and economic advancement of the people because of its inadequate educational programs. Therefore, the dissatisfaction with colonial educational systems led to the agitation for the improvement and effectiveness of educational programs.

Prior to the inauguration of the civilian administration in 1979 (preceded by almost 12 years of military rule), Koehn (1981, p. 4) noted that the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN) presented the most easily understood manifesto to the electorate in the form of four "cardinal programs": (1) free education and textbooks at all levels, (2) integrated rural development, (3) full employment and a higher minimum wage, and (4) free health care. Further, Koehn (1981, p. 4) contended that the disproportionate attention which the UPN and its opponents devoted to the first of these proposals led to its being labeled the "free education" party.

Thus, the UPN's political ideology embraced, among other ideals, an educational philosophy with tenets which not only enunciated a democratic reformation of secondary educational programs but also advocated educational programs at all levels of formal education. This partisan policy to change education in Nigeria represented a digression from the prevailing one in which opportunities to formal education at any level were selectively limited to the affluent few.

According to Obe (1980, p. 1820), the five state governments have set about implementing this policy in earnest since October 1979, and the resources of the five states have been mobilized to answer to the unprecedented demand for educational improvement.

Bendel State, a state controlled by the UPN, implemented the new policy on secondary school expansion and improvement. Adenaike (1980, p. 1520) contended that the increased number of students would determine the quantity of school buildings, furniture, equipment, and teachers. A report issued by the Bendel State government (Progress Report, 1981, p. 3) confirmed this viewpoint where it was indicated that student enrollment in secondary schools was 281,957, an increase of 51% in the 1980-81 session. Such a phenomenal increase in the percentage of student enrollment is destined to produce additional diversities and degrees of educational needs that may be perceived by individuals who function at the operative levels of the school systems in Bendel State.

From the corpus of these studies it is possible to identify curriculum, administration, instructional materials, and physical plant to be the basic areas of school operation that are of concern to principals and teachers, and which are essential to an educational system.

Statement of the Problem

The Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program was developed and implemented in 1979 in an effort to revolutionize education in the state. The need to change the direction of education stemmed from the failure of the colonial educational system to provide the youth with the opportunity and adequate educational programs necessary for the development of basic skills pertinent to political, social, and economic advancement.

Whereas this phenomenal change in the direction of secondary education represented a novel and audacious step by the state government, the success and the effectiveness of the education program is largely contingent upon the availability and adequacy of basic operational programs. That is, the adaptability and suitability of the curricular content, the availability of teachers and support personnel, the availability of instructional and resource materials, adequate classroom space, building maintenance, and furniture, and the availability of appropriate in-service programs are some paramount measures and indices of effective operation of the total educational program.

Another critical factor in the change process is the extent to which those who are involved in the educational needs assessment relevant to educational rejuvenation and effectiveness are in agreement. The need to change the educational programs relevant to the enhancement of education should address the perceived needs of both principals and teachers. Conversely, if principals and teachers do not perceive the need to change, then successful implementation is doubtful. Therefore, it is essential to seek and ascertain the degree of consensus between principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational program needs so that successful implementation can be achieved.

Based on the general concepts presented above, this study attempted to determine principals' and teachers' perceptions of certain educational program needs. Specifically, this study purported to determine the following:

1. What do principals and teachers perceive to be the educational needs in the program area of curriculum?
2. What do principals and teachers perceive to be the educational needs in the program area of school administration?
3. What do principals and teachers perceive to be the educational needs in the area of instructional materials?
4. What do principals and teachers perceive to be the educational needs in the program area of building facilities, classroom space, and equipment?
5. To what extent do principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs agree in each of the foregoing program areas of basic school operation?

Need for the Study

Morphet and Jesser (1980, p. 7) emphasized that the need for adequate educational planning for the future is a must in order to attain the aspirations, goals, and objectives of education for the years ahead. Further, they asserted that several studies had related the kind and quality of education a nation provided its citizens to the level of political, social, and economic development of the nation. Morphet and Jesser's (1980, p. 8) postulation, that no meaningful educational planning for improvement could be divorced from the primary identification of perceived educational needs of the school system, is a justification for this study.

A report issued by the Implementation Committee for National Policy on Education (1978) expressed the need for the study. The report stated:

An essential feature of planning the expansion and improvement of education -- whether for Pre-primary, Primary, Secondary, or Teacher Education -- should be a continuous flow of relevant data, as accurate as time and circumstances permit, on what educational activities are presently going on. This knowledge of what is happening educationally should comprise information on objectives, learners, teachers, organization, finances involved, and at least some indication of the proven value of education. (p. 8)

Also, the Committee delineated the dearth of research and the inadequacy of essential data for a needs assessment pertinent to educational planning and improvement in these terms:

Difficulties are encountered in Nigeria in obtaining such basic data, in particular, statistics and other materials necessary to determine improvement needs do not reach the State Ministry (and hence later, the Federal Ministry of Education). . . .

Statistics are often inaccurate for planning purposes. (p. 129)

As it has been alluded to earlier, the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program is a brainchild of the Unity Party of Nigeria's policy on education. It is an educational policy based on the revolutionary expansionism concept and is formulated to rectify the rudimentary deficiencies inherent in the colonial educational system.

Because of the inability of the colonial educational system to meet the educational needs of the Nigerian masses, there is profuse skepticism among different cadres of the Nigerian society toward the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program. The program is viewed as a giant experiment that can only be successful to the extent that salient innovations are permitted to filter into the system and that such innovations are supported by research data. This study should, in part, reveal such data.

Because the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program is a prototype in Nigeria, it may be emulated by other states. Obe (1980, p. 1817) noted that the impact of the UPN program has snowballed into other states. He stated that in Kaduna State the assembly has taken the unusual step of initiating legislation to make education free at all levels and that Kwara State, which is controlled by the National Party of Nigeria (NPN), is supplying books to students and has reduced boarding fees substantially. Therefore, the findings from this study should provide guidance to other Nigerian states and possibly other African countries that might consider the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program for adoption. Nonetheless, because of the lack of research in this area of study in Nigeria, this study should also generate information that may be beneficial to a general readership.

Hypotheses of the Study

Based on the questions posed in the statement of the problem, the following null hypotheses were postulated:

Ho 1: There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the educational program area of curriculum.

Ho 2: There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the educational program area of administration.

Ho 3: There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the educational program area of instructional materials.

Ho 4: There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the educational program area of physical plant, i.e., building facilities, classroom space, and equipment.

Assumptions

This study made the following basic assumptions:

1. The principals and teachers used in this study constituted a representative sample of all principals and teachers in the secondary grammar schools of Oredo Local Government Area of Bendel State School System.
2. The subjects of this study responded honestly to the questionnaires.

Delimitation

Past studies have suggested that educational improvement needs assessment should elicit the perceptions of the organizational participants. Therefore, the scope of this study was delimited to the principals and teachers of Oredo Local Government Area of Bendel State Secondary School System. The sample of this study was also confined to those individuals who were engaged primarily as school administrators and classroom teachers in the categories of secondary schools generally known as secondary grammar schools in Bendel State of Nigeria.

Limitation

The study did not attempt to compare schools of the subjects. Additionally, sex, age, work experience, academic qualification, and income of the subjects were demographic factors not considered by this study.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were used operationally for this study. They were designed to convey purpose and clarity, and reduce terminology ambiguity throughout this study.

Educational programs refer to a system comprising specified human and physical resources committed to the attainment of educational objectives.

Need refers to a measurable discrepancy (gap) between outcomes (what is) and desired outcomes (what should be).

Needs assessment refers to a process designed to determine and ascertain the present or real situation of educational programs and to reveal the discrepancies between the real situation and the desired situation.

NPN refers to the National Party of Nigeria, a national political party with a conservative ideology on education.

Perception refers to a process involving the utilization of sensory stimulation to determine the awareness of external objects, conditions, and relationships that are present in the organism's environment.

Principal refers to the administrative head and professional leader of a particular secondary grammar school.

Secondary grammar school refers to a six-year academic institution established for the university-bound student. The major curriculum is composed of the liberal arts and sciences.

UPN refers to the Unity Party of Nigeria, a national political party that formulated an educational policy espousing the democratization of education at all levels.

Summary

This chapter presented the problem of the study and the need for its study. Testable null hypotheses were postulated on the basis of the research questions posed.

Also, the scope of the study was set and assumptions made about the population parameter. Further, specific terms were operationally defined for purpose of clarity.

The next chapter reviews the literature. The review of literature focuses on educational needs perception, origins and foundations of education in Nigeria, dissatisfaction with colonial educational systems, and Nigerian educational improvement plans.

Perception of Educational Needs

Despite the veritable stagnation of the advancements of the Nigerian public school system, it has been the focus of advocacy and political attention. The reason is that the American public is increasingly demanding the use of billions of tax dollars that have been channeled into public schools for various reasons.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews some of the findings of studies that have a focus on educational needs perception, a survey of the origins and foundations of colonial influence on education in Nigeria, a delineation of the dissatisfaction with the colonial educational systems, and a review of Nigerian educational improvement plans. First, the needs perception concept was examined in terms of its relevance to educational programmatic change and effectiveness by the active involvement of organizational participants. Second, a brief history of education in Nigeria was surveyed to reveal pre-colonial education in Nigeria and the origins and foundations of colonial influence on Nigerian education. Third, a delineation of the highlights of the dissatisfaction with the colonial educational systems was undertaken to reflect the inadaptability and neglect of the colonial educational policy. And fourth, a review of Nigerian educational plans was discussed to epitomize its objectives to the social, political, and economic needs of Nigeria.

Perception of Educational Needs

Despite the worldwide recognition of the achievements of the American public school system, it has been the focus of scrutiny and pointed criticism. The reason is that the American public is demanding accountability for the millions of tax dollars that have been channeled into public schools for curricula, programs,

innovations, and methodologies. Also, the attack on the American public school system is emanating from the public's belief that the public schools are failing in the role entrusted to them by society. This sentiment has implication for need identification and program improvement requirements and effectiveness in the school systems.

Lavin (1971) commented on the importance of need identification as the initial step to program rejuvenation and effectiveness as follows:

It would seem that new programs, the new curricula and the new methodology have been introduced and imposed without sufficient attention given to educational needs for a given school building or district. Thus, we would argue for a strategy in which the educational needs assessment process constitutes the first step of any process for change. (p. 1)

Also, Carlin and Scott (1981, p. 57) contended that the need perception concept is the first step in the identification of needs in planning for change. Both authors asserted that, speaking of needs assessment as the starting point in planning for change, the need for those actively involved in change to participate in the needs identification process seemed obvious to many.

However, Baldridge (Baldridge and Deal, 1975, p. 56) remarked, "To mention the requirement for careful needs assessment is ridiculous. After all, is not all change preceded by such analysis? Unfortunately, this is not the case." In fact, innumerable educational change efforts have taken place without a needs assessment. Often the results have been disastrous.

If the identification of needs is crucial to education, planning, and the attainment of some semblance of amelioration in educational improvement and

effectiveness, then (1) What does the term "need" mean? (2) What kinds of needs exist? and (3) Who should participate in needs discernment? The whole concept of needs is confusing because of the multiple connotations attached to the term, so confusing to some that they would discard it. Komisar (1962) went so far as to say:

As a central concept in formal talk about education, the concept of need is expendable. It confuses rather than clarifies, and it conceals serious issues while flourishing in innocuous ones. (p. 397)

Need can be defined in a number of ways, and no model surveyed in the review of literature even mentioned the quandary of defining needs, a fact which emphasizes the complexity of the matter. The general procedure was to ignore the various concepts of need and treat need statements as simply as "important educational need."

Another important dimension is the involvement of individuals to assess improvement needs accurately. Carlin and Scott (1981, p. 57) noted that, for the accurate identification of needs, it is equally important that a majority of those who will actively implement the change effort perceive the end product (identified needs). They stressed that this point was crucial and often overlooked or underestimated by many educational planners.

Therefore, the participation of organizational clients is pertinent to organizational change and innovation. Even though there is some ambivalence about participation in the literature, especially in organizational development literature, it appears that participation is almost a byword. Writers in this field observed dangers in "participation" or "participative management" but stressed, "A major route to increased organizational effectiveness is through creating

conditions under which organization members can make larger contributions to organizational goals" (French and Bell, 1973, p. 91).

After an extensive review of the literature on participation, White and Rhue (1973, p. 503) reported some ambiguities in research findings on the value and nature of participation or organization members citing conflicting studies and the failure to replicate results. However, in their studies, White and Rhue found employees had consistently positive reaction between job attitudes and participation in decision-making.

Blake and Mouton (1969, p. 70) stressed the importance of participation but warned that it is no panacea in and of itself. While participation can create feelings of ownership and thereby affect involvement and commitment, some kinds of participation can be unhealthy. For example, people can be allowed to participate, but their input is ignored, creating further tensions. Participation can take the form of voting to make decisions by majority rule, often alienating the minority. Participation can also take the form of win-lose confrontation, resulting in a hostile impasse. Finally, participation which is little more than a pooling of ignorance can be less than helpful in making constructive decisions.

Hall (1969, p. 27) reported that his study involving 400 corporate managers produced data indicating a positive relationship between the amount of participation and feelings of satisfaction, responsibility, and commitment. In other words, people value and tend to support what they help create.

