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Artificial Intelligence, Information Literacy and Evidence-Based Decision-Making Among School Administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria

Aminu Ahmed Buba (Ph.D)[1]; Haruna Ibrahim Inusa[2]; Idris Kaila[3] & Hamidu Mohammed Jada (Ph.D)[4]

[1]Library and Information Science, Faculty of Arts and Social Science, Federal University Dutse.
[2,3,4] Department of Education, Faculty of Education, Federal University Dutse.

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***Corresponding Author:**
Aminu Ahmed Buba (Ph.D)

Abstract **Original Research Article**

This study examined artificial intelligence literacy, responsible use of AI-generated content, and the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria. The study was guided by four objectives, which focused on assessing the level of AI literacy, examining practices for the responsible use of AI-generated content, determining the extent of AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making, and identifying the challenges affecting such utilisation. A descriptive correlational survey design was adopted for the study. The population comprised 249 school administrators, consisting of principals, vice-principals and senior masters in senior secondary schools in Jigawa State, with the study restricted to Dutse Local Government Area. Data were collected using a researcher-developed questionnaire titled Artificial Intelligence, Information Literacy and Evidence-Based Decision-Making Questionnaire (AIIL-EBDMQ). The instrument was validated by three experts and recorded a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.87. Data were analysed using frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation at the 0.05 level of significance. The findings revealed a low overall level of artificial intelligence literacy among the school administrators (M = 2.89, SD = 0.98), with comparatively stronger competencies in recognising the need for human judgement and identifying relevant AI tools, but weaker competencies in recognising bias, evaluating AI-generated information, prompt formulation and privacy awareness. The study also found a low level of responsible use of AI-generated content (M = 2.42, SD = 1.00) and a low extent of AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making (M = 2.30, SD = 1.02). Poor Internet connectivity, inadequate AI training, unreliable electricity, high Internet-data costs and limited access to digital devices were among the major challenges reported. Furthermore, a statistically significant positive relationship was found between AI literacy and AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making ($r = .642$, $p < .001$). The study concludes that meaningful integration of AI into school administration requires not only access to AI tools but also adequate AI literacy, responsible-use practices, institutional guidance and enabling technological infrastructure. It recommends continuous practical AI-literacy training, clear institutional guidelines for responsible AI use, improved digital infrastructure, and the integration of AI into authentic administrative professional-development programmes.

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Background to the Study

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is increasingly becoming part of educational practice, extending beyond teaching and learning to administrative and managerial activities. AI systems can process large volumes of information, generate content, support communication and assist users in analysing information for decision-making. In school administration, these capabilities may support activities such as planning, report preparation, information retrieval, communication, monitoring and decision support. The growing role of AI therefore requires school administrators to possess

appropriate knowledge and skills to use the technology effectively while retaining human judgement and accountability. UNESCO (2024) emphasises that AI competence should include knowledge, practical skills, ethical awareness and a human-centred approach to AI use.

AI literacy is particularly important because effective use of AI requires more than the ability to operate an AI tool. It involves understanding the capabilities and limitations of AI systems, knowing how to interact with them, evaluating their outputs and recognising issues such as bias, privacy, misinformation and inappropriate content. Sperling et al. (2024) noted that AI literacy is an emerging area in education and involves epistemic, practical and ethical dimensions. Similarly, UNESCO (2024) identifies human-centredness, ethics, AI foundations and applications, pedagogy and professional learning as important dimensions of AI competency. For school administrators, these competencies can provide a foundation for making informed decisions about when and how AI should be incorporated into administrative activities.

The relevance of AI to educational administration is particularly evident in its potential to support evidence-based decision-making. School administrators routinely make decisions concerning staff, students, instructional programmes, resources, communication and school development. Such decisions require access to accurate, relevant and timely information. AI can assist administrators in organising and interpreting information, generating summaries, identifying patterns and providing possible alternatives. However, AI-generated information cannot automatically be regarded as accurate or appropriate. Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) argue that AI-assisted administrative decision-making should involve a symbiotic relationship in which AI supports rather than replaces the judgement and responsibilities of educational leaders.

Responsible use of AI-generated content is therefore an essential consideration. Administrators may use AI-generated text, summaries, recommendations, reports or other forms of content in their work, but such outputs may contain factual inaccuracies, bias, inappropriate information or contextual errors. Responsible use consequently requires users to evaluate AI-generated content, protect confidential information, consider ethical implications and retain human oversight. UNESCO (2024) stresses human agency, accountability, privacy, safety and ethical principles in the development of AI competencies, making responsible use an important component of AI literacy in educational settings.

Within this context, information literacy remains highly relevant. School administrators need to identify their information needs, locate appropriate information, evaluate its accuracy and relevance, and apply it appropriately to administrative decisions. The emergence of AI does not eliminate these requirements; rather, it increases their importance because administrators may now encounter information generated or transformed by AI systems. Consequently, the effective use of AI for evidence-based decision-making depends not only on access to AI tools but also on the administrator's ability to critically assess the information produced by such tools.

Statement of the Problem

The increasing availability of artificial intelligence tools presents school administrators with new opportunities to improve the efficiency of administrative work and support decision-making. AI can assist with information retrieval, content generation, communication, planning and other administrative activities. However, the usefulness of AI-generated information depends substantially on the user's ability to understand, evaluate and apply it appropriately. UNESCO (2024) has consequently emphasised the need to develop AI competencies that promote effective, ethical and human-centred use of AI.

The problem is that the possession or use of AI tools does not necessarily indicate that school administrators have adequate AI literacy. Administrators may use AI applications without fully understanding their limitations, the possibility of inaccurate outputs, or the ethical implications associated with using AI-generated content. Studies and reviews have identified concerns relating to reliability, bias, privacy, transparency and the need for human oversight in educational applications of AI (Yan et al., 2024; UNESCO, 2024). These concerns become particularly important when AI-generated information is used to support administrative decisions that may affect teachers, pupils, resources or school policies.

Furthermore, available literature has given considerable attention to AI in teaching and learning, while research specifically examining AI literacy and AI-assisted decision-making among school administrators remains comparatively limited. Research on school leadership has highlighted the potential of AI to support administrative processes, communication and efficiency, but has also pointed to the limited empirical attention given to AI in school management (Alqahtani & Rajkhan, 2024). This creates a need for empirical evidence on how school administrators understand and utilise AI, particularly in the context of evidence-based administrative decision-making.

In Jigawa State, there is a need to establish the extent to which school administrators possess the competencies required to use AI effectively and responsibly for administrative purposes. There is also a need to identify the challenges that may hinder such utilisation, including inadequate knowledge and skills, limited access to technology, uncertainty about appropriate use, privacy concerns and the reliability of AI-generated information. It is against this background that the present study examines artificial intelligence literacy, the utilisation of AI for evidence-based administrative decision-making, and the challenges affecting such utilisation among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria.

