

# EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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PROMOTING THE STUDY AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING





# International Society for Educational Planning

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# EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

A JOURNAL DEDICATED TO PLANNING, CHANGE, REFORM, AND  
THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 24

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With Deepest Regret and Sympathy!

In Memory of  
**Dr. Mary Chandler**

President of  
International Society for Educational  
Planning  
2015-2016

## In Memoriam

### **Dr. Mary Chandler**

1948-2016

Dr. Mary Chandler, President of the International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP), passed away on November 13, 2016, at her home. Mary was a long-time member of ISEP and was elected president at the ISEP Annual Meeting in October 2015 in Baltimore.

Mary and her family immigrated from Hungary to the United States in 1956 during the height of the communist revolution, settling in Ft. Wayne, Indiana.

Mary was a graduate of Indiana University, Emory University, The University of Georgia, Georgia State University, and Kennesaw State University Coles College of Business. She was a classroom teacher, middle school assistant principal, middle and high school principal, and consultant for the Georgia Teacher Evaluation Program at Georgia State University. She served as an academic professional at the University of Georgia before coming to Kennesaw State University. She was also a certified managerial coach.

Her research interests included coaching educational leaders, facility planning, school business administration, school finance, law, ethics, and international education.

During her time with ISEP, Mary was known for her warm personality, her passion for educational planning and for being a true professional. During her short reign as President of ISEP, her leadership style was authentic, collaborative, and inspirational. In addition, Mary was most willing to challenge herself and others in order for ISEP to carry out its mission.

In their book *Leading with Soul*, Bolman and Deal (2011) offer the following about effective leadership: *the essence of leadership is not giving tangible things or even inspirational visions. It is offering oneself and one's spirit* (p. 122). Dr. Mary Chandler will be missed, especially by those of us in ISEP who had gotten to know her so well. But, her spirit will carry on and for that, ISEP will be much better off.

Dr. Peter R. Litchka  
Vice-President  
International Society for Educational Planning  
December, 2016

## **Special Publication Announcement**

The Executive Board of the International Society for Educational Planning passed a resolution in its 2016 Annual Conference governing the publication of Educational Planning as follows:

1. Educational Planning, the official publication of International Society for Educational Planning, will be published for four issues per year.
2. Starting from the second issue of Educational Planning in 2017, the journal will be published online and will be available on the website of the International Society for Educational Planning.
3. Hard copies of the journal will continue to be printed for the issue authors and for all the library/institution subscribers.

## From the Editors

This particular issue of Educational Planning presents articles relating to both the K-12 and the higher education planning issues in four countries in the world: Canada, Nigeria, Jamaica and the United States. The educational planning concerns are also diversified ranging from overseas college campus planning to faculty involvement in strategic planning in higher education. It also covers equity issues of educational facilities and wastage of educational resources.

Thompson's article examines the attitudes and perspectives of members of faculty towards strategic planning activities of their institutions in Jamaica. The findings of the study suggest that faculty members can be persuaded to participate in strategic planning activities provided they are satisfied that the process is structured and purposeful and is not merely done out of formality.

Johnson's paper considers the challenges of establishing a university branch campus based on the literature surrounding American branch campuses' successes and failures. A conceptual model for planning, implementation, and monitoring