In discussing the trend toward participatory planning in education, Kaplan (1973, p. 20) observed that, as educational systems evolve from closed to more open-ended organizations, effective processes for participatory planning need to be more thoroughly developed and refined. Kaplan also raised concerns about

the process of communication, the nature of group dynamics, and the quality and use of the data generated (1973, p. 21).

Carlin and Scott (1981) noted that the potential for negative effects from participation was judged to be minimal for the following reasons:

(1) teachers were judged to have "higher order needs,"

(2) teachers would be pooling experts on opinions and information,

(3) input would not be ignored because by design the need

assessment was to be a first stage in a planned model change,

and (4) the use of consensus as a decision-making style was

employed to produce group decisions concerning perceived

needs that most teachers in the group would actively support

and which no one would purposely sabotage. (p. 26)

It is apparent that educational program improvement needs should first be identified through the active participation of administrators and classroom teachers. If we set ourselves to the improvement of education, we will improve not only the effectiveness of our organization but contribute to the growth and maturity of those who constitute them.

Pre-colonial Education in Nigeria

It would be incomplete to write about the origins and foundations of the development of colonial education in Nigeria without including the types of native education which existed in Nigeria prior to the introduction of Western or foreign education. To omit the types of native education in Nigeria is to deny ourselves and posterity the prodigious knowledge, skills, competencies, and expertise which they provided. Thus, native education in essence was the bedrock upon which the

social, political, and economic advancement of the Nigerian people was built before the advent of Western education. It is, therefore, worthwhile to identify and describe them in order to reveal the relevance of their curriculum to living preparation.

Aside from Western education, there are two types of education in Nigeria. These are indigenous and Muslim education. In fact, Obebe (1977) asserted that "there are three types of education in Nigeria today, each with its own distinct curriculum. These are Indigenous, Muslim, and Western education" (p. 3).

Indigenous education in southern Nigeria provided a curriculum that was geared toward the total preparation of the youth for adult life. The ultimate aim of indigenous education was to lead the individual to the attainment of the good life. Indigenous education is very old, and few writers have taken the pain to describe the main features of its curriculum. Fajana (1976) stated, "The oldest of them all is the indigenous education which is as old as the country (Nigeria) itself but which has not been accorded due recognition by writers because until recently few have been able to identify its main characteristics" (p. 7).

However, it is important to recognize that the curriculum of indigenous education is as comprehensive in scope as those of old Roman, Greek, and Egyptian curricula, and the indigenous curriculum is as viable as those of modern Europe and America. The curriculum of indigenous education provided a two-tier emphasis on living preparation. The first phase of the curriculum emphasized the development of intellect, skills, and competencies. This phase may be called survival curriculum. The second phase of the curriculum cultivated morality, justice, respectability, and heroism, and sensitized the ubiquity of man and nature.

Although the curriculum of indigenous education was not differentiated into what we call "disciplines" today, its content embodied substantive history, arithmetic, agriculture, and homemaking. Handicrafts such as pottery, rope-making, basket-weaving, tool-making, and trapping were inculcated. Traditional practices, norms, and needs were the bases for the engineering content of the curriculum.

The content of the curriculum of indigenous education also featured subjects such as philosophy, civics, medicine, native grammar, religion, music, dancing, drama, and physical education. Meteorology was also inculcated.

Instruction of indigenous education was given orally by parents and by elderly persons, sometimes in places called Ohwara. There were no strict timetables and class schedules to be followed. There were no structured examinations. According to Obebe (1977, p. 8), instruction was given by anyone, anywhere, and at any time. There was no system of writing, but there was a modicum of symbols written or carved to express certain concepts.

Obebe (1977) stated, "The Muslim education was first introduced to the northern part of Nigeria about the eleventh century A.D. and had spread by the fourteenth century throughout the Hausa land, not only in the northern part of Nigeria, but also along the Savannah Belt of West Africa" (p. 13). The major components of the curriculum were history and religion. Pupils were taught also Arabic writing. Much time was devoted to reading of the Koran and to learning the commands of Allah and his prophet. Students were taught to become ardent Muslims by acquiring the habits of prayer and worship. The curriculum of Muslim education, just like that of indigenous education in southern Nigeria, was adaptable and suitable for the preparation of the youth for adult life and the good life.

**Origins and Foundations of Colonial
Influence on Education in Nigeria: 1571-1960**

Western education was brought to Nigeria in the fifteenth century by Europeans who came under the names of merchants, explorers, and missionaries. As fortune seekers, they came as commercialists and set up trading posts; and, as missionaries, they used religious evangelization to organize the natives and establish schools. Lewis (1962) contended that:

The Portuguese merchant adventurers gave the people of what we know as Nigeria their first experience of education as practised (sic) in Europe. From the beginning of their trading enterprises overseas in the fifteenth century, education was regarded by the Portuguese as fundamental importance to the spread of Christianity. This opinion was held by ecclesiastical and civil authorities alike. (p. 23)

The few trading centers which served as commercial and educational facilities had pupils from southern Nigeria. The missionaries had a curriculum which reflected the three Rs. Pupils learned to read and write religious passages from the Bible. Elementary arithmetic was taught to students also. As Lewis (1962, p. 23) stated, "In 1515, missionaries who visited Benin obtained the permission of the Oba of Benin to teach his son and sons of a number of other chiefs the rudiments of the Christian faith. A mission which reached Benin in 1539 found a Christian Negro, who was held prisoner by the Oba, teaching boys to read." Although this early effort to introduce Western education in Nigeria seemed to have produced pupils who could read, such effort was limited to a few scattered centers and did not have much educational impact on the people who lived in the interior of the country. According to Lewis (1962, p. 23), the Portuguese

abandoned their educational effort when the higher profits of transatlantic slave trade became clear in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

It was not until the last quarter of the eighteenth century that Western education made a significant impact upon Nigeria. With the movement for the abolition of the slave trade, the evangelical movement gained new energy in Europe. Out of this concern for the spiritual well-being of the people of Africa grew the missionary movement. According to Lewis (1962), "In Britain, the Baptist Missionary Society was founded in 1792, the London Missionary Society in 1795, and in 1799 the Church Missionary Society" (p. 24).

This efflorescence of the missionary endeavor coincided with European interest in the commercial and political drive to penetrate the interior of the continent. Again, Lewis stated that the Bible and the plough were seen to be complementary. In consequence, missionaries, traders, explorers, and later government agents collaborated in opening up the continent.

The first missionary contact in modern times in Nigeria was made on September 24, 1882, by Rev. Thomas Freeman and Mr. and Mrs. de Graft of the Wesleyan Methodist Mission. According to Nduka (1964, p. 21), the first missionary stations were established at Badagry and Abeokuta in 1842, and this marked the effective beginning of Christian missionary activity in Nigeria. He assumed also that the first mission schools were opened at about the same time, for the establishment of a church always went hand in hand with the opening of a school for the young on the same premises.

Lewis (1962, p. 24) stated that other missions, churches, and schools were established in Lagos and Ibadan by Samuel Ajayi Crowther, a Yoruba who had been rescued by a British naval vessel from a slave-trading ship, a Mr. Townsend,

and Rev. C. A. Golmer. All three were members of the Church Missionary Society. Lewis (1962, p. 24) also stated that there were five native ordained missionaries and 42 trained native teachers working in 16 schools with a total enrollment of 895 pupils.

Nduka (1964, p. 22) contended that virtually all of the missionaries, whether Anglican or Roman Catholic, American, or Irish, combined evangelistic and educational work. Sunday Schools as well as night schools for adults were part of the same enterprise.

All the schools that were established were primary schools at this time, and the demand for secondary schools was gathering momentum. The need for manpower was growing, especially since some of the ex-slaves who had returned from Sierra Leone and had tasted Western education became merchants. The part played by commercial organizations in the spread of the evangelistic and educational activities is well illustrated by the case of the foundation of the Niger Mission after the arrival of the Niger Expedition in 1857. Nduka (1964) expressed this manpower need in these words:

While the establishment of missions was followed by the opening of primary schools, a parallel development was taking place in the sphere of trade. Agricultural and forest products, especially palm produce, became new staples of trade while cloths, iron goods, hats, and other manufactured goods replaced guns and ammunition as the most sought-after European goods. Gold and silver coins were introduced and so, gradually, began the growth of a money economy. The pupils taught in the missions schools began to acquire a taste for

European goods and ways of living. The trading firms needed clerks, accountants, and other assistants. (p. 23)

The need for secondary schools was further intensified as manpower needs further increased by the establishment between 1885 and 1900 of British protectorates over southern and northern Nigeria. The manpower requirements of the government in the nature of clerks, interpreters, sanitary inspectors, etc., increased by leaps and bounds. Further, in the first decade of the century, the railway line which was started in Lagos in 1896 reached Jebba by 1909. A new line from Port Harcourt was started in 1914 and by 1916 had reached the coal mines in Enugu.

Nduka (1964, p. 24) also pointed out that during the first two decades of the century the pattern was set for the main economic and political development of Nigeria for the next two decades. The system of indirect rule was established with the overall control firmly in the hands of the British. Economic development followed the lines dictated by British commercial and industrial interests. The agricultural, forest, and mineral resources of the country were tapped and carried by rail, road, and river transport to the main ports at Lagos, Warri, Port Harcourt, and Calabar. From these ports they were shipped abroad. Meanwhile, clerks, railway officials, train drivers, interpreters, artisans, etc., were provided by the mission schools and later by government schools.

According to Nduka (1964, p. 24), in response to demands, the first secondary school, the C.M.S. Grammar School in Lagos, was opened in 1859. A Roman Catholic Grammar School (the forerunner of St. Gregory's College) was opened in Lagos in 1878. Also, Methodist Boys' High School in Lagos was opened in 1878. The government did not come into the picture until 1909 when the first

government secondary school, King's College, was opened. Pupils paid school fees.

Nduka (1964, p. 25) contended that, although girls' education did not make rapid progress as that of the boys, it was not altogether neglected. The wives of missionaries often undertook the teaching of the girls. The latter received instruction in domestic as well as purely literary subjects. The most famous of the women missionaries was Mary Slessor, who was sent to Calabar in 1876 as a missionary teacher by the United Presbyterian Church (later the United Free Church of Scotland). In due course, girls' primary and secondary institutions were established in different parts of the country.

Nduka (1964, pp. 25-26) also stated that, by the end of the period under review, the following secondary schools and departments had either been opened or were about to be opened in different parts of southern Nigeria:

Church Missionary Society: Grammar School (Lagos), Dennis Memorial Grammar School (Onitsha), Grammar School (Ijebu Ode), Grammar School (Abeokuta), Grammar School (Ibadan), C.M.S. Girls' School (Lagos), and C.M.S. Girls' School (Ijebu Ode);

Roman Catholic: St. Joseph's (Ibadan), St. Gregory's Grammar School (Lagos), Our Lady of the Apostles (Lagos);

Wesleyan: Boys' High School (Lagos), Girls' High School (Lagos), Elekuro (Ibadan);

United Free Church: Hope-Waddell Institute (Calabar), Duke Town Secondary School (Calabar);

Primitive Methodist: Uzuakoli Institute (Uzuakoli); and

American Baptist: Baptist Day School (Lagos).

As it was alluded to earlier, education in northern Nigeria was based purely on Koranic teaching. Therefore, attempts to introduce Western education into northern Nigeria met with resistance from the local rulers. According to Nduka (1964, p. 26), several Koranic schools taught mainly boys to read and write Arabic. Also, it was estimated that in 1913 there were 19,073 of these schools with an attendance of 143,312 pupils. These schools prepared boys to become devout Moslems; to the inhabitants of northern Nigeria, the Muslim religion was life itself and not just mere religious practice.

However, it was not until 1921 that a more determined effort was made to popularize Western education in the North. Before this, two parallel developments took place in the North. In order to meet the needs of the rapidly developing administration, secular native administration schools were opened in both the Moslem and non-Moslem areas. In the former areas, the Arabic language and Moslem religious instruction occupied prominent places in the curriculum; in the latter, the Moslem religious content was omitted. This was the result of recommendations made in 1909 by Mr. Vischer, who had been commissioned by the government of the protectorate of northern Nigeria to study educational methods in Egypt, the Sudan, the Gold Coast, and Lagos. As a result of his recommendations, a government school was opened in 1909 at Nassarawa near Kano. This school became the training ground for teachers who later manned the provincial schools set up at Sokoto and Katsina. The Nassarawa school eventually branched out into primary, secondary, and technical schools.

The other line of development was most evident in the non-Moslem areas of the protectorate of northern Nigeria. After the initial resistance of the local rulers to the establishment of the protectorate had been broken, pacification

followed. According to Fafunwa (1971, p. 59), the missionaries returned to establish mission stations in the heart of the North. For example, the Roman Catholic Mission, the Sudan Interior, the Sudan United Mission, and after 1914 the Dutch Reformed Church and the Primitive Methodist Mission entered the activity.

Nduka (1964, p. 28) stated that, as educational work increased in Nigeria, it soon became necessary to train indigenous Nigerians to run the schools. Between 1895 and 1905, there was a rapid increase in the provision of teacher-training facilities. Teacher-training departments were added to some primary schools. But the more concrete steps were taken by some missionary bodies who opened a number of training institutions. In 1895 the United Free Church of Scotland Mission opened the Hope-Waddell Training at Calabar, while the Church Missionary Society opened St. Andrew's College, Oyo, in 1896. Other missions followed suit, and in 1901 the Baptist Training College, Ogbomosho, was opened, in 1904 the C.M.S. Training College, Awka, and in 1905 the Wesley Training College, Ibadan. Even the government entered the teacher-training field, and in 1914 it added teacher-training departments to the Bonny and Warri Government Schools.