Research Objectives

The study will specifically seek to:

1. Assess the level of artificial intelligence literacy among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria.
2. Assess the practices adopted by school administrators for the responsible use of AI-generated content in administrative activities in Jigawa State, Nigeria.
3. Examine the extent to which school administrators utilise artificial intelligence in making evidence-based administrative decisions in Jigawa State, Nigeria.
4. Identify the challenges affecting the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria.

Research Hypotheses

H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between artificial intelligence literacy and the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria.

Review of Related Literature

AI literacy refers broadly to the knowledge, skills, understanding and critical capacities required to interact with and evaluate AI systems appropriately. In education, AI literacy extends beyond technical operation to include understanding AI capabilities and limitations, ethical considerations and the ability to make informed judgements about its use. Sperling et al. (2024), in a scoping review of AI literacy in teacher education, observed that AI literacy is an emerging field involving practical, epistemic and ethical knowledge. This suggests that educational professionals require multidimensional competencies rather than merely operational skills.

UNESCO (2024) provides a broader framework for understanding AI competence by identifying 15 competencies across five dimensions: human-centred mindset, ethics of AI, AI foundations and applications, AI pedagogy, and AI for professional learning. Although developed primarily for teachers, the framework provides useful principles for educational administrators because it emphasises human agency, accountability, ethical judgement and the ability to evaluate and apply AI tools appropriately. For administrators, these competencies are relevant to decisions about whether an AI tool is suitable for a particular administrative task and whether its output can be relied upon.

Recent literature on educational leadership similarly suggests that AI literacy is becoming relevant to leadership, policy development and organisational decision-making. Mohasseb (2025) reported that AI literacy among educational leaders extends beyond technical competence to include ethical awareness and an understanding of AI's implications for leadership and decision-making. This reinforces the need to examine AI literacy among school administrators as a distinct aspect of contemporary educational administration.

Evidence-based decision-making involves using relevant and credible information as a basis for administrative judgement rather than relying solely on intuition or assumptions. School administrators require information from various sources to make decisions relating to staffing, student management, resource allocation, planning, monitoring and school development. AI may contribute to this process by helping administrators retrieve, organise, summarise and analyse information.

Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) proposed a framework for AI-assisted administrative decision-making that emphasises collaboration between AI systems and educational leaders. Their work suggests that AI can provide analytical and administrative support, but educational leaders remain responsible for contextual interpretation, judgement and accountability. Similarly, research on school leadership and AI indicates that AI may streamline administrative tasks and facilitate communication while creating new demands for leadership preparedness and critical oversight (Alqahtani & Rajkhan, 2024).

The use of AI for evidence-based decision-making therefore depends on the administrator's capacity to distinguish useful information from unreliable or inappropriate output. AI-generated responses may appear authoritative while containing factual errors or reflecting biases in the underlying data and models. Consequently, AI should function as a decision-support resource rather than an independent decision-maker. This position is consistent with UNESCO's (2024) emphasis on human agency and accountability in educational AI use.

Responsible use of AI-generated content involves the careful evaluation and appropriate application of content produced by AI systems. In administrative contexts, this may include verifying factual claims, reviewing generated reports, protecting confidential information, checking for bias and ensuring that AI-generated content is appropriate for the particular institutional context. Such practices are important because AI systems can generate plausible but inaccurate information.

Yan et al. (2024), in a systematic scoping review of large language models in education, identified practical and ethical challenges associated with their use, including concerns relating to accuracy, bias, privacy and responsible implementation. UNESCO (2024) similarly emphasises ethical principles, human accountability, privacy and safety as essential elements of AI competency. These concerns indicate that responsible AI use should not be separated from AI literacy; rather, the ability to critically evaluate and responsibly apply AI-generated content is an important expression of AI competence.

For school administrators, responsible use is particularly important because administrative information may involve pupils, staff, parents and institutional records. An administrator who accepts AI-generated information without verification may inadvertently introduce inaccurate information into reports, decisions or communications. Responsible use therefore requires administrators to retain human oversight and exercise professional judgement when using AI-generated content.

Despite the potential benefits of AI, its effective integration into educational administration may be affected by individual, institutional, technological and ethical challenges. These include inadequate AI knowledge and skills, limited professional development, lack of institutional policies, concerns about privacy and data protection, unreliable AI outputs, limited infrastructure and uncertainty about appropriate applications.

Yan et al. (2024) identified practical and ethical challenges associated with the use of large language models in education, while UNESCO (2024) noted the importance of institutional support and professional development for responsible AI integration. Research on school leadership has also highlighted the limited attention given to AI integration within school management and the need for leaders to develop the capacity to navigate emerging opportunities and risks (Alqahtani & Rajkhan, 2024).

The literature therefore suggests that successful AI utilisation in educational administration cannot depend solely on the availability of AI tools. Administrators require appropriate competencies, access to reliable information and technology, clear institutional guidance, and the capacity to evaluate AI-generated content critically. The present study builds on this literature by examining these issues within the context of school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria, with particular attention to AI literacy, AI-supported evidence-based decision-making and the challenges affecting responsible utilisation.

Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive correlational survey design. The population comprised 249 school administrators, consisting of principals, vice-principals and senior masters in senior secondary schools in Jigawa State, Nigeria. A multistage sampling procedure was used to select the study area and categories of administrators, with the study restricted to Dutse Local Government Area. Data were collected using a researcher-developed questionnaire titled Artificial Intelligence, Information Literacy and Evidence-Based Decision-Making Questionnaire (AIIL-EBDMQ). The instrument was validated by three experts in Information Science, Educational Administration and Artificial Intelligence/Educational Technology. A pilot test conducted outside the study area yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.87. The major constructs were measured on a four-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Agree (4)* to *Strongly Disagree (1)*, while challenges were measured using Yes/No responses.

Data were collected with the assistance of trained research assistants and analysed using SPSS. Frequencies and percentages were used for categorical data, while means and standard deviations were used for the Likert-scale items. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to test the hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance. A criterion mean of 3.0 was used to interpret the Likert-scale responses, with scores of 3.0 and above indicating a relatively high level and scores below 3.0 indicating a relatively low level of the measured construct.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical principles were observed throughout the study. Participation was voluntary, respondents were adequately informed about the purpose of the research, and confidentiality and anonymity were maintained. No unnecessary personal identifiers were collected. Respondents were also informed that they could decline participation or withdraw from the study without penalty. Data were securely stored and used solely for academic research purposes.

Results and Interpretation

Research Question 1

What is the level of artificial intelligence literacy among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria?