Although the missionary educational enterprise began in 1842, it was not until 1899 that the first government school was opened in Lagos. Government tardiness in the actual participation in the provision of educational facilities was matched by the slow development of educational legislation. The first ordinance was the Educational Ordinance of 1882. This provided for the establishment of a local Board of Education to advise the government on the opening of government schools and on the granting of financial aid to schools for buildings and for the payment of teachers' salaries. Nduka (1964, p. 31) stated that, at this time, the Colony of Lagos (the main British foothold in Nigeria) was administered with the

Gold Coast. The single Inspector of Schools which the Ordinance envisaged served the Gambia, Sierra Leone, and the Gold Coast, as well as the colony of Lagos. A third of his salary was paid out of the revenue of the colony of Lagos.

Hilliard (1977, p. 11) contended that, after the separation of the colony of Lagos from the Gold Coast, the first purely Nigerian Education Ordinance was passed in 1887. It laid down the rates and the conditions for grants-in-aid, standardized examinations, classified teachers' certificates, and authorized the granting of scholarships for secondary education.

However, in 1906 when the colony and the protectorate were amalgamated to form the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria (Figure 1), a Director of Education, European superintendents and schoolmasters, and West Indian and African teachers were appointed. Government participation in education was very limited. The 1882 Ordinance introduced a system of grants-in-aid based on good organization, discipline, and enrollment as well as the principle of payment by results. The number of assisted schools rose from 91 in 1912 to 167 in 1917 during this period.

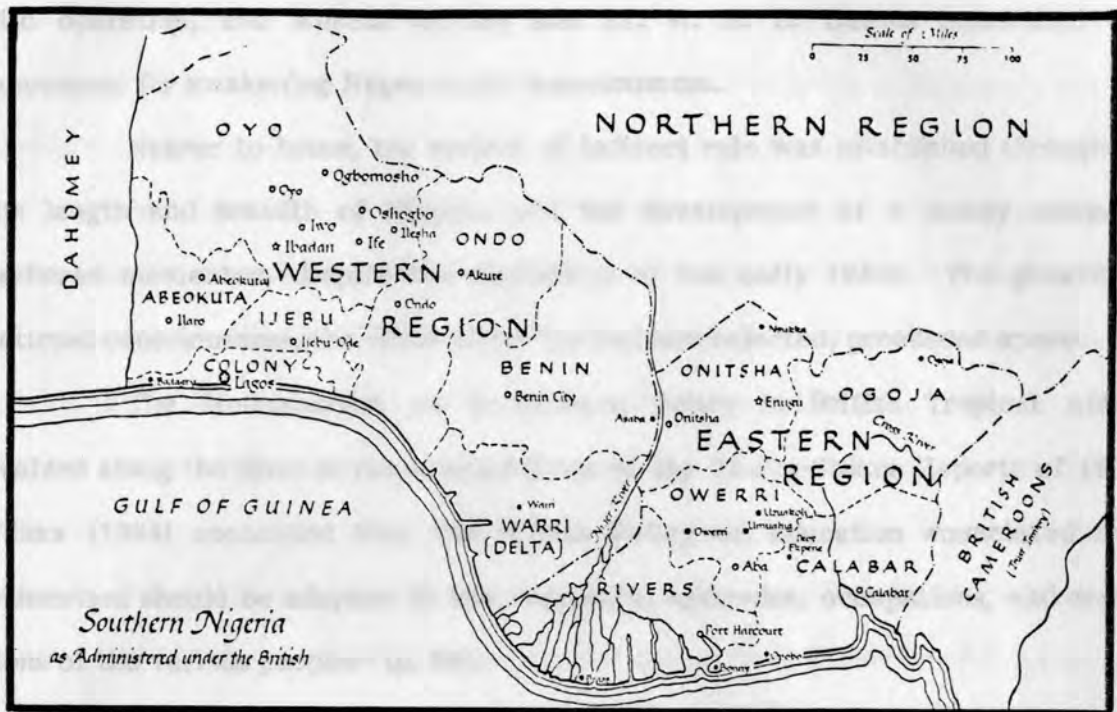


Figure 1. Southern Nigeria under British administration. (Source: Abernethy, D. B. *The Political Dilemma of Popular Education: An African Case*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, Ca.: 1969, inside front cover.)

Nduka (1964, p. 33) explained that the reasons the government was reluctant to finance education was due in part to the limited resources and the doctrine of *laissez faire* which dominated the domestic, social, and political scene of Victorian Great Britain in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Nevertheless, Nduka (1964, p. 41) maintained that the years between 1926 and 1940 form a well-defined period in Nigeria's history and that 1925 and 1940 were significant dates as far as the development of its education is concerned. The famous Memorandum on Education Policy in British Tropical Africa, the first official policy statement on African education, was issued in 1925. At the end of the period, the first Colonial Development and Welfare Act was

passed in 1940. Between these two dates, a new Nigerian Education Code came into operation, and Marcus Garvey and Dr. W. E. B. DuBois intensified the movement for awakening Negro racial consciousness.

Nearer to home, the system of indirect rule was established throughout the length and breadth of Nigeria, and the development of a money economy gathered momentum despite the depression of the early 1930s. The growth of national consciousness, the stone which the builders rejected, proceeded apace.

The Memorandum on Educational Policy in British Tropical Africa evolved along the lines of recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Reports of 1922. Nduka (1964) contended that the British Policy on Education enunciated that "education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations, and traditions of the various peoples" (p. 24).

Further, demands for post-secondary education emerged as more Nigerians graduated from secondary schools. Imogie (1978, p. 4) indicated that the Christian missionaries were the first to give thought to the establishment of former Western institutions of higher education in West Africa. It was in 1827 that the Church Missionary Society founded the Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone. The College was later affiliated with the University of Durham in 1876.

The Phelps-Stokes Reports had indicated also the need to establish institutions of higher learning in West Africa. Lewis (1962) stated that the Reports said that "it seemed probable that for some years to come African colonies must depend upon Europe and America for university training" (p. 48).

The above recommendation rekindled more agitation for the establishment of institutions of higher education in Nigeria and increased the demand for active government participation in education generally. In keeping with the

recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Reports, the first state-owned institution of higher education in Nigeria was established. The Higher College, Yaba, was founded in 1932 and provided courses for students who were to become assistant agricultural, forestry, medical, veterinary, and survey officers.

Imogie (1978, p. 8) stated that, as a result of the Elliot-Asquith Commissions' recommendations, Nigerians' premier institution of higher education of university status was established in 1948. This was the University College, Ibadan, and it was also affiliated with the University of London for 12 years.

According to Fafunwa (1971, p. 58), the number of Nigerian students in universities from 1948 to 1960 was very small because of the strict admission policies of the various universities. Table 1 denotes the number of students in universities in Nigeria, the United Kingdom, and the United States and Canada.

Table 1
Nigerian Students in Universities (1948-1960)

Year	UC Ibadan	UK	USA & Canada	Total
1948-49	210	510	32	752
1949-50	298	719	104	1,121
1950-51	322	938	301	1,561
1951-52	338	1,190	361	1,889
1952-53	367	1,316	370	2,053
1953-54	406	1,525	386	2,317
1954-59	*	*	*	*
1960-61	1,136	*	*	*

* Figures are not available. (Source: Fafunwa, A.B. A History of Higher Education in Nigeria. Lagos: Macmillan (Nig.) Ltd., 1971, p. 60.)

Until the independence of Nigeria in 1960, the educational policies for primary, secondary, and university education did not deviate from the policies formulated by British administration. Lewis (1962) stated that even following independence "the federal and the regional governments of Nigeria continued to use the technique of reports and memoranda produced by advisory bodies to elucidate principles of society" (p. 65). He maintained that this process of policy development may be regarded as having reached its apogee with the production in 1960 of the report of the commission on post-school certificate and higher education in Nigeria under the title, Investment in Education. Further, Lewis (1962, p. 66) contended that it was recognized that the material and economic development of the African dependencies demanded a corresponding advance in the expenditure on education. It was still visualized that there would virtually be two systems -- government and voluntary -- but it was stated that schools run by voluntary agencies which attained a satisfactory standard of efficiency should be regarded as equally important in the scheme of education as those schools directly organized by the government.

The British policy on education in Nigeria failed to implement the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Reports and other commissions. This failure has been viewed as a departure from the social, political, and economic needs of Nigeria. It was the basis for the dissatisfaction with the colonial education system in Nigeria.

Summary

In Nigeria today there are three types of education. These are indigenous, Muslim, and Western education. Each has its own distinct curriculum

for the preparation of the youth for the good life.

The largest share of the origins and foundations of education in Nigeria belongs to the activities of the missionaries. The missionaries who came to Nigeria had two objectives -- evangelical and commercial. They established mission stations and schools. The British government which colonized Nigeria was reluctant in financing education. While mission schools produced Christians, teachers, and ministers, government schools produced serviceable men for commercial interests.

The Phelps-Stokes Reports recommended the need for the adaptation of education to the needs of the natives. This was the basis for the development of the Memorandum on Education Policy in British tropical Africa. The policy provided for better organization of schools and the use of grants-in-aid for schools which performed at standard levels.

The failure of the colonial administration to implement all the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Reports and other commissions was the basis for the dissatisfaction with the colonial education system.

Dissatisfaction with Colonial Education Systems in Nigeria

According to Imogie (1978), Dr. Edward Wilmot Blyden, President of Liberia College, said in his inaugural address of 1881 that:

We must not suppose that the Anglo-Saxon methods are final, that there is nothing for us to find out for guidance, and that we have nothing to teach the world. . . . Things which have been of great advantage to Europe may work ruin to us. (p. 3)

The Federal Republic of Nigeria occupies a total land area of 923,769 square kilometers (357,000 square miles). With an estimated population of over 95 million, Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa. For over half a century (1900 to 1960), modern Nigeria was a colonial territory of Britain. No sooner had Nigeria achieved political independence in October 1, 1960, than the dimensions of the various problems created by colonial legacies began to unfold themselves. One of the legacies was the colonial educational system.

As a developing nation, Nigeria views education as a potent vehicle for accelerating the pace of social, political, and economic advancement of its people. But an examination of the relationship between the colonial educational system and the social, political, and economic systems of Nigeria indicates a lack of interdependence and adaptation between them. This lack of relevance between the colonial educational system and the social, political, and economic needs of Nigeria has been the focus of constant criticism. Therefore, this section attempts to highlight the basis for the dissatisfaction with the colonial educational system.

According to Lewis (1965), three members of the Phelps-Stokes Reports commented on the education they found in the following terms:

Though educational facilities in Africa are largely credited to missions and a really great service has been rendered by them to the native people, many missions have yet to realize the full significance of education in the development of the African people. The defects in the educational program, so far as they exist, have usually been due to their conception of education. Some have thought of education merely as the imparting of information, or, at the most, as the development

of the mind without relation to moral and spiritual life.

Others have thought of education merely as necessary chiefly to enable the natives to read the Bible and to understand the spirit of Christianity. This group has been content with education in books. For the masses they have provided the three Rs. For catechists and advanced pupils they have endeavoured to give a knowledge of literature, including, of course, an interpretation of religion. In limiting education to classroom instruction in books, missionaries were following the ideals prevailing in their home country. (p. 68)

The last sentence of this comment contains the key to the problem. Insofar as the missionaries were concerned with education, they had one pattern to follow, namely, that with which they were familiar from their experience. The extent to which this was so reflected in the organization and administration of the institutions, manifested the lack of adaptation of education to the needs of the native people.

Solarin (1966, p. 14), denouncing the Christian education legacy in Nigeria, pointed out the dangers of adhering to it. He maintained that Christian education contained seeds of destruction in that it was pretentious and did not serve the needs of the colonial masters. He contended that religious education makes us counterfeiters of ourselves and that it was time we threw overboard the canker worm of religious education. The point is that the wholesale importation of European education to Nigeria without regard to its appropriateness to the needs of Nigeria was counter-productive and ruinous to the interests and needs of Nigeria. The tendency to accept colonial education in all its totality could be dangerous, as

remarked by Dr. Blyden in the opening quotation of this section.

Scanlon (1964, p. 114) also stated that, although the missions provided a rudimentary, practical education, it soon became apparent that the production of indigenous leaders would require the importation of the sort of academic education provided in the metropolitan countries. Thus, the formal European type of secondary school appeared. By World War I, almost every dependency had a school, mission-sponsored, which was referred to as the "Eton" of the territory. Soon it was serving not only the religious organization but also the government as a source of trained leaders. But government interest in supervision of African education remained practically nonexistent until the close of the war. Beset by the problems of administration, colonial governments were generally satisfied to leave education and other social services in the hands of religious groups.

Lack of supervision of educational systems was one of the reasons for the dissatisfaction with the colonial administration. King (1965, p. 28) noted that many of the failures of the educational systems in the past have been due to the lack of organization and supervision. He maintained that governments and missions have not applied to their educational work the sound principles of administration which are increasingly recognized in other undertakings of importance, and that those responsible for educational and religious movements have often failed to understand the necessity of organization and supervision. Closely related to the problems of adaptation and organization is the differentiation of education for the masses and education for native leadership. Many of the school systems have not realized the interdependence of these two aims in education. Some systems are directed so exclusively to the training of leaders as to overlook the needs of the masses and neglect the qualities of native leadership that are to be realized only

through a vital interest in the masses. Other systems are directed entirely to the training of the masses and fail to provide for native leadership to extend and to interpret education.

Further, a strange but all-too-common weakness of educational endeavors in Nigeria has been the lack of cooperation among the three groups representing European and American civilizations. Too frequently, missions, governments, and commercial concerns have worked in their respective spheres without adequate consideration for one another. The participation of the natives has naturally been even less than that of any of the other groups. In short, missionary, governmental, and commercial interests supplanted those of the natives.

The Phelps-Stokes Reports of 1922 bore testament to the gross inadaptability of education to the social, political, and economic needs of Nigeria. Although temperate in language, the Reports were highly critical of African education, primarily for its failure to serve adequately the particular needs of African society. Scanlon (1964) went so far as to say:

The wholesale transfer of the educational conventions of Europe and America to the people of Africa has certainly not been an act of wisdom, however justly it may be defended as proof of genuine interest in the Native people. Now that the futility of many of these conventions for advanced social groups has been recognized, is it not imperative that Africans and their friends shall urge the greater injustice of applying them to the widely diverse conditions of the primitive groups of Africa? (p. 53)

Additionally, he commented that "the too frequent charges of the failure of native education are traceable in part to the lack of education adaptation to native life. . . . It is probable that only time will overcome the indifference or hostility of those whose racial conceit or racial selfishness blinds them to the educational possibilities of the African people" (p. 53).

Echoing the admonitions of the Phelps-Stokes Reports, all policies stressed particularly the need to tailor the curriculum to the African environment. Much of the dissatisfaction with the colonial educational system stemmed from the curriculum. The content of the curriculum and the administration of the curriculum were irrelevant to the needs of the Nigerian people. Solarin (1966) stated that the idea that religion, Greek, and Latin would be an integral part of the curriculum made it more unreal for consumption and sidetracked the needs of the Nigerian people. Further, he stated while Nigerian students studied English, history, and the geography of Europe, little did they know of their language, history, and geography. He blamed the colonial educational system for the anomalies in these terms:

Very soon finished products of the mission schools were emerging from their educational mints to be absorbed into the structure of the country.

The education bestowed on them (Nigerians), the rudiments of English grammar, the definitions of all conceivable jargons in topographical geography, the chronology of all the kings and queens of England, life, inconsequential or moribund, from A.D. 1066; an unmatched knowledge of the insane wars of the Old Testament flanked by a parrot-like acquaintance

with the church catechisms. A product of the Nigerian school yesterday would analyze and parse the most complicated of complex sentences and beat any English-speaking contemporary of his Eton or Harrow. . . . We will never know how many of yesterday's students went mad as they studied the family tree of the English monarchy, or ate their souls out as they tried to remember how many biblical soldiers went on their knees and lapped water like dogs, and how many of them cupped their hands and drank water from a running stream. In this particular aspect, the pupils were to figure out which of the two groups was acceptable to fight God's war and which was not. One would have thought that those who took water with their hands instead of splashing their garments and chilling their chests as they knelt down to lap the water like dogs would have won! They did not. They showed too much tendency toward original thinking. . . . The youth of Nigeria are waking up, reading history, and appreciating more the danger that Roman Catholic education has in store for us. The battle for extracting of the Nigerian school from the mortal jaws of Roman Catholicism is only just beginning. (p. 15)

Another problem with the colonial educational system was its stringent admission policy. This made it impossible for substantial numbers of students to be admitted into primary, secondary, technical, and university institutions. The requirements for entrance examinations eliminated many Nigerian students from participating in established schools.

Imogie (1978), pointing out that one of the reasons for dissatisfaction with the colonial educational system in regard to university admission policy, stated that "ironically, most of the candidates who were classified as non-university material and denied admission by the University College, Ibadan, because of its stringent admissions policy, were accepted by more reputable universities abroad, including the University of London" (p. 9).

Also, Imogie (1978, pp. 9-10) stated that the curricula was a replica of that of the University of London, without any slight modifications to meet Nigeria's needs, and that there was a special emphasis on literary aspects of higher education, with bias for subjects as an ancient history, English language and literature, geography, Latin and Greek, classics, physics, mathematics, biology, and chemistry. The point is that the philosophy of education of the British which governed the development of curriculum for their schools was transported to Nigeria without an examination of its relevance to the needs of the people. Imogie (1978) again contended that:

The college (University College, Ibadan) was run on an educational philosophy which agrees with the British or classical model of a university. This philosophy saw a university as an ivory tower preoccupied with the training of elites and philosopher kings. Thus, the University College, Ibadan, contributed actively to the creation of an elite group in Nigeria. (p. 10)

According to Kitchen (1962), this elite group was corrupt and, therefore, contributed to the poverty created by the colonial educational system. Further, Scanlon (1964, p. 74) stated that the elite group which was hatched from the colonial educational system became the "estranged group" who gave little respect

to the traditions of their own people.

Lewis (1962) stated that the Phelps-Stokes Reports indicated that the British colonies required the native teachers to take limited amounts of instruction in soil operations during their period of training, and that "wild animals were studied preferably to domestics, such as the fowl, the goat, or the pig" (p. 60). The curriculum did not provide for agriculture, and, as such, agriculture was not of prime importance. It is probable that the frequent food shortage in Nigeria and subsequent starvation in some parts of Africa were a result of the trivial position agriculture occupied in the curriculum of colonial educational system. Among the most important contributions, like that of the Tuskegee Institute in the United States, has been the recognition secured by these schools for instruction in agriculture and in the care of farm animals, especially for the smaller animals that are so essential to families of limited economic means.

Neglect of the colonial educational systems also led to poor health facilities and practices. Scanlon (1964, p. 58) contended that neglect of this phase of education seems inexplicable. It is probably the most convincing indication of the extent to which the adaptation of education has been neglected. The astoundingly high infant mortality rate and short lifespan due to poor nutrition, hygiene, and health facilities are all attributes of the colonial educational system and reasons for the dissatisfaction with the same.

The highlights of this review pointed out the reasons for the procrastination of the social, political, and economic development of Nigeria. Essentially, they pinpointed the reasons for the failure and, thus, dissatisfaction with the colonial educational system. On the basis of this irksome and unpleasant experience, the Nigerian government has developed plans for the improvement of

education in the country. This is reviewed in the next section.

Nigerian Educational Improvement Plans

The concept of educational improvement plans in Nigeria parallels the philosophy of reconstructionism in which education is construed to be formidable instrument for the reconstruction of society. This concept has been embraced widely, chiefly because of the failure of the British educational system to provide all the citizens of Nigeria with the needed educational competencies required for political astuteness and social and economic development.

In order to make restitution for the inadequacies of the colonial education system, the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria in Section 18 (1978, p. 18) delineates Nigeria's educational objectives. It enjoins the government to direct its policy toward ensuring that there are equal and adequate opportunities at all levels. The government "shall promote science and technology" and "eradicate illiteracy." To this end, the government shall, "as and when practicable," provide free, compulsory, and universal primary education, free secondary education, free university education, and free adult literacy programs.

This constitutional mandate to revolutionize education is spelled out in the National Policy on Education (1978). It delineates the broad aims for secondary education as "(a) preparation for useful living within the society, and (b) preparation for higher education" (p. 21).

This policy also explained that Nigeria would have a new program for secondary education, a program designed to be both functional and practical, a program that would be structurally and qualitatively different from the existing system. Thus, instead of a five-year grammar school type of education, the

National Policy on Education proposed a six-year program that would be provided in two stages: (1) a three-year junior/secondary school stage, which would be both pre-vocational and academic, and (b) a three-year senior secondary school stage that would also be comprehensive in its curriculum.

These educational improvement efforts, according to Adenaike (1980, p. 1520), were based on the realization that, first, education is a basic human need: people need education to acquire a broad base of knowledge, attitudes, values, and skills on which they can build a better life. Second, education is a means of meeting other basic needs, such as adequate nutrition, safe drinking water, health services, and shelter. Third, all development programs depend on education, for the simple reason that they all require skilled workers at all levels to manage capital, technology, services, and administration in every sector.

Congruent to those objectives of education was the declaration of principles by UNESCO (1976, p. 16) that, since education is an inalienable right which all should be able to exercise and since the resources available are, of necessity, limited in relation to the scale of the needs to be met, systems of education and training should be designed on a properly planned basis, intended for and equally well adapted to all individuals.

Further, it established that the main aim of education is to help each man and woman to take charge of his or her own life. For this, the person needs confidence built upon competencies and on an introduction to the range of the main ways of human thinking, feeling, and expression, as well as some knowledge of his culture and of the social, economic, and political controls affecting him (whether or not they seem to lie within his power to influence them).

Also, it stated that education contributes to the economic development of the country by producing the necessary cadre of appropriate quality needed by the nation. Therefore, it is important that education be able to foster the following objectives:

1. To avoid creating dead-end situations which are regarded by pupils and their families as constituting a source of injustice or as an impediment to the intellectual advancement of the masses.

2. To motivate young people and to enlist their energies to carry out major tasks of national importance.

3. To democratize the structures as well as the content of education and enable every individual who so requires and possesses the necessary potential to continue his vocational and cultural education in appropriate institutions and in appropriate forms.

4. To devise effective methods for evaluating the results obtained and for pupil guidance.

Nigeria's educational improvement plans enveloped the aforementioned objectives. The National Policy on Education (1978, p. 17) stated succinctly that what the government was seeking at the moment was to reorient and restructure the educational system and maximize its contribution to the social and economic progress of the country.

However, it is important to note that, in spite of the sound policy Nigeria has formulated to resuscitate the degenerating educational system, the country continues to suffer from manpower shortages needed for the improvement of the educational system. Obe (1980) emphasized the seriousness of this problem in these terms:

Despite efforts to cope with the explosion in education, . . . the development of national managerial, administrative, and analytic capabilities lag behind the growth in size and complexity of the education enterprise. Many systems have poor management procedures, and the distribution of responsibilities for making decisions is unclear among agencies that deal with education and training or among local authorities, community groups, and schools. (p. 1819)

Howe and Synge (1978, p. 251) contended that in May 1977 the Federal Education Commissioner, Col. Ahmadu Ali, stated that 27,000 teachers would have to be recruited immediately, both from abroad and within the country. They also projected that by 1987 Nigeria's entire education system would require one million teachers for 32 million pupils. Hence, education is considered Nigeria's biggest single enterprise, and it will continue to be so for a long time to come because of manpower needs.

According to the White Paper on the Nigerian National Policy on Education (1978), "Education will continue to be highly rated in the national development plans, because education is the most important instrument of change, as any functional change in the intellectual and social outlook of any society has to be preceded by an educational revolution" (p. 3). Nobody is likely to argue against such ideology.

Summary

Greater emphasis came to be placed on educational improvement plans, primarily because of the inability of the colonial educational system to respond to

the educational needs of the Nigerians and, secondly, because of the realization that the level of educational improvement and effectiveness is related to the political, social, and economic development of Nigeria. This awareness is evidenced by the stipulated educational objectives of the Constitution (Section 18) and the objectives of the National Policy on Education (1978).

The revolutionizing of education through the democratization of educational programs, especially in science and technology, is the most powerful instrument of social transformation and economic progress. The attempt to create a new social order based on freedom, equality, and justice can succeed only if the traditional educational system is improved, both in content and extent.

Nigeria is a large country in Africa. It has an area of 923,768 square kilometers, which is nearly twice as big as France, just about as big as the United Kingdom, and as big as the states of California, Nevada, and Oregon combined. Like all the states in West Africa, its boundaries were the result of the division of that part of Africa by the colonizing western powers in the second half of the nineteenth century rather than by geographical or ethnic factors.

Nigeria also is the most populous country in Africa. It has a population of over 85 million and is the 14th largest in the world. It is the fourth largest democratic country in the world, also. There are about 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria with distinct languages. The largest ethnic groups are Hausa, Yoruba, Ibo, and Fulani. However, English is the official and commercial language, and the vast majority of Nigerians can communicate in English.

Nigeria obtained its independence from Great Britain on October 1, 1960. Since independence, Nigeria has been partitioned politically into 16 states (Figure 2).

Chapter 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This chapter consists of the methodology used in this study. The sections included under the methodology deal with the population and sample procedures, description of the instrument, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

Introduction

The Federal Republic of Nigeria is the largest country in West Africa. It has an area of 923,769 square kilometers (357,000 square miles), which is nearly twice as big as France, four times as big as the United Kingdom, and as big as the states of California, Nevada, and Oregon combined. Like all the states in West Africa, its boundaries were the result of the division of that part of Africa by the colonizing western powers in the second half of the nineteenth century rather than by geographical or ethnic factors.

Nigeria also is the most populous country in Africa. It has a population of over 85 million and is the 14th largest in the world. It is the fourth largest democratic country in the world, also. There are about 200 ethnic groups in Nigeria with distinct languages. The largest ethnic groups are Hausas, Yorubas, Ibos, and Fulanis. However, English is the official and commercial (lingua franca) language, and the vast majority of Nigerians can communicate in English.

Nigeria obtained its independence from Great Britain on October 1, 1960. Since independence, Nigeria has been partitioned politically into 19 states (Figure 2).