Table 1: Level of Artificial Intelligence Literacy among School Administrators (N = 249)

S/N	Artificial Intelligence Literacy	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Decision
1	I understand the basic concepts of artificial intelligence.	86 (34.5%)	92 (36.9%)	43 (17.3%)	28 (11.2%)	2.95	0.98	Low
2	I can identify AI tools that are relevant to school administration.	94 (37.8%)	89 (35.7%)	40 (16.1%)	26 (10.4%)	3.01	0.96	High
3	I understand the capabilities and limitations of AI tools.	78 (31.3%)	91 (36.5%)	49 (19.7%)	31 (12.4%)	2.87	0.99	Low
4	I can formulate effective prompts to obtain useful responses from AI tools.	73 (29.3%)	86 (34.5%)	55 (22.1%)	35 (14.1%)	2.79	1.00	Low
5	I can evaluate the accuracy of information generated by AI tools.	69 (27.7%)	88 (35.3%)	57 (22.9%)	35 (14.1%)	2.77	1.00	Low

6	I can recognise possible bias in AI-generated information.	65 (26.1%)	83 (33.3%)	61 (24.5%)	40 (16.1%)	2.69	1.02	Low
7	I understand the privacy implications of entering information into AI systems.	72 (28.9%)	91 (36.5%)	54 (21.7%)	32 (12.9%)	2.81	0.99	Low
8	I can select an appropriate AI tool for a particular administrative task.	82 (32.9%)	94 (37.8%)	45 (18.1%)	28 (11.2%)	2.92	0.96	Low
9	I can use AI-generated information to support administrative activities.	88 (35.3%)	97 (39.0%)	39 (15.7%)	25 (10.0%)	3.00	0.94	High
10	I understand that AI-generated information requires human judgement before use.	101(40.6%)	91 (36.5%)	34 (13.7%)	23 (9.2%)	3.09	0.94	High
	Overall Mean/SD					**2.89**	**0.98**	**Low**

Decision rule: *Mean ≥ 3.00 = High; Mean < 3.00 = Low.*

Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1 shows that the overall mean score of 2.89 indicates a low level of artificial intelligence literacy among the school administrators. The highest mean was recorded for understanding that AI-generated information requires human judgement before use (M = 3.09, SD = 0.94), followed by the ability to identify AI tools relevant to school administration (M = 3.01, SD = 0.96) and the ability to use AI-generated information to support administrative activities (M = 3.00, SD = 0.94). Conversely, the lowest mean was recorded for recognising possible bias in AI-generated information (M = 2.69, SD = 1.02), followed by evaluating the accuracy of AI-generated information (M = 2.77, SD = 1.00) and formulating effective prompts (M = 2.79, SD = 1.00).

The finding suggests that while the administrators may have a basic awareness of AI tools and their potential administrative applications, their competencies in critical evaluation, prompting and recognising bias are comparatively weaker. This is important because AI-supported administrative decision-making requires more than access to AI tools; administrators need the capacity to critically interpret AI outputs and combine them with professional judgement. Recent literature similarly positions AI literacy and digital competence as important components of contemporary educational leadership, while emphasising that AI should support rather than replace the judgement of educational leaders (Dai, Thomas, & Rawolle, 2025).

Research Question 2: What practices do school administrators adopt for the responsible use of AI-generated content in administrative activities in Jigawa State, Nigeria?

Table 2: Practices for Responsible Use of AI-Generated Content among School Administrators (N = 249)

Responsible Use Practices	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Decision
I verify important information generated by AI before using it for administrative purposes.	48 (19.3%)	67 (26.9%)	78 (31.3%)	56 (22.5%)	2.43	1.02	Low
I compare AI-generated information with official school or government documents.	43 (17.3%)	64 (25.7%)	82 (32.9%)	60 (24.1%)	2.36	1.01	Low
I cross-check AI-generated information with reliable sources before using it.	46 (18.5%)	69 (27.7%)	76 (30.5%)	58 (23.3%)	2.42	1.02	Low
I check AI-generated content for factual errors before using it in administrative work.	51 (20.5%)	71 (28.5%)	74 (29.7%)	53 (21.3%)	2.48	1.01	Low
I review AI-generated content for bias or misleading information.	39 (15.7%)	63 (25.3%)	83 (33.3%)	64 (25.7%)	2.31	1	Low
I ensure that AI-generated content is appropriate for the school context before using it.	47 (18.9%)	70 (28.1%)	78 (31.3%)	54 (21.7%)	2.44	1	Low

I avoid entering confidential information about staff or students into AI systems.	42 (16.9%)	61 (24.5%)	79 (31.7%)	67 (26.9%)	2.32	1.01	Low
I modify AI-generated content where necessary before using it for administrative purposes.	54 (21.7%)	73 (29.3%)	72 (28.9%)	50 (20.1%)	2.53	1.01	Low
I use my professional judgement before accepting recommendations generated by AI.	49 (19.7%)	76 (30.5%)	73 (29.3%)	51 (20.5%)	2.49	1	Low
I seek additional expert or professional advice when AI-generated information is uncertain or sensitive.	38 (15.3%)	65 (26.1%)	81 (32.5%)	65 (26.1%)	2.31	0.99	Low
I check AI-generated reports and documents for errors before submitting or sharing them.	52 (20.9%)	72 (28.9%)	76 (30.5%)	49 (19.7%)	2.51	1	Low
I ensure that AI-generated content does not replace my professional responsibility for administrative decisions.	45 (18.1%)	68 (27.3%)	80 (32.1%)	56 (22.5%)	2.41	1	Low
Overall Mean/SD					**2.42**	**1**	**Low**

Decision rule: *Mean ≥ 3.00 = High; Mean < 3.00 = Low.*

Analysis and Interpretation

Table 2 shows that the overall mean score of 2.42 indicates a low level of responsible use of AI-generated content among school administrators in Jigawa State. All the 12 items recorded mean scores below the criterion mean of 3.00. The highest mean was recorded for modifying AI-generated content where necessary before using it for administrative purposes (M = 2.53, SD = 1.01), followed by checking AI-generated reports and documents for errors before submitting or sharing them (M = 2.51, SD = 1.00). The lowest mean scores were recorded for reviewing AI-generated content for bias or misleading information and seeking additional expert or professional advice when AI-generated information is uncertain or sensitive, both with a mean of approximately 2.31.

The finding suggests that although school administrators may use AI-generated content, responsible practices such as systematic verification, bias detection, protection of confidential information and consultation with experts are not consistently adopted. This is significant because AI-supported administrative decision-making requires human oversight and critical evaluation rather than uncritical acceptance of AI outputs. Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) similarly conceptualise AI in educational administration as a support mechanism whose outputs should complement, rather than replace, the judgement and responsibilities of educational leaders.