Figure 2. Nigeria, showing state boundaries and state capitals. (Source: Consulate General of Nigeria. Department of Education. New York: 1980, p. 6.)

Bendel State is one of the 19 states that make up the Federal Republic of Nigeria. It is located in the southwest with an estimated population of 4 million. Bendel State is historically known as the "Benin Empire" and as a commercial center for the Portuguese in the early fifteenth century. The largest ethnic groups are the Edos and Urhobos (Figure 3). The delta area of the state has substantial reserves of petroleum and provides substantial barrels of petroleum for Nigeria's export.

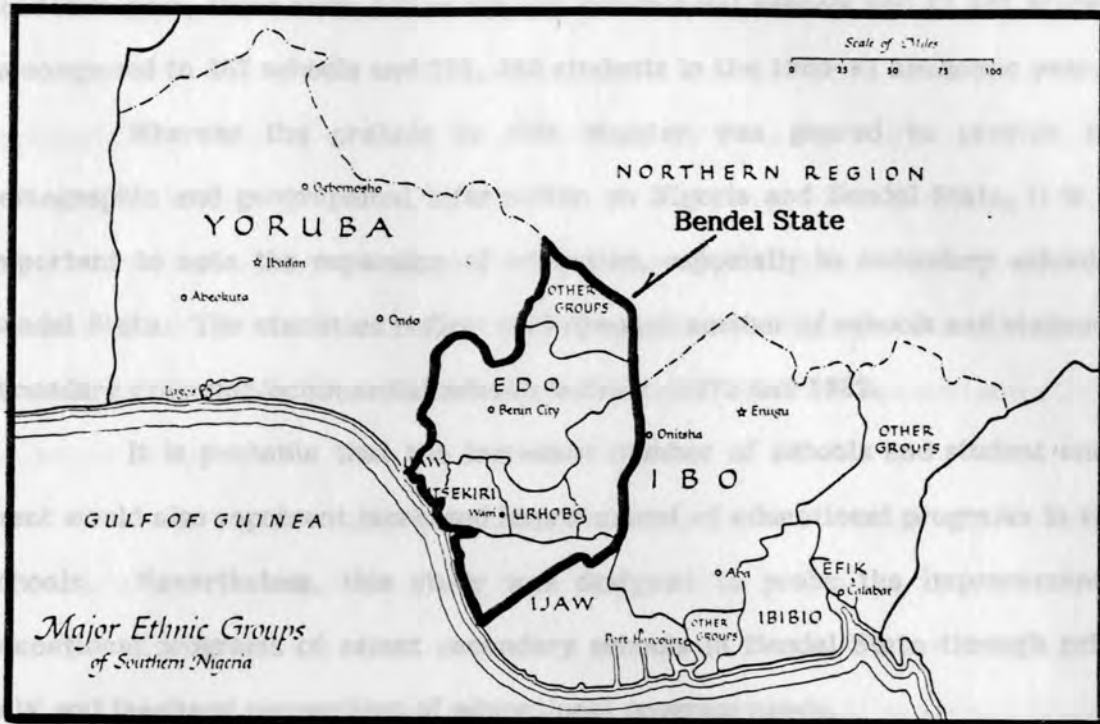


Figure 3. Southern Nigeria - ethnic groups. (Source: Abernethy, D. B. *The Political Dilemma of Popular Education: An African Case*. Stanford University Press, Stanford, Ca.: 1969, inside front cover.)

Politically, Bendel State is divided into 19 local government areas (councils). Of the 19 local government areas, Oredo Local Government Area (which is the focus of this study) is centrally located. It includes Benin City (the capital of Bendel State and the location of the University of Benin) and a few towns.

Bendel State is one of the most expanding states educationally in Nigeria. In one of the statistics revealed by the Federal Republic of Nigeria, the Fourth National Development Plan, 1981-85, indicated that Bendel State had 1,563 primary schools with pupil enrollment of 606,115 in the 1975-76 academic year, in comparison to 1,690 schools and 921,801 pupils in 1981-82. In the 1975-76

academic year, there were 149 secondary commercial schools and 82,407 students, as compared to 467 schools and 255,366 students in the 1980-81 academic year.

Whereas the prelude to this chapter was geared to provide brief demographic and geographical information on Nigeria and Bendel State, it is also important to note the expansion of education, especially in secondary schools in Bendel State. The statistics reflect an increased number of schools and students in secondary grammar/commercial schools between 1975 and 1982.

It is probable that the increased number of schools and student enrollment would also represent increased improvement of educational programs in these schools. Nevertheless, this study was designed to probe the improvement of educational programs of select secondary schools in Bendel State through principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational program needs.

The Sample

The universe for this study was composed of 25 high school principals and approximately 400 teachers of the Oredo Local Government Area who were employed by the Bendel State Ministry of Education. The principals and teachers of the Oredo Local Government Area were selected for this study because this geographical area was the single largest recipient of "contract awards for the construction of 875 new classrooms and where major expansion of education has occurred in the state" (Progress Report, 1981, p. 5).

The subjects for this study were randomly selected from the official list (sample frame) of principals and teachers of Oredo Local Government Area secondary grammar schools, which was requested from the Bendel State Ministry of Education by the researcher.

A simple random sampling technique was used in this study because, according to Feller (1957), "random sampling is the method of drawing a portion (sample) of a population of universe so that all possible samples of fixed size n have the same probability of being selected" (p. 99). Further, Kerlinger (1973, p. 119) asserted that a sample drawn at random is unbiased in the sense that no member of the population has any more chance of being selected than another member. He maintained that we have here a democracy in which all members are equal before the bar of selection.

Additionally, Kerlinger (1973, p. 123) defined randomization as the assignment of objects (subjects, treatments, groups) of a universe to subsets of the universe in such a way that any given assignment to a subset has an equal probability of being chosen for that assignment. Therefore, randomization was accomplished by using a table of random numbers (Downie and Starry, 1977, p. 332) to select a sample of 24 principals and 196 teachers. The sample size was determined to be adequate for this study from "Table of Sample Size" (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). The principals and teachers who participated in completing the questionnaire of this study constituted the sample elements.

Instrumentation

This study was conducted with the aid of a questionnaire (Appendix A). The Educational Needs Assessment Questionnaire was developed by the researcher and used to elicit the perceived educational needs of the respondents.

Description of the Instrument

The Educational Needs Assessment Questionnaire was developed to elicit

the respondents' perceptions of the educational program needs. Most of the questions were generated through the researcher's empirical analysis of the milieu and through reports from Nigerian newspapers and periodicals such as West Africa and Africa Now.

The questionnaire was divided into four subareas: (a) curriculum, (b) administration, (c) instructional materials, and (d) physical plant. These subareas were included in the questionnaire for this study mainly because recognized studies such as those by Maben (1973, p. 91) and the National Education Association (NEA) Research Division (1978, p. 56) utilized these areas of basic school operation and found that principals and teachers expressed specific educational needs in these areas.

In the subarea (a), curriculum, seven questions (1-7) were asked. In the subarea (b), administration, ten questions (8-17) were asked. In the subareas (c) and (d), instructional materials and physical plant, five and six questions were asked, (18-22) and (23-28), respectively.

Therefore, the questionnaire consisted of 28 positive items structured to yield Likert-type responses. Five response alternatives for the items were weighted from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The principals and teachers responded to the same questionnaire.

Validity and Reliability

According to Kerlinger (1973), the most common definition of validity is epitomized by the question, "Are we measuring what we think we are measuring?" (p. 457). He stated that the emphasis in the question is on what is being measured. In other words, the validity of a measuring instrument is encapsulated by what it is

intended to measure. Therefore, Kerlinger defined content validity as the representativeness of sample adequacy of the content -- substance, the matter, the topics -- of a measuring instrument (p. 458). Also, Kerlinger (1973, p. 443) defined reliability as the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument. That is, reliability is the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument.

In order to determine the content validity (Downie and Starry, 1977, p. 260) of the questionnaire (that is, to ascertain the degree to which the items adequately sample the problem to be investigated), a pilot group was used consisting of ten Nigerian doctoral students enrolled in the School of Education, Texas Southern University, Houston, Texas. These doctoral students participated as a pilot group for the following reasons: (a) they are products of the Nigerian school system and they are, therefore, familiar with the educational problems of Nigeria, (b) most of them had visited Nigeria and Bendel State during the Christmas and summer holidays (1981), and (c) a few of the students left the state this year (1982) to begin their academic work in education at the doctoral level.

The questionnaire for the pilot group was administered on two different days. This technique of test administration is referred to under the rubric of reliability as the test-retest method (Downie and Starry, 1977, p. 256).

With this method the questionnaire was administered to the pilot group in mid-March 1982. Four days later, another set of the same questionnaire was administered to the pilot group. The pilot group was asked to suggest possible improvements and suggest any area of their concerns not covered. Minor suggestions were offered by the pilot group. These suggestions were used in the revision of the instrument.

In order to compute the reliability (coefficient of stability) of the instrument, the data collected from the pilot group were analyzed through the utilization of the Pearson Correlation (r) formula, as given:

$$r = \frac{N \Sigma XY - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N \Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2][N \Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

In essence, the reliability coefficient was computed by correlating the results of the scores made (by the pilot group) on the original test with the results of the scores made on the retest (Ferguson, 1976). The result of the computation is shown in Table 2. The mean of .88 is a high coefficient of reliability.

Table 2
Coefficient of Reliability (r)

Educational Program Subarea	(r)
Curriculum	0.89
Administration	0.92
Instructional materials	0.86
Physical plant	0.84
Mean (r)	0.88

Sampling Procedure

A letter of approval (Appendix B) requesting the participation of the principals and classroom teachers of the target secondary grammar schools was requested from the Bendel State Commissioner of Education. A photocopy of this letter was enclosed in each set of questionnaires and mailed to the 24 principals of

the representative secondary grammar schools. A letter instructing the principals on how to distribute the questionnaires to the subjects (Appendix C) was enclosed in each package of questionnaires. This letter also indicated the schedule suggested for the completion and collection of the questionnaire to return it to the researcher.

The questionnaires were returned to the researcher by mail after eight weeks. Twenty-two principals (92%) and 164 teachers (84%) responded to the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the respondents of this study were scored based on a Likert-type format. Five response alternatives for the items were arbitrarily weighted from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Omitted responses were weighted zero, and multiple responses for one item were weighted zero. The individual's score was the average of the weighted alternative endorsed by him. High mean scores were interpreted as representing no perceived educational need, and low mean scores represented perceived educational need. The response continuum (Table 3) elucidates this point.

For the analysis of the data, there were three categories (Table 3): 5.0 - 3.51 was interpreted as no perceived educational need (which meant that there was an adequate educational program); 3.5 - 2.51 was interpreted as a neutral position; and 2.50 - 1.0 was interpreted as perceived educational need (inadequate educational program). According to Maben (1973, p. 43), 50% plus expressed perceived educational needs in each program area.

Table 3
Mean Response Continuum

Continuum of response alternatives	Weighting	Interpretation
Strongly agree	5.0 - 4.51	adequate educational program (no need)
Agree	4.5 - 3.51	
Undecided	3.5 - 2.51	neutral position
Disagree	2.5 - 1.51	inadequate educational program (need)
Strongly	1.5 - 1.00	

Therefore, percentage was used to determine the proportion of respondents to each response alternative, item, and program area for needs identification. Mean scores were used also to determine need, neutral, and no need for each item and program subarea.

Further, in order to test the null hypotheses postulated in this study, means and standard deviations were used to compute the t-test numerical values for each of the hypotheses at the .05 level of significance. T-test for mean difference between correlated samples was used to test the null hypotheses because the instrument yielded interval data. The null hypotheses were rejected if the computed t-test numerical value was equal or greater than the critical value of 1.96.

Summary

The universe of this study was composed of principals and teachers of Oredo Local Government Area secondary grammar schools. The study utilized one questionnaire to elicit the subjects' perceptions of educational needs in four areas of basic school operation.

The questionnaires were mailed to the respondents and returned to the researcher after eight weeks. Twenty-two principals (92%) and 164 teachers (84%) responded to the questionnaire of this study, out of a sample of 25 principals and 196 teachers. Therefore, the unit of analysis in this study comprised 186 subjects (88%). The item scoring was arbitrarily weighted from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree) for all the 28 positive items contained in the questionnaire.

The next chapter deals with the analysis of the data gathered for this study. The principal statistical implements for the analysis of the data were percentage, mean, and t-test.

Chapter 4

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine certain educational needs of the Oredo Local Government Area secondary grammar schools as perceived by principals and teachers of those schools in Bendel State. Specifically, the objectives of the study were (1) to determine the educational needs as perceived by principals and teachers in the program areas of curriculum, administration, instructional materials, and physical plant (such as building facilities, classroom space, and equipment) and (2) to determine the extent to which principals and teachers agree on the needs in each of the four areas of basic school operation.

Therefore, the findings of this study were presented with a focus on two perspectives. First, the data were analyzed to determine certain educational needs of the schools as perceived by the subjects. Perceived educational needs in the four program areas studied were analyzed and interpreted to reflect the percentage or proportion of respondents. The data obtained from each of the four program areas were presented in tables and appendices. Second, the data were analyzed and interpreted to determine any significant difference in perceived educational needs between principals and teachers. That is, the four null hypotheses postulated in this study were tested to ascertain if principals and teachers differed significantly in their perceptions of educational needs in the schools studied. Also, the data were presented in tables and appendices.

Perception of Educational Needs

This section reports the responses to each item of the questionnaire, using percentages derived from the frequency scores (Appendix D). Examination of the proportion of responses to each of the five alternatives in the range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" can indicate the strength of feeling of the respondents to each item constituted in the four program areas.

Curriculum. Of the seven questionnaire items dealing with curriculum, only one item was identified as "need" by a majority of the respondents. It was item #4 (Table 4), in which 58.6% of respondents disagreed that "Your school provides instructional programs for students with special needs" (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children). In no other curriculum area did a majority of respondents disagree with the item as stated.

In three other items (#5, #6, and #7), however, the level of disagreement would have exceeded half of the respondents if half of the "undecided" were apportioned to "disagree." The percentage of "strongly disagree" was also high for these items. Thus, they may be worthy of further scrutiny by an administrator seeking to identify potential educational needs.

Administration. In this program area, a majority of respondents agreed in their perceptions that four out of ten questionnaire items were needs. The four items were: "Teachers are free to express their views without fear of recrimination" (94.1%), "Teachers' salaries are adequate and comparable to workers in other professions" (93.6%), "Teachers are paid regularly (75.4%); and "Your school needs better organization" (64.5%).

Table 4
Percentage of Respondents to Items Based on Response Alternatives
 (N=186 for each item)

SA = strongly agree

A = agree

U = undecided

D = disagree

SD = strongly disagree

	SA	A	U	D	SD	
Curriculum						
1.	36.0%	41.5%	7.5%	10.2%	4.8%	Adequate number of subjects is offered to students in your school.
2.	16.7	41.4	14.5	24.2	3.2	Your school places emphasis on teaching basic skills.
3.	23.1	41.9	9.7	20.5	4.8	Teachers have sufficient time for instruction.
4.	8.0	19.4	14.0	30.1	28.5	Your school provides instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children).
5.	6.4	29.6	17.2	28.5	18.3	Teachers have the opportunity to update their instructional skills by participating in in-service programs.
6.	8.6	37.1	11.3	29.0	14.0	The individual teacher has an opportunity to select his or her textbook for instruction.
7.	24.8	33.3	9.5	32.3	9.1	On an overall basis, your school's instructional program meets the needs of your students.
Administration						
8.	9.7	22.5	21.0	24.2	22.6	Teachers are properly informed about school procedures and events.

	SA	A	U	D	SD	
9.	23.7	31.2	8.0	20.4	16.7	Teachers' civil and personal rights are protected.
10.	14.5	33.9	7.5	27.4	16.9	Teachers are recognized as professionals.
11.	3.8	16.1	14.7	23.2	52.2	Teachers are free to express their views without fear of recrimination.
12.	0.5	2.7	2.7	15.1	79.0	Teachers' salaries are adequate and comparable to workers in other professions.
13.	2.4	1.9	2.1	21.1	72.5	Teachers are paid regularly.
14.	11.8	42.5	10.7	18.3	16.7	Principals assist teachers in order to improve instruction.
15.	15.6	38.7	18.3	19.4	8.0	The school's policy for dealing with students with adverse behavior is appropriate.
16.	34.4	33.4	9.6	17.2	5.4	Your school or attendance requirements are enforced.
17.	3.8	22.0	9.7	27.4	37.1	Your school needs better organization.

Instructional Materials

18.	16.	55.4	10.2	10.2	8.1	Your students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials.
19.	7.0	32.3	14.5	22.0	24.2	Students are supplied with adequate textbooks.
20.	0.6	0.5	3.2	21.5	74.2	Students are provided with mathematical sets, pens, notebooks, etc.
21.	2.7	13.4	4.8	36.6	42.5	Your school has audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) for classroom use.
22.	8.1	30.1	10.8	24.7	26.3	Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction.

	SA	A	U	D	SD	
Physical Plant						
23.	11.3	36.0	6.5	23.1	23.1	Your school building is cleaned and maintained well.
24.	8.1	32.3	11.8	24.7	23.1	Your school has enough support personnel to keep the building clean and neat.
25.	3.8	15.1	7.0	39.2	34.9	Your school has sufficient lavatories.
26.	4.3	10.2	5.4	36.0	44.1	Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students.
27.	3.8	19.9	7.5	30.1	38.7	Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction.
28.	5.9	12.4	11.3	36.0	34.4	Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers.

It was only in two other items ("Teachers are properly informed about school procedures and events" and "Teachers are recognized as professionals") that respondents were markedly divided about their perceptions. About half of the respondents agreed that the two items were not educational needs, whereas other respondents disagreed. However, the respondents seemed to be satisfied with the status quo for the rest of the questionnaire items in administration, as indicated by high percentages of agreement that these items did not constitute educational needs.

Instructional Materials. Of the five questionnaire items dealing with instructional materials, a majority of respondents identified more than half of them as educational needs. The respondents strongly perceived that the three

items ("Students are provided with mathematical sets, pens, notebooks, etc.," "Your school has audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) for classroom use," and "Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction") were educational needs.

The respondents were markedly divided on the item, "Students are supplied with adequate textbooks." In other words, about half of the respondents perceived that students were supplied with adequate textbooks, while the other half disagreed. However, it was only in the item, "Students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials," that a strong majority (71.5%) of respondents agreed it was not an educational need.

Physical Plant. In this program area, more than half of the questionnaire items were identified by a majority of respondents as educational needs. The items were: "Your school has sufficient lavatories," "Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students," "Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction," and "Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers."

It was noted that respondents were markedly divided on the items, "Your school building is cleaned and maintained well" and "Your school has enough support personnel to keep the building clean and neat." For these items, the level of disagreement would have exceeded half of the respondents if half of the undecided were apportioned to disagree. Further study of the two items seems justified by an administrator who is seeking to identify potential educational needs.

From the analysis of the data above, the degree of perception expressed by all respondents according to levels of response alternatives has implication for school administrators and policy-makers alike in terms of consensus-building and

decision-making, relevant to the improvement of educational programs. Further elaboration of this implication will be discussed in the next chapter under "Implications" of this study.

For further analysis, strongly agree and agree response alternatives were combined to indicate no perceived educational needs; undecided was interpreted as a neutral position. Disagree and strongly agree response alternatives were combined to indicate perceived educational needs. Subsequently, the cumulative responses yielded three levels of analysis. These were need, neutral, and no need. Percentages were computed by using these three categories of needs perception for the program subareas (Tables 5-8) and for items (Appendices E-H).

In order to assess the educational needs of the schools, it was necessary to determine the perceptions of principals and teachers in the program area of curriculum. The percentage of principals' and teachers' perceptions is shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Percentage of Respondents in the
Program Area of Curriculum
 (principals, N=22; teachers, N=164)

	Need	Neutral	No need
Principals	29.25%	15.57%	55.18%
Teachers	36.34%	11.52%	52.14%

It is apparent from Table 5 that only a small proportion of the respondents perceived educational need in the program area of curriculum. Of the total, 29.25% of the principals and 36.34% of the teachers perceived educational

need in this program area. A small percentage of the principals (15.57%) and teachers (11.52%) were neutral. Of the total, 55.18% of the principals and 52.14% of the teachers perceived no educational need in this program.

An item analysis was carried out to determine what the perceptions of principals and teachers were in regard to item components in the program area of curriculum. The reason was to identify specific items perceived to constitute educational needs. The analysis shown in Appendix E revealed that a large proportion of teachers (62.2%) perceived that instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children) represented an educational need in curriculum. The proportion of principals' perceptions differed significantly in regard to this item. Of the total, 31.8% of the principals perceived that the same item was not an educational need.

Administration as a component of basic school operation was analyzed to reflect the perceptions of principals and teachers. A moderate proportion of the principals (48.98%) and teachers (52.51%) perceived educational need in this program area. A few of the principals (6.56%) and teachers (10.10%) were neutral in their perceptions, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Percentage of Respondents in the
Program Area of Administration
(principals, N=22; teachers, N=164)

	Need	Neutral	No need
Principals	48.98%	6.56%	43.80%
Teachers	52.51%	10.10%	37.39%

However, principals and teachers seem to have been more perceptive in identifying more needy items in administration as compared to curriculum. A large proportion of the principals (72.7%) and teachers (75.7%) perceived that the item, "Teachers' salaries are adequate and comparable to workers in other professions," (Appendix F) was an educational need. Both principals (90.1%) and teachers (94.5%) overwhelmingly perceived that the item, "Teachers are paid regularly," was an educational need. The high percentage of consensus exhibited on this item possibly suggests the gravity of the need. Marked division of perceptions was expressed by both principals (40.9%) and teachers (47.6%) on the item that "Protection of teachers' civil and personal rights" was an educational need. However, 63.6% of the principals and 64.6% of the teachers perceived the item, "Your school needs better organization," as an educational need.

An analysis of the data as shown in Table 7 revealed that principals (57.28%) and teachers (71.42%) perceived educational need in the program area of instructional materials. The percentage of both respondents in this program area, which indicated perceived educational needs, was much higher than the two preceding program areas analyzed.

Table 7
Percentage of Respondents in the
Program Area of Instructional Materials
 (principals, N=22; teachers, N=164)

	Need	Neutral	No need
Principals	57.28%	11.80%	30.92%
Teachers	71.42%	8.32%	20.26%

In Appendix G, a large proportion of principals and teachers reflected that the items perceived as educational needs were "Your students are supplied with adequate textbooks," "Your students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials," "Your school has audiovisual equipment, i.e., projectors, record players, and films for classroom use," "Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction," and "The individual teacher has an opportunity to select his or her textbook for instruction." The strong consensus of perceptions of both principals and teachers possibly reflect the intensity of the educational needs.

Table 8
Percentage of Respondents in the
Program Area of Physical Plant
 (principals, N=22; teachers, N=164)

	Need	Neutral	No need
Principals	67.45%	12.87%	19.68%
Teachers	67.56%	7.62%	24.82%

A large proportion of principals (67.45%) and teachers (67.56%) perceived educational need in the program area of physical plant, as shown in Table 8. Further analysis of the items to identify specific needs of the respondents (Appendix H) revealed that a large proportion of the sample perceived "Your building is cleaned and maintained well," "Your school has sufficient lavatories," "Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students," "Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction," and "Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers" as educational needs.

From the analysis of the data, it appeared in general that a moderate proportion of teachers (but not principals) perceived that the curriculum of the school system was a problem area. However, a large proportion of the principals and teachers seemed to indicate that the problems or needs of the school system were in the program areas of administration, instructional materials, and physical plant.

Hypotheses of the Study

Four null hypotheses were postulated in this study. Null Hypothesis 1 postulates that there would be no significant difference between the perceived educational needs of principals and teachers in the program area of curriculum. Null Hypothesis 2 postulates that there would be no significant difference between the perceived educational needs of principals and teachers in the program area of administration. Null Hypothesis 3 postulates that there would be no significant difference between the perceived educational needs of principals and teachers in the program area of instructional materials. Null Hypothesis 4 postulates that there would be no significant difference between the perceived educational needs of principals and teachers in the program area of physical plant (such as building facilities, classroom space, and equipment).

Statistical tests were applied to the null hypotheses about the four program areas of basic school operation to determine if there were significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of what constituted an educational need, a neutral position, or no need. The data from the responses of principals and teachers were computed statistically to provide information in numerical values. The numerical values of the mean were also used

to determine whether principals' and teachers' perceptions in the four program areas of basic school operation represented educational need, a neutral position, or no need. Also, the computed t-test numerical values were either used to reject or not reject each of the null hypotheses at the .05 level of significance. That is, at the probability ($p=.05$), if the computed t-test numerical value was equal or greater than the critical value of 1.96, the null hypothesis was rejected; otherwise, it was not rejected. The tables reflect means, standard deviations, t-test numerical values, probability, and significance (conclusion).

Tests of the Hypotheses

The first null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant difference between the perceived educational needs of principals and teachers in the program area of curriculum. An analysis of the data in Table 9 showed that the null hypothesis was not rejected. That is, it was not rejected because there was no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the program area of curriculum.

Table 9
T-Test for Mean Difference between Principals (N=22)
and Teachers (N=164) in the Program Area of Curriculum

	Mean (\bar{x})	SD	T-test Value	2-Tail Prob.	Significance
Principals	3.36	0.75	0.93	0.36	ns
Teachers	3.21	0.68			

In order for this null hypothesis to have been rejected at $p=.05$, the t-test numerical value would have to be equal or greater than 1.96. Whereas there was no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the program area of curriculum based on the computed t-test numerical value at .05 level, it is important to note that the means for principals and teachers in the first column of Table 9 reflect equal and strong perceptions of the school curriculum.

Further, an item analysis showed a discrepancy between principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational needs in reference to item #4 (variable) of the questionnaire (Appendix I). That is, while principals indicated in their perceptions that instructional programs for students with special needs was not an educational need, teachers agreed that instructional programs for students with special needs represented educational need.

In spite of this noticeable difference in the item analysis, on an overall basis there was no significant difference between the perceptions of teachers and principals in the program area of curriculum. Mean score interpretation for this program area reflects a moderate curriculum.

The second hypothesis of the study stated that there would be no significant difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs in the program area of administration. An analysis of the data in Table 10 indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected. That is, there was no significant difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs in the program area of administration.