The low level observed in this variable also provides an important basis for examining the relationship between responsible use of AI-generated content and AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making in the subsequent hypothesis testing.

Research Question Three

To what extent do school administrators utilise artificial intelligence in making evidence-based administrative decisions in Jigawa State, Nigeria?

Table 3: Extent of AI Utilisation for Evidence-Based Administrative Decision-Making among School Administrators (N = 249)

Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Decision
I use AI tools to gather relevant information before making administrative decisions.	42 (16.9%)	61 (24.5%)	82 (32.9%)	64 (25.7%)	2.33	1	Low
I use AI to analyse school data when making administrative decisions.	38 (15.3%)	57 (22.9%)	84 (33.7%)	70 (28.1%)	2.25	1	Low

I use AI tools to identify trends and patterns in students' academic performance.	40 (16.1%)	63 (25.3%)	78 (31.3%)	68 (27.3%)	2.3	1	Low
I use AI to analyse attendance and related school records when making decisions.	44 (17.7%)	65 (26.1%)	77 (30.9%)	63 (25.3%)	2.36	1	Low
I use AI-generated insights to support decisions on allocation of school resources.	35 (14.1%)	58 (23.3%)	85 (34.1%)	71 (28.5%)	2.23	1	Low
I use AI to generate alternative solutions to administrative problems before making decisions.	41 (16.5%)	68 (27.3%)	79 (31.7%)	61 (24.5%)	2.36	1	Low
I use AI to support decisions concerning students' academic or behavioural needs.	39 (15.7%)	60 (24.1%)	82 (32.9%)	68 (27.3%)	2.28	1	Low
I use AI to support staff-related administrative decisions.	34 (13.7%)	56 (22.5%)	87 (34.9%)	72 (28.9%)	2.21	1	Low
I use AI to support the preparation of administrative plans and strategies.	43 (17.3%)	64 (25.7%)	78 (31.3%)	64 (25.7%)	2.35	1	Low
I use AI to compare available evidence before selecting an administrative course of action.	37 (14.9%)	62 (24.9%)	83 (33.3%)	67 (26.9%)	2.28	1	Low
I use AI to monitor and evaluate the outcomes of administrative decisions.	32 (12.9%)	55 (22.1%)	88 (35.3%)	74 (29.7%)	2.18	1	Low
I combine AI-generated insights with available school records and professional judgement before making decisions.	45 (18.1%)	69 (27.7%)	76 (30.5%)	59 (23.7%)	2.4	1	Low
Overall Mean					**2.3**	**1**	**Low**

Interpretation

The results indicate a low extent of AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making, with an overall mean of 2.30 (SD = 1.02). All twelve items recorded mean scores below the criterion mean of 3.00. The highest mean was recorded for combining AI-generated insights with school records and professional judgement (M = 2.40), while the lowest was for using AI to monitor and evaluate administrative decisions (M = 2.18). This pattern is broadly consistent with evidence from North-Central Nigeria, where Adediran, Ottan, Omuya, Adediran, and Ogunsola (2025) found low utilisation of AI tools among secondary-school principals. Their study particularly identified infrastructural limitations, cost, limited training and awareness as barriers to utilisation.

Research Question Four

What are the challenges affecting the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria?

Table 4: Challenges Affecting the Utilisation of AI for Evidence-Based Decision-Making among School Administrators (N = 249)

S/N	Challenges	Yes	No
1	Poor or unreliable Internet connectivity	205 (82.3%)	44 (17.7%)
2	Unreliable electricity supply	198 (79.5%)	51 (20.5%)
3	High cost of Internet data	191 (76.7%)	58 (23.3%)
4	Inadequate access to computers and other digital devices	184 (73.9%)	65 (26.1%)
5	Lack of adequate training on the use of AI tools	201 (80.7%)	48 (19.3%)
6	Limited knowledge of appropriate AI tools for administrative decisions	176 (70.7%)	73 (29.3%)
7	Lack of technical support when using AI tools	181 (72.7%)	68 (27.3%)

8	High cost of acquiring and maintaining AI-related technologies	189 (75.9%)	60 (24.1%)
9	Limited institutional support for AI adoption	173 (69.5%)	76 (30.5%)
10	Concerns about the accuracy and reliability of AI-generated information	168 (67.5%)	81 (32.5%)
11	Concerns about privacy and confidentiality of school information	161 (64.7%)	88 (35.3%)
12	Difficulty integrating AI into existing administrative practices	157 (63.1%)	92 (36.9%)
13	Limited awareness of ethical guidelines for AI use	166 (66.7%)	83 (33.3%)
14	Resistance to adopting new technologies among staff	149 (59.8%)	100 (40.2%)
15	Lack of clear institutional policies guiding AI use	171 (68.7%)	78 (31.3%)

Overall: The results indicate that the most frequently reported challenges are poor Internet connectivity, inadequate AI training, unreliable electricity, high data costs, and limited access to digital devices.

Interpretation

The findings show that school administrators experience substantial infrastructural, financial, competency-related and institutional challenges in utilising AI for evidence-based administrative decision-making. The most prominent challenge is poor or unreliable Internet connectivity, reported by 82.3% of respondents, followed by inadequate AI training (80.7%) and unreliable electricity supply (79.5%). This pattern is consistent with recent Nigerian evidence. Adediran, Ottan, Omuya, Adediran, and Ogunsola (2025) reported inadequate infrastructure and high acquisition and maintenance costs as prominent barriers to AI adoption among secondary-school principals in North-Central Nigeria. Similarly, recent research on school principals' AI readiness in Nigeria identifies inadequate infrastructure, unreliable electricity, high data costs and insufficient institutional support as important constraints.

Hypothesis One

H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between artificial intelligence literacy and the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria.

Table 5: Pearson Product Moment Correlation between AI Literacy and AI Utilisation for Evidence-Based Administrative Decision-Making

Variables	N	Mean	SD	r	p-value	Decision
AI Literacy	249	2.89	0.98			
AI Utilisation for Evidence-Based Decision-Making	249	2.30	1.02	**0.642**	**0.000**	Significant

Note: *$p < 0.05$.*

Interpretation

The result in Table 5 indicates a positive relationship between artificial intelligence literacy and the utilisation of artificial intelligence for evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators. The correlation coefficient of r = 0.642 indicates a moderately strong positive relationship, while the p-value of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 significance level.

Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{01}) is rejected. This means that, based on the figures, there is a statistically significant relationship between AI literacy and AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State, Nigeria. This relationship is conceptually consistent with recent Nigerian evidence showing that limitations in AI awareness, literacy, infrastructure and professional capacity can constrain school administrators' effective adoption of AI.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is anchored on the assumption that artificial intelligence literacy provides the foundational competencies required for school administrators to use AI meaningfully in administrative practice. AI literacy encompasses knowledge of AI concepts, understanding of its capabilities and limitations, prompting skills, evaluation of AI outputs, recognition of bias, privacy awareness and appropriate selection of AI tools. These competencies are expected to influence how administrators interact with and assess AI-generated content. The framework therefore positions responsible use of AI-generated content as an important intervening dimension between AI literacy and actual AI utilisation. Responsible use involves verifying information, cross-checking outputs with reliable sources, checking for factual errors and bias, protecting confidential information, ensuring contextual appropriateness, modifying generated content where necessary, and maintaining human oversight and professional judgement. This arrangement reflects the study's position that possessing or accessing AI tools alone is insufficient; administrators must have the capacity to critically evaluate and responsibly apply AI-generated information.

The framework further proposes that responsible and informed engagement with AI can support AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making, which constitutes the principal outcome of the study. Such utilisation includes gathering and analysing information, identifying patterns, supporting resource allocation and staff or student decisions, developing administrative plans, comparing available evidence, and monitoring the outcomes of decisions. However, the framework recognises that this utilisation does not occur in isolation. Challenges affecting AI utilization, including poor Internet connectivity, unreliable electricity, inadequate training, limited access to devices, high costs, insufficient technical and institutional support, privacy concerns, reliability concerns and lack of clear policies, may constrain the effective translation of AI literacy and responsible-use practices into administrative decision-making. Thus, the framework presents AI literacy as the competency foundation, responsible use as the mechanism through which those competencies are applied, AI utilisation for evidence-based decision-making as the principal outcome, and contextual challenges as factors capable of constraining the overall process.

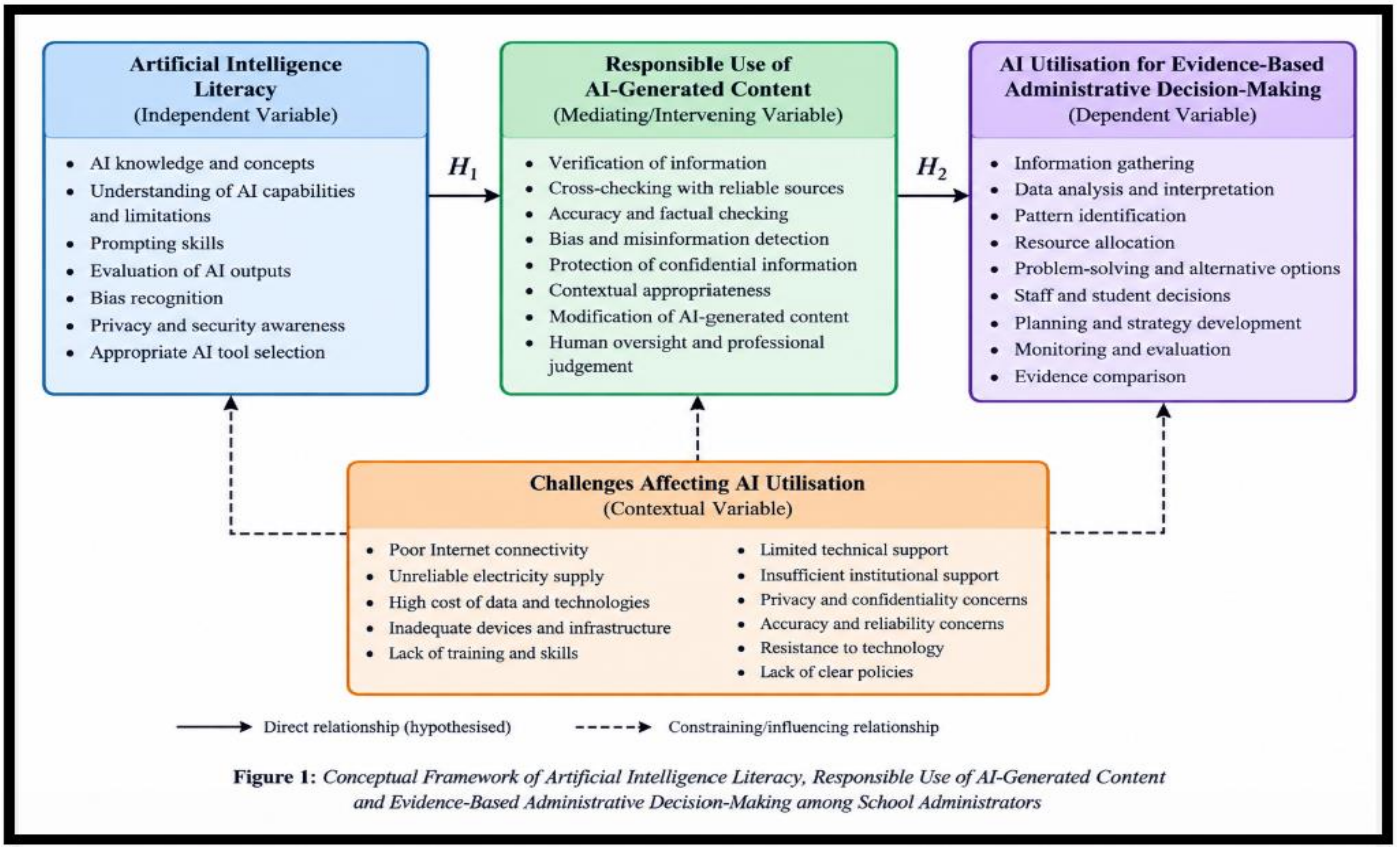


Figure 1.0: Conceptual Framework

Discussion of Findings

Artificial Intelligence Literacy among School Administrators

The finding that school administrators in Jigawa State demonstrated an overall low level of artificial intelligence literacy (M = 2.89, SD = 0.98) is analytically significant because it reveals that the presence or familiarity of AI technologies has not yet translated into a sufficiently developed professional competence for administrative use. The finding should not, however, be interpreted as evidence that the administrators are completely unfamiliar with AI. Rather, the item-level results reveal a more nuanced form of literacy characterised by basic functional awareness but comparatively weak critical, evaluative and ethical competence. Three dimensions reached the criterion level: understanding that AI-generated information requires human judgement before use (M = 3.09), identifying AI tools relevant to school administration (M = 3.01), and using AI-generated information to support administrative activities (M = 3.00). In contrast, the competencies most directly associated with epistemic control over AI outputs—recognising bias (M = 2.69), evaluating accuracy (M = 2.77), formulating effective prompts (M = 2.79), and understanding privacy implications (M = 2.81)—remained below the criterion mean. This pattern suggests that administrators are beginning to understand what AI can be used for without possessing an equally developed understanding of how its outputs should be interrogated before they are trusted.