Table 10
T-Test for Mean Difference between Principals (N=22)
and Teachers (N=164) in the Program Area of Administration

	Mean (\bar{x})	SD	T-test Value	2-Tail Prob.	Significance
Principals	2.32	0.95	0.64	0.52	ns
Teachers	2.18	0.64			

In order for this null hypothesis to have been rejected, the computed t-test numerical value would have to be equal or greater than 1.96 at the .05 level. While there was no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers based on the computed t-test value at the .05 level, the means for both principals and teachers indicate strong but negative perceptions of the educational needs in the area of administration.

Additionally, an item analysis of the data (Appendix J) revealed that both principals and teachers perceived educational needs in certain program elements of administration. In short, principals and teachers perceived that low teacher salaries, the irregularity of salary payment, and better school organization were educational needs requiring improvement. Principals were also moderate in their perceptions of item #10, "Teachers are free to express their views without fear of recrimination." The mean score of teachers indicates that the same item was an educational need.

The third null hypothesis of the study postulated that there would be no significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the program area of instructional materials. An analysis of the data as shown in Table

11 reveals that the null hypothesis could not be rejected based on the calculated t-test numerical value. In other words, there was no significant difference between principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational needs in the program area of instructional materials.

Table 11
T-Test for Mean Difference between Principals (N=22)
and Teachers (N=164) in the Program Area of Instructional Materials

	Mean (\bar{x})	SD	T-test Value	2-Tail Prob.	Significance
Principals	2.42	0.82	0.16	0.87	ns
Teachers	2.41	0.64			

In order for this null hypothesis to have been rejected, the probability of finding a significant difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs would have to be that the t-test numerical value was equal to or greater than the critical value of 1.96 at the .05 level.

The mean scores revealed that both principals and teachers disagreed that there were no educational needs in the program area of instructional materials, as shown in Appendix K. Principals and teachers perceived that there were educational needs in the following items: item #18 ("Your students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials"), item #19 ("Students are supplied with adequate textbooks"), item #21 ("Your school has audiovisual equipment, i.e., projectors, record players, and films for classroom use"), and item #22 ("Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction"). This hypothesis was not rejected,

and mean scores for principals and teachers reflected perceived educational needs in the program area of instructional materials.

The fourth null hypothesis of the study predicted that there would be no significant difference between the principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational needs in the program area of physical plant (such as building facilities, classroom space, and equipment). An analysis of the data as shown in Table 12 revealed the null hypothesis could not be rejected based on the computed t-test numerical value. That is, there was no significant difference between principals and teachers in their perceptions of educational needs in the program area of physical plant.

Table 12
T-Test for Mean Difference between Principals (N=22)
and Teachers (N=164) in the Program Area of Physical Plant

	Mean (\bar{x})	SD	T-test Value	2-Tail Prob.	Significance
Principals	2.28	0.88	1.14	0.25	ns
Teachers	2.16	0.71			

In order for the null hypothesis to have been rejected, the findings (t-test numerical value = 1.14) would have been significant at the .05 level; that is, at $p=.05$, the t-test numerical value would have to be equal or greater than the critical value of 1.96.

In Table 12, the mean scores for both principals and teachers indicated that there were perceived educational needs in the program area of physical plant.

Referring to Appendix L, it was possible to identify the mean scores of items which indicated perceived educational needs of both principals and teachers.

The mean scores for the following items indicated principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs: item #23 ("Your school building is cleaned and maintained well"), item #25 ("Your school has sufficient lavatories"), item #26 ("Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students"), item #27 ("Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction"), and item #28 ("Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers"). The null hypothesis was not rejected, and mean scores for both principals and teachers reflected perceived educational needs in the program area of physical plant.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of educational needs by principals and teachers in four program areas of basic school operation. The study also determined the extent to which principals and teachers agree on the needs in each of the four program areas.

High percentages of respondents reflected the magnitude of perceived educational needs. Mean and t-test numerical values were also used to interpret the findings of this study. The mean score interpretation in each of the four program areas indicated that both principals and teachers agreed that there was a moderate curriculum in the school system but indicated perceived educational needs in the program areas of administration, instructional materials, and physical plant. Specific educational needs resulting from item analysis were shown by percentages (Appendices E-H) and mean scores (Appendices I-L).

The four null hypotheses could not be rejected because the probability of finding any significant difference between the perceptions of principals and teachers in each of the educational program areas studied was not supported at $p=.05$. That is, at $p=.05$, the computed t-test numerical value for each null hypothesis was not equal to or greater than the critical value of 1.96.

The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of this study. The next chapter summarizes the preceding chapters; however, the conclusions and recommendations were drawn from the findings presented in Chapter 4.

which principals and teachers agree on the needs in each of the four program areas.

Each of the foregoing analytical chapters, Chapters 3 and 4, as well as important divisions within them, require a general summary in order to reach overall conclusions and to make appropriate recommendations for this study. This chapter, therefore, is designed to (1) briefly recapitulate the total research plan, (2) summarize the findings, (3) draw conclusions from the findings, and (4) make recommendations about the conclusions of this study.

Brief Review of the Study

As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to determine educational needs of certain secondary grammar schools of Grade Local Government Area in Borno State, Nigeria, as perceived by principals and teachers of those schools. Specifically, the objectives of the study were (1) to determine the educational needs in program areas of curriculum, administration, instructional

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This study was conducted in an attempt to determine the educational needs of secondary grammar schools in four areas of basic school operation as perceived by principals and teachers. Further, it purported to determine the extent to which principals and teachers agree on the needs in each of the four program areas.

Each of the foregoing analytical chapters, Chapters 3 and 4, as well as important divisions within them, require a general summary in order to reach overall conclusions and to make appropriate recommendations for this study. This chapter, therefore, is designed to (1) briefly recapitulate the total research plan, (2) summarize the findings, (3) draw conclusions from the findings, and (4) make recommendations about the conclusions of this study.

Brief Review of the Study

As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to determine educational needs of certain secondary grammar schools of Oredo Local Government Area in Bendel State, Nigeria, as perceived by principals and teachers of those schools. Specifically, the objectives of the study were (1) to determine the educational needs in program areas of curriculum, administration, instructional

materials, and physical plant (such as building facilities, classroom space, and equipment) as perceived by principals and teachers and (2) to determine the extent to which principals and teachers agree on the needs in each of the foregoing areas of basic school operation.

To gain background information needed for planning and conducting the research, available literature was reviewed in Chapter 2 from four perspectives. It focused on (1) perception of educational needs, (2) origins and foundations of colonial influence on education in Nigeria, (3) dissatisfaction with the colonial educational systems, and (4) Nigerian educational improvement plans.

The methods used for conducting the research, as described in Chapter 3, involved the random selection of 24 principals and 196 teachers of Oredo Local Government Area secondary grammar schools in Bendel State, Nigeria. For these sample elements, questionnaires were constructed, pretested, revised, and mailed. After eight weeks, the returned questionnaires were analyzed. Eighty-eight percent of the subjects returned questionnaires. Questionnaires were analyzed by percentage, mean, and t-test, and the findings were also interpreted in Chapter 4.

Summary of Findings

The findings from this study resulted from the data analyzed and interpreted in Chapter 4. The results reflected the educational needs as perceived by principals and teachers and reflected the extent of principals' and teachers' agreement on the needs in each of the four program areas of basic school operation studied.

Interpretation of the analyzed data indicated that a majority of the principals and teachers perceived no educational need in the general program area

of curriculum. However, specific needs were indicated from item analysis. A majority of the teachers, but not the principals, perceived that instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children) represented educational needs.

In the program area of administration, a large proportion of the principals and teachers identified the following educational needs: teachers' freedom to express their viewpoints without fear of recrimination, low salaries, irregularity of salary payment, and better organization of the school. That a majority of the principals and teachers expressed a strong consensus on these items probably reflects the magnitude of the need.

In the program area of instructional materials, a large proportion of the principals and teachers perceived that students' textbooks, insufficient library books and reference materials, and audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) were educational needs. Also, they perceived that inadequate materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction constituted educational needs.

Additionally, a large proportion of the principals and teachers perceived that building cleaning and maintenance, insufficient lavatories, insufficient numbers of desks for students, inadequate classroom space for instruction, and inadequate faculty rooms for teachers constituted educational needs in the program area of physical plant. That a majority of the principals and teachers expressed a strong consensus in this program area probably reflected the magnitude of the need.

In order to determine the extent to which the principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs agree in each of the four program areas studied,

the four null hypotheses were tested. It was found that none of the four null hypotheses was rejected. The probability of any difference occurring between the compared means (t-test numerical values) of principals' and teachers' perceptions of educational needs in each of the four program areas studied was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, both principals' and teachers' perceptions indicated equal and strong agreement on the educational needs in each of the four program areas of basic school operation.

Conclusions

In general, the findings of this study provide the impetus for drawing conclusions about the study. The subjects of this study reflected the educational needs of the schools through their perceptions.

It was concluded that a majority of principals and teachers of this study expressed through their perceptions that there were no educational needs in the program area of curriculum. However, from item analysis, a majority of the teachers indicated that instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children) was an item which represented an educational need.

A majority of the principals and teachers perceived that teachers' freedom to express their viewpoints without fear of recrimination was an educational need. Also, they perceived that teachers' low salaries, irregularity of salary payment, and better school organization constituted educational needs in the program area of administration.

In the program area of instructional materials, most principals and teachers perceived that students' inadequate textbooks, insufficient library books,

reference materials, and audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) were educational needs. Also, they perceived that inadequate materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction were items which represented educational needs.

Nevertheless, a majority of the principals and teachers expressed in their perceptions of educational programs needs that building cleaning and maintenance, insufficient lavatories, insufficient number of desks for students, inadequate classroom space for instruction, and inadequate faculty rooms for teachers were educational needs which required improvement. Because the number of items perceived and the strong consensus expressed by a majority of the respondents, it was concluded that administration, instructional materials, and physical plant (but not curriculum) were the needy program areas in the school system which were of concern to both principals and teachers.

The respondents of this study agreed strongly on each area of basic school operation. This agreement was shown by the nonrejection of the four null hypotheses tested in this study.

It is important to note, also, that some of the findings of this study are supported by recognized studies such as those by Maben (1973) and NEA (1978) in that these studies found that inadequate classroom space and curriculum problems were items frequently mentioned by both principals and teachers. However, the findings of this study differed from previous studies in that principals and teachers perceived that low teacher salaries, irregularity of salary payment, inadequate desks for students, audiovisual equipment, inadequate lavatories, inadequate faculty rooms, instructional programs for students with special needs, and curtailed freedom of expression were items which required improvement in this school

system.

This study concluded, also, that any attempt to change (improve) the educational programs in light of the identified needs will neither meet opposition nor apathy. The desired change in educational programs addressed the educational needs as perceived by a majority of the principals and teachers who comprised the school system.

Implications

The findings and the conclusions of this study permit some observations. The findings suggest that both principals and teachers exhibited in their perceptions a high level of agreement on the educational needs of the school system as reflected by a strong majority consensus. This strong majority consensus means further that the identified educational needs are more pronounced in the program areas of administration, instructional materials, and physical plant than in curriculum. The conclusions reached in this study mean that principals and teachers want policy-makers for the Bendel State Free Secondary Education Program to address the items identified as educational needs if improvement and effectiveness of educational programs are to succeed.

Further, both principals and teachers appeared to be saying that they are satisfied with the curriculum. However, the problems are in the program areas of administration, instructional methods, and building facilities of the school system.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations were made for the school administrators and educational

planners of the Bendel State Free Secondary Education program:

1. That the school system develop a curriculum for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children).

2. That the administration of each school focus attention on lack of teachers' freedom, teachers' low salaries, irregularity of salary payment, and better school organization.

3. That the Bendel State Ministry of Education provide additional instructional materials for the school system, especially adequate textbooks for students, library books and reference materials, audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films), and materials for the enhancement of teacher instruction.

4. That the Bendel State Government give further attention to see that building facilities be cleaned and maintained well, including the provision of sufficient lavatories, classroom space, and adequate faculty rooms.

5. That educational policy-makers seek the improvement and effectiveness of the school system by formulating policies which are compatible with the perceived educational needs of clients.

6. That a researcher conduct further study using the same instrument, larger population and sample, to compare his or her findings with the findings of this study to permit generalization. Also, using the same instrument, it is recommended that a researcher compare and contrast schools of the Bendel State system of education and schools with different systems of education in other parts of Nigeria, in order to determine the relative similarities and differences in educational program needs of the respective school systems.

Appendix A

Appendix A

Educational Needs Assessment Questionnaire

Appendix A

Instructions

1. This questionnaire is designed to get your response to some conditions affecting education in your school's school system. The results may be used in planning for educational improvement and effectiveness.
2. Responses should reflect your personal views only. No reference will be made to individuals or schools. Answers will stay confidential only.
3. Respond to each of the items as accurately as possible by circling the letter in the column that most closely represents the level to which you agree or disagree that each item affects the improvement of education in your school.
4. Use SA as strongly agree, A as agree, U as undecided, D as disagree, and SD as strongly disagree.