This distinction is consistent with the conceptual development of AI literacy in recent scholarship. Sperling et al. (2024), in their scoping review, argue that AI literacy cannot be reduced to operational knowledge but encompasses epistemic, practical and ethical forms of professional knowledge. Their argument is particularly relevant to the present finding because the administrators' relatively stronger scores on tool identification and use coexist with weaker

scores on evaluation and bias recognition. Similarly, Feng and Carolus (2026), in a systematic review of 58 peer-reviewed studies on AI literacy in school education, found that AI literacy among educational professionals encompasses cognitive, behavioural and psychological dimensions, with administrators requiring context-specific knowledge directed towards informed decision-making and contextual adaptability. The present findings therefore appear to represent not an absence of AI literacy but an immature configuration of AI literacy, in which instrumental familiarity is developing faster than critical and governance-oriented competence. UNESCO's (2024) AI Competency Framework for Teachers reinforces this distinction by conceptualising AI competence around human-centredness, ethics, AI foundations and applications, and professional learning rather than merely technical operation. Although the UNESCO framework is designed for teachers, its emphasis on human agency, ethical judgement and critical engagement is directly relevant to school administrators whose decisions may affect staff, students, resources and institutional practices.

The particularly low score for recognising possible bias in AI-generated information (M = 2.69) deserves special attention because bias recognition represents a higher-order competency than simply obtaining an AI-generated response. An administrator may therefore be able to access an AI tool and obtain a seemingly plausible answer without possessing the epistemic capacity to interrogate the assumptions, data patterns or representational limitations embedded in that answer. This is consequential in educational administration because AI-generated recommendations can acquire an appearance of objectivity precisely because they are computationally produced. Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) caution against such an interpretation by conceptualising AI-assisted administrative decision-making as a symbiotic relationship in which AI contributes analytical and administrative capabilities while educational leaders retain contextual interpretation, judgement and accountability. Likewise, a widely cited cautionary analysis of AI in educational leaders' data-informed decision-making argues that AI can improve efficiency and accuracy while simultaneously amplifying latent biases and creating risks around transparency, fairness and privacy; consequently, educational leaders should regard AI as a decision-support mechanism rather than a substitute for professional judgement (2021). The relatively low bias-recognition score in the present study therefore represents more than a technical deficiency: it signals a potential governance vulnerability in the emerging use of AI for school administration.

The low score for prompting competence (M = 2.79) provides another important insight. Effective interaction with generative AI requires users to articulate tasks, specify context, constrain outputs and iteratively refine responses. Weak prompting competence may consequently reduce the quality of the information obtained and, in turn, reinforce the perception that AI is unreliable or unsuitable for administrative work. More importantly, prompting competence and evaluation competence are interdependent: an administrator who cannot adequately specify a task may receive poorly contextualised information, while an administrator who cannot critically evaluate the resulting output may not recognise that the problem originated partly from the interaction itself. The finding therefore suggests that AI literacy development should move beyond demonstrations of popular AI tools towards task-specific human–AI interaction, involving prompt formulation, output interrogation, contextualisation, verification and reflection. This interpretation is compatible with Sperling et al. (2024), who emphasise the practical and epistemic dimensions of AI literacy, and with UNESCO (2024), which places AI competence within a progressive developmental framework rather than treating it as a single technical skill.

Responsible Use of AI-Generated Content

The second major finding is the low level of responsible use of AI-generated content among the administrators (overall M = 2.42, SD = 1.00). The significance of this result becomes clearer when it is considered alongside the first finding. Although administrators recorded their highest AI-literacy score on the proposition that AI-generated information requires human judgement before use (M = 3.09), their actual use of professional judgement before accepting AI recommendations was substantially lower (M = 2.49). The difference of approximately 0.60 points exposes a notable knowledge–practice translation gap. In other words, recognising the principle of human oversight does not necessarily mean that the principle is operationalised as a routine administrative practice. This is arguably one of the most intellectually important findings of the study because it challenges the assumption that awareness automatically produces responsible behaviour.

The same pattern is visible across other dimensions. Administrators reported relatively weak ability to evaluate AI-generated information for accuracy (M = 2.77), while the actual practice of checking AI-generated content for factual errors was lower (M = 2.48). Similarly, understanding privacy implications scored 2.81, whereas avoiding the entry of confidential staff or student information into AI systems scored only 2.32. Recognition of bias was already low at 2.69, while the practical review of AI content for bias or misleading information was even lower at 2.31. These differences indicate that the principal difficulty may not simply be knowing the vocabulary of responsible AI, but embedding responsible AI practices into everyday administrative workflows. The pattern is consistent with Yan et al. (2024), whose systematic scoping review of 118 peer-reviewed studies identified transparency, privacy, technological readiness and other practical and ethical issues as major challenges in implementing large-language-model applications in authentic educational contexts. UNESCO (2023) similarly argues that meaningful use of generative AI in education requires human-centred validation, data-privacy

protection and institutional policy rather than unregulated individual experimentation.

An especially important observation is that the highest responsible-use practice was modifying AI-generated content before use (M = 2.53), followed by checking AI-generated reports and documents for errors (M = 2.51). These practices are relatively easier to perform because they occur after content has already been generated. By contrast, the lowest scores were recorded for reviewing AI-generated content for bias or misleading information (M = 2.31) and seeking additional expert or professional advice where information is uncertain or sensitive (M = 2.31). This may indicate that administrators are more disposed towards surface-level editorial correction than deeper epistemic validation. Modifying wording or correcting an obvious error does not necessarily establish whether the underlying information is accurate, representative, unbiased or contextually appropriate. Thus, the findings suggest a distinction between *editing AI output* and *auditing AI output*. The former appears somewhat more developed than the latter. This distinction is critical for evidence-based administration because a professionally polished AI-generated statement may remain epistemically defective if its underlying claims have not been independently verified.

The low score for protecting confidential information is similarly consequential. School administrators routinely handle information concerning students, staff, parents, disciplinary matters, academic performance and institutional records. Consequently, the insertion of sensitive information into external AI systems introduces questions of privacy, data governance and institutional accountability. UNESCO's (2024) framework explicitly places human agency, ethical responsibility and protection of rights at the centre of AI competence, while UNESCO's (2023) guidance on generative AI emphasises data privacy and institutional preparedness. The present finding therefore suggests that responsible AI use in the study area cannot be treated solely as an individual ethical matter. It requires an institutional architecture of responsible use, including clear rules regarding what information may be entered into AI systems, which tools are approved, when verification is mandatory, who retains decision authority and how AI-assisted outputs should be documented.

Utilisation of AI for Evidence-Based Administrative Decision-Making

The finding that AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making was low (M = 2.30, SD = 1.02), with none of the twelve utilisation items reaching the criterion mean, indicates that AI has not yet become an established component of the administrators' decision-making repertoire. The result is particularly important because it demonstrates that the mere emergence of AI awareness has not produced substantive integration into administrative processes. The administrators appear to be at an early adoption or exploratory stage, rather than at a stage where AI has become embedded within routine evidence-based management. This interpretation is strengthened by the fact that the highest utilisation item—combining AI-generated insights with school records and professional judgement—recorded only M = 2.40. Thus, even the form of utilisation most consistent with responsible human–AI collaboration remained relatively limited.

The lowest utilisation score was recorded for monitoring and evaluating the outcomes of administrative decisions (M = 2.18). This is theoretically significant because monitoring and evaluation represent the feedback stage of evidence-based decision-making. AI utilisation that ends at information gathering or recommendation generation but does not extend to monitoring outcomes remains incomplete. Evidence-based decision-making is not simply a matter of obtaining evidence before a decision; it also involves examining whether the decision produced the intended consequences and using subsequent evidence to revise future action. The low score therefore suggests that AI, where used, has not yet become part of a full decision intelligence cycle comprising information acquisition, analysis, interpretation, decision, implementation, monitoring and feedback.

The findings are closely aligned with recent Nigerian evidence. Adediran et al. (2025), studying 300 secondary-school principals in North-Central Nigeria, reported low AI awareness (M = 1.79) and low AI utilisation (M = 1.68), with inadequate infrastructure and the cost of acquiring and maintaining AI-related technologies identified as major barriers. Similarly, a 2025 study of secondary-school principals in Enugu State found that AI adoption was greater for streamlined communication but remained low for data analysis, decision-making and resource optimisation. This distinction is important because it suggests that AI adoption may initially occur in low-risk, communication-oriented administrative activities before extending to analytically demanding and consequential decisions. The Jigawa findings fit this broader pattern: the administrators appear to be some distance from routinely using AI for sophisticated functions such as analysing school data, allocating resources, supporting staff-related decisions and evaluating administrative outcomes.

The present finding should therefore not be interpreted simply as resistance to technological change. Rather, low utilisation appears to emerge from the interaction between limited AI literacy, weak responsible-use practices and substantial contextual barriers. The emerging literature increasingly supports this multidimensional interpretation. Feng and Carolus (2026) argue that AI literacy among educational professionals is context-dependent and includes not only knowledge and skills but also psychological and behavioural dimensions. Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) similarly position effective educational AI use as a collaborative arrangement in which technology contributes analytical capacity while leaders retain professional responsibility. The implication is that meaningful utilisation

requires more than introducing AI tools into schools; it requires a transition from tool availability to organisational capability.

Challenges Affecting AI Utilisation

The pattern of challenges provides perhaps the clearest explanation for the low levels of literacy, responsible use and utilisation. Poor or unreliable Internet connectivity was reported by 82.3% of respondents, inadequate AI training by 80.7%, unreliable electricity by 79.5%, high Internet-data costs by 76.7%, high technology acquisition and maintenance costs by 75.9%, and inadequate access to digital devices by 73.9%. These results reveal that AI adoption in the study environment is constrained simultaneously by the infrastructure problem, the capability problem and the affordability problem. This is important because technological adoption is often discussed as though users make an individual decision to accept or reject technology. The findings suggest instead that administrators operate within a socio-technical environment in which the possibility of AI use depends partly on whether the necessary material conditions exist.

The predominance of connectivity and electricity problems is particularly revealing. AI-enabled administrative work frequently depends on sustained Internet access, digital devices and reliable electricity. Where these conditions are unstable, AI use becomes intermittent, costly and operationally inconvenient. Consequently, even an administrator who is motivated to use AI may rationally revert to familiar non-AI practices when technological access imposes excessive friction. Adediran et al. (2025) similarly identified inadequate infrastructure and high acquisition and maintenance costs as prominent barriers among Nigerian secondary-school principals. More recent Nigerian evidence on school leadership readiness also indicates that inadequate infrastructure, unreliable electricity, high data costs and insufficient institutional support can prevent school leaders from converting awareness into meaningful AI readiness. The convergence of these findings across Nigerian contexts strengthens the interpretation that the problem is not peculiar to the administrators in the present study but reflects wider structural conditions surrounding AI adoption in Nigerian education.

The 80.7% reporting inadequate AI training is equally important because it almost matches the infrastructural challenge reported most frequently. This suggests that capacity and infrastructure are mutually reinforcing constraints. Training without infrastructure may produce knowledge that cannot be practically exercised, while infrastructure without training may produce technological capacity that is poorly utilised. The more fundamental policy implication is therefore that AI readiness should not be approached through isolated workshops or technology procurement alone. Capacity-building must be accompanied by opportunities for administrators to practise AI-supported tasks within authentic administrative contexts. The UNESCO (2024) competency framework similarly conceives AI competence as something that develops progressively through acquisition, deepening and creation, rather than through one-off exposure.

Institutional and governance challenges also deserve emphasis. Almost seven in ten respondents reported limited institutional support (69.5%) and lack of clear institutional policies (68.7%), while 66.7% reported limited awareness of ethical guidelines. These figures indicate the emergence of what may be described as an institutional governance gap: administrators are being exposed to technologies whose use may have significant implications, but the organisational rules governing that use have not developed at the same pace. Yan et al. (2024) emphasise that transparency, privacy and responsible implementation are central to the practical and ethical adoption of LLM-based technologies. UNESCO (2023) likewise stresses the need for coherent institutional and policy responses to generative AI. The present findings suggest that responsibility for AI governance cannot reasonably be placed entirely on individual school administrators when institutional rules, training and technical support are themselves limited.

Interestingly, resistance to adopting new technologies was the least frequently reported challenge, although it was still substantial at 59.8%. This is analytically useful because it challenges a common explanation that low AI utilisation is primarily a consequence of unwillingness or resistance among educational personnel. In the present study, structural barriers were more frequently reported than attitudinal resistance. The problem therefore appears less to be that administrators categorically reject AI and more that the conditions for meaningful adoption remain inadequate. This interpretation is consistent with recent Nigerian research showing that school leaders can demonstrate awareness or positive attitudes towards AI while simultaneously facing inadequate infrastructure, limited professional development and weak institutional support. The distinction between *willingness* and *capacity* is consequently essential to understanding the findings.

Relationship between AI Literacy and AI Utilisation

The hypothesis test provides an important integrative finding. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between AI literacy and AI utilisation for evidence-based administrative decision-making ($r = .642$, $p < .001$, $N = 249$). The direction and magnitude of the relationship indicate that administrators with higher levels of AI literacy tended, within this sample, to report higher levels of AI utilisation. The squared correlation ($r^2 \approx .412$) indicates that approximately 41.2% represents the shared linear variance between the two composite measures. This is a substantively meaningful association and provides empirical support for the proposition underlying the study that AI literacy is related to the capacity to employ AI in administrative decision-making.