APPENDIX

Conditions

- | | | | | | | |
|----|----|---|---|---|----|--|
| 1. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Adequate number of subjects is offered to students in your school. |
| 2. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Your school places emphasis on teaching basic skills. |
| 3. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Teachers have sufficient time for instruction. |
| 4. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Your school provides instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children). |
| 5. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Teachers have the opportunity to update their instructional skills by participating in in-service programs. |
| 6. | SA | A | U | D | SD | The individual teacher has an opportunity to select his or her textbook for instruction. |
| 7. | SA | A | U | D | SD | On an overall basis, your school's instructional program meets the needs of your students. |

Appendix A
Educational Needs Assessment Questionnaire

Instructions

1. This questionnaire is designed to get your response to some conditions affecting education in your school or school system. The results may be used in planning for educational improvement and effectiveness.
2. Responses should reflect your personal views only. No reference will be made to individuals or schools. Results will yield group data only.
3. Respond to each of the following statements as accurately as possible by circling the letter in the column to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each item is now needed for the enhancement of education in your school.
4. Use SA as strongly agree, A as agree, U as undecided, D as disagree, and SD as strongly disagree.

Curriculum

- | | | | | | | |
|----|----|---|---|---|----|--|
| 1. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Adequate number of subjects is offered to students in your school. |
| 2. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Your school places emphasis on teaching basic skills. |
| 3. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Teachers have sufficient time for instruction. |
| 4. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Your school provides instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children). |
| 5. | SA | A | U | D | SD | Teachers have the opportunity to update their instructional skills by participating in in-service programs. |
| 6. | SA | A | U | D | SD | The individual teacher has an opportunity to select his or her textbook for instruction. |
| 7. | SA | A | U | D | SD | On an overall basis, your school's instructional program meets the needs of your students. |

Administration

8. SA A U D SD Teachers are properly informed about school procedures and events.
9. SA A U D SD Teachers' civil and personal rights are protected.
10. SA A U D SD Teachers are recognized as professionals.
11. SA A U D SD Teachers are free to express their views without fear of recrimination.
12. SA A U D SD Teachers' salaries are adequate and comparable to workers in other professions.
13. SA A U D SD Teachers are paid regularly.
14. SA A U D SD Principals assist teachers in order to improve instruction.
15. SA A U D SD The school's policy for dealing with students with adverse behavior is appropriate.
16. SA A U D SD Your school or attendance requirements are enforced.
17. SA A U D SD Your school needs better organization.

Instructional Materials

18. SA A U D SD Your students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials.
19. SA A U D SD Students are supplied with adequate textbooks.
20. SA A U D SD Students are provided with mathematical sets, pens, notebooks, etc.
21. SA A U D SD Your school has audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) for classroom use.
22. SA A U D SD Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction.

Physical Plant

23. SA A U D SD Your school building is cleaned and maintained well.
24. SA A U D SD Your school has enough support personnel to keep the building clean and neat.
25. SA A U D SD Your school has sufficient lavatories.
26. SA A U D SD Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students.
27. SA A U D SD Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction.
28. SA A U D SD Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers.

Dear Dr. Mendez:

Your administration has undertaken a laudable project, that of bringing free secondary education to all the youth of Bando State.

This important change will have a profound effect on improving the instructional program and the administration, but such improvements are not likely without the full support and cooperation of your present staff and faculty. Research in other school systems indicates that teachers are essential to the advancement of educational goals.

For this reason, we believe it would be most possibly helpful to the educational program in Bando if more emphasis were placed on the current perceptions of school administrators and teachers who are involved in implementing your new system.

We seek your approval to undertake a study of their attitudes about basic areas of school operation. With your cooperation, participation of the faculties of 25 representative schools will be sought.

Appendix B
Letter of Transmittal - Commissioner of Education

We believe that research of this kind has great potential value to the candidate and to Nigeria's own studies in Africa and in this country. Thus, we hope for your full cooperation in providing a letter of authorization which Mr. Oforuwa could use in conducting his research in your administrative offices.

March 25, 1982

Sincerely yours,

Dr. Robson Momoh
 The Honorable Commissioner for Education
 Ministry of Education
 Benin City
 Bendel State, Nigeria

Dr. Oforuwa
 Candidate for the Degree
 Doctor of Education

Dear Dr. Momoh:

Your administration has undertaken a historic mission, that of bringing free secondary education to all the youth of Bendel State.

This momentous change offers many opportunities for improving the instructional program and its administration, but such advancements are not likely without the full support and commitment of your principals and teachers. Research in other school systems indicates that teachers are crucial to the enhancement of educational goals.

For this reason, we believe it would be useful and possibly helpful to the educational program in Bendel if more were known about the current perceptions of school administrators and teachers who are involved in implementing your new system.

We seek your approval to undertake a study of their attitudes about basic areas of school operation. With your cooperation, participation of the faculties of 25 representative schools will be sought.

Neither the individuals responding nor their schools will be identified in the findings, but we shall be delighted to give you a full report on their collective perceptions upon request. The results will also be used in a dissertation to fulfill the doctoral degree requirements of the undersigned student.

We believe that research of this kind has more potential value to the candidate and to Nigeria than studies he might perform in this country. Thus, we hope for your full cooperation in providing a letter of authorization which Mr. Eferakeya could use in presenting his questionnaire to the representative schools.

Respectfully yours,

Ose A. Eferakeya
Candidate for the Degree:
Doctor of Education

Dear Sir:

Please, take a few minutes each day to respond to the questionnaire marked "P. 2" Also, distribute a copy of the questionnaire to each of the teachers in your school as specified in an hour. Upon completion, collect all questionnaires and mail them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. It is important that all questionnaires be returned to the researcher.

Please reply to:
Mr. Ose A. Eferakeya
TEXAS SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY
P.O. Box 128
Houston, Texas 77004
USA

Appendix C
Letter of Transmittal - Principal

April 20, 1982

SA - strongly agree

A - agree

U - undecided

D - disagree

SD - strongly disagree

The Principal
Anonymous Secondary Grammar School
Benin City
Bendel State, Nigeria

Dear Sir:

Please, take a few minutes from your busy schedule to respond to the questionnaire marked "P." Also, distribute the rest of the questionnaires to each of the teachers indicated on the questionnaires.

The questionnaire could be completed in an hour. Upon completion, collect all questionnaires (including your questionnaire) and mail them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. It is important that all questionnaires be returned to the researcher.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Respectfully yours,

Ose A. Eferakeya

Appendix D
Frequency of Respondents to Items Based on Response Alternatives
 (N=186 for each item)

SA = strongly agree
 A = agree
 U = undecided
 D = disagree
 SD = strongly disagree

	SA	A	U	D	SD	
Curriculum						
1.	67	77	14	19	9	Adequate number of subjects is offered to students in your school.
2.	31	77	27	45	6	Your school places emphasis on teaching basic skills.
3.	43	78	18	38	9	Teachers have sufficient time for instruction.
4.	15	36	26	60	49	Your school provides instructional programs for students with special needs (that is, instructional offerings for handicapped children).
5.	22	55	32	56	21	Teachers have the opportunity to update their instructional skills by participating in in-service programs.
6.	16	69	21	54	26	The individual teacher has an opportunity to select his or her textbook for instruction.
7.	46	62	18	43	17	On an overall basis, your school's instructional program meets the needs of your students.

Administration

8.	18	42	39	45	42	Teachers are properly informed about school procedures and events.
9.	44	58	15	38	31	Teachers' civil and personal rights are protected.
10.	27	6	14	51	1	Teachers are recognized as professionals.
11.	7	10	9	43	97	Teachers are free to express their views without fear of recrimination.
12.	1	5	3	28	147	Teachers' salaries are adequate and comparable to workers in other professions.
13.	23	90	24	27	22	Teachers are paid regularly.
14.	22	79	20	34	31	Principals assist teachers in order to improve instruction.
15.	29	72	34	36	15	The school's policy for dealing with students with adverse behavior is appropriate.
16.	64	62	18	32	10	Your school or attendance requirements are enforced.
17.	7	41	18	51	69	Your school needs better organization.
18.	7	28	12	73	82	Your school has sufficient lavatories.
19.	8	12	10	27	53	Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students.
20.	7	37	14	58	72	Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction.
21.	11	23	21	62	84	Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers.

Instructional Materials

18.	30	103	19	19	15	Your students are provided with sufficient library books and reference materials.
19.	13	60	27	41	45	Students are supplied with adequate textbooks.
20.	1	1	6	40	138	Students are provided with mathematical sets, pens, notebooks, etc.
21.	5	25	9	68	79	Your school has audiovisual equipment (such as projectors, record players, and films) for classroom use.
22.	15	56	20	46	49	Your school's library is adequately equipped with materials which teachers can use to enhance instruction.

Physical Plant

23.	21	67	12	43	43	Your school building is cleaned and maintained well.
24.	15	60	22	46	43	Your school has enough support personnel to keep the building clean and neat.
25.	7	28	13	73	65	Your school has sufficient lavatories.
26.	8	19	10	67	82	Your school has a sufficient number of desks for students.
27.	7	37	14	56	72	Your school has adequate classroom space for instruction.
28.	11	23	21	67	64	Your school has adequate faculty rooms for teachers.

Appendix E
Item Analysis: Percentage of Respondents to Each
Item in the Program Area of Curriculum

Item (variables)	Principals (N=22)			Teachers (N=164)		
	Need	Neutral	No need	Need	Neutral	No need
1	9.1	13.6	77.3	15.9	6.7	77.3
2	18.2	22.7	59.1	28.7	13.4	57.9
3	22.7	9.1	68.2	25.6	9.8	64.6
4	31.8	27.3	40.9	62.2	12.2	25.4
5	45.5	22.7	31.8	47.0	16.5	36.6
6	45.5	9.1	45.4	42.7	11.6	45.7
7	31.8	4.5	63.6	32.3	10.4	57.3
8	22.7	4.5	72.7	28.0	20.1	51.9
16	22.7	9.1	68.2	24.0	9.8	66.2
17	63.6	4.5	31.8	41.6	10.4	25.0

Appendix F
Item Analysis: Percentage of Respondents to Each
Item in the Program Area of Administration

Item (variables)	Principals (N=22)			Teachers (N=164)		
	Need	Neutral	No need	Need	Neutral	No need
8	40.9	18.2	40.9	47.6	21.3	31.1
9	27.3	1.6	59.1	8.4	7.3	54.3
10	27.3	1.6	59.1	46.3	6.7	47.0
11	70.7	2.0	27.3	74.6	6.5	18.9
12	72.7	0.0	27.3	75.6	5.5	18.9
13	90.1	4.5	4.5	94.5	2.4	3.0
14	40.9	9.1	50.0	34.1	11.0	54.9
15	22.7	4.5	72.7	28.0	20.1	51.9
16	31.8	9.1	59.1	24.0	9.8	68.9
17	63.6	4.5	31.8	64.6	10.4	25.0

Appendix G
Item Analysis: Percentage of Respondents to Each
Item in the Program Area of Instructional Materials

Item (variables)	Principals (N=22)			Teachers (N=164)		
	Need	Neutral	No need	Need	Neutral	No need
18	18.2	13.6	68.2	18.3	9.8	72.0
19	50.0	22.7	27.3	65.7	13.6	20.3
20	100.0	0.0	0.0	95.1	3.7	1.2
21	72.7	4.5	22.7	79.9	4.9	15.2
22	45.5	18.2	36.4	51.8	9.8	38.4

Appendix H
Item Analysis: Percentage of Respondents to Each
Item in the Program Area of Physical Plant

Item (variables)	Principals (N=22)			Teachers (N=164)		
	Need	Neutral	No need	Need	Neutral	No need
23	54.5	9.1	36.4	65.1	6.1	38.8
24	45.5	22.7	31.8	48.2	10.4	41.5
25	59.1	13.6	27.3	76.2	6.1	17.7
26	81.8	13.6	4.5	79.9	4.2	15.9
27	86.4	9.1	4.5	68.5	7.3	26.2
28	77.3	9.1	13.6	69.5	11.6	18.9

Appendix I
Mean Scores of Respondents in the
Program Area of Curriculum

<u>Item</u> <u>(variables)</u>	<u>Principals</u> <u>(N=22)</u>	<u>Teachers</u> <u>(N=164)</u>
1	4.05	3.92
2	3.55	3.43
3	3.73	3.56
4	3.14	2.39
5	2.73	2.78
6	2.86	2.99
7	3.45	3.41
18	3.43	3.33
16	2.38	2.79
17	2.45	2.26

Appendix J
Mean Scores of Respondents in the
Program Area of Administration

<u>Item</u> <u>(variables)</u>	<u>Principals</u> <u>(N=22)</u>	<u>Teachers</u> <u>(N=164)</u>
8	2.91	2.70
9	3.41	3.23
10	3.45	2.96
11	2.32	1.91
12	1.23	1.31
13	1.45	1.34
14	3.05	3.16
15	3.45	3.33
16	3.36	3.79
17	2.45	2.26

Appendix K
Mean Scores of Respondents in the
Program Area of Instructional Materials

<u>Item</u> <u>(variables)</u>	<u>Principals</u> <u>(N=22)</u>	<u>Teachers</u> <u>(N=164)</u>
18	3.45	3.63
19	2.09	2.16
20	1.18	1.34
21	2.00	1.97
22	2.25	2.37

Appendix L
Mean Scores of Respondents in the
Program Area of Physical Plant

<u>Item</u> <u>(variables)</u>	<u>Principals</u> <u>(N=22)</u>	<u>Teachers</u> <u>(N=164)</u>
23	2.38	2.15
24	2.73	2.78
25	2.41	2.09
26	1.73	1.97
27	1.59	2.28
28	1.82	2.24

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