The finding is theoretically coherent with the broader literature. Sperling et al. (2024) conceptualise AI literacy as encompassing the knowledge, practical skills and professional judgement required for meaningful engagement with AI. Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025) similarly argue that effective AI-assisted administrative decision-making depends upon a division of labour in which AI provides computational and analytical support while educational leaders exercise interpretation and accountability. The relationship observed in the present study therefore makes conceptual sense: an administrator who understands AI capabilities, limitations, prompting, evaluation, bias and privacy is better positioned to determine when an AI output is useful, when it requires verification and when it should not be used. AI literacy can consequently be understood not merely as a prerequisite for operating an AI system but as a gatekeeping competence that determines the quality and appropriateness of AI utilisation.

However, the correlation should not be interpreted causally. The research design is descriptive-correlational and cross-sectional; therefore, the result establishes association rather than demonstrating that increasing AI literacy will necessarily produce a corresponding increase in AI utilisation. Moreover, both variables were measured through the same self-report questionnaire, meaning that shared measurement tendencies may contribute to the observed association. The result should consequently be interpreted as evidence of a meaningful relationship rather than proof of a causal mechanism. Nevertheless, the strength of the relationship is sufficiently substantial to justify further investigation using regression, structural equation modelling, experimental professional-development interventions or longitudinal designs.

More importantly, the correlation should be interpreted alongside the descriptive findings rather than in isolation. The administrators simultaneously demonstrated low AI literacy (M = 2.89) and low AI utilisation (M = 2.30). This means that although literacy and utilisation move together positively, the general level of both constructs remains below the study's criterion. The implication is that the relationship exists within an environment of limited overall capability. It would therefore be inappropriate to conclude that simply increasing exposure to AI tools would resolve the problem. The challenge is to develop the *quality* of literacy required for responsible utilisation while simultaneously addressing the institutional and infrastructural conditions that make such utilisation feasible.

Integrated Interpretation of the Findings

Taken together, the findings reveal a coherent pattern that can be described as a capability, practice, infrastructure discontinuity. At the capability level, administrators possess some awareness of AI and recognise its potential usefulness, but their critical competencies remain underdeveloped. At the practice level, they acknowledge the importance of human judgement but do not consistently translate this acknowledgement into verification, bias detection, privacy protection and expert consultation. At the utilisation level, AI has not yet become deeply embedded in evidence-based administrative decision-making. At the contextual level, unreliable infrastructure, insufficient training, financial constraints and weak institutional governance constrain the translation of individual capability into organisational practice.

This pattern also provides an important refinement of the conceptual framework underpinning the study. AI literacy should not be regarded as a simple independent variable that mechanically produces utilisation. Rather, the findings suggest a conditional pathway: AI literacy creates the cognitive and professional capacity for AI use; responsible-use practices determine whether that capacity is exercised safely and critically; and institutional conditions determine whether the resulting capability can be enacted consistently. Although the present study did not statistically test responsible use as a mediator, the descriptive pattern is compatible with such a mechanism. The gap between awareness of human judgement and actual professional-judgement practices is particularly suggestive of a mediating process that future research could test empirically.

Ultimately, the findings indicate that the central challenge facing school administrators in Jigawa State is not simply whether they have encountered artificial intelligence, but whether they possess the epistemic authority, professional competence and institutional conditions required to govern its use. This is a more demanding conception of AI literacy than basic familiarity with digital tools. It positions the AI-literate administrator not as a passive consumer of machine-generated information but as a critical intermediary between computational output and institutional judgement. Such a conception is consistent with UNESCO's human-centred approach, the symbiotic leadership model proposed by Dai, Thomas, and Rawolle (2025), and the growing literature that treats AI literacy as a multidimensional professional capability rather than a narrow technical skill. The evidence from the present study therefore supports a shift from asking whether school administrators *use AI* to asking whether they can interrogate, contextualise, verify, govern and responsibly integrate AI-generated information into consequential administrative decisions. That distinction is fundamental to the development of genuinely evidence-based AI-supported school administration.

Conclusion

The study concludes that artificial intelligence has not yet become a sufficiently established component of evidence-based administrative decision-making among school administrators in Jigawa State. Although the administrators demonstrate some awareness of AI and recognise the importance of human judgement, their overall AI literacy remains low, particularly in the critical competencies required to evaluate AI-generated information, identify bias, formulate effective prompts and understand privacy implications. More

importantly, the findings reveal a gap between recognising responsible AI principles and consistently practising them. Responsible-use practices were generally low, suggesting that awareness of the need for human oversight does not automatically translate into systematic verification, bias detection, confidentiality protection and professional consultation.

The study further concludes that the low utilisation of AI for evidence-based decision-making is not attributable solely to individual deficiencies. It reflects the interaction of limited AI competencies with substantial infrastructural, financial, professional and institutional constraints. Poor Internet connectivity, inadequate training, unreliable electricity, high data costs, limited access to digital devices and weak institutional support collectively restrict the ability of administrators to translate AI literacy into sustained administrative practice. The significant positive relationship between AI literacy and AI utilisation ($r = .642$, $p < .001$) nevertheless demonstrates that stronger AI literacy is associated with greater utilisation. Taken together, the findings suggest that meaningful AI integration in school administration requires more than providing access to AI tools; it requires the simultaneous development of AI competence, responsible-use practices, institutional governance and enabling technological infrastructure. This human-centred orientation is consistent with UNESCO's position that AI competencies should strengthen human agency, ethical responsibility and critical judgement rather than displace professional decision-making.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study recommends that:

1. Jigawa State education authorities should institute continuous, practical AI-literacy training for school administrators, focusing particularly on prompt formulation, output verification, bias detection, privacy, ethical use and critical evaluation of AI-generated information.
2. Schools and education authorities should develop clear institutional guidelines for responsible AI use, specifying approved applications, confidentiality requirements, verification procedures, human-oversight responsibilities and circumstances in which AI-generated information must not be used independently.
3. Government and relevant education authorities should prioritise digital infrastructure, particularly reliable Internet connectivity, electricity supply, affordable Internet access and adequate digital devices, as these were the most frequently reported barriers to AI utilisation.
4. AI should be integrated into administrative professional-development programmes through authentic decision-making tasks, enabling administrators to practise using AI alongside school records, official documents and professional judgement rather than treating AI training as purely theoretical.
5. Schools should establish mechanisms for ongoing monitoring and evaluation of AI use, including periodic assessment of administrators' AI competencies, responsible-use practices and actual utilisation, so that training, policy and institutional support can be adjusted according to emerging needs.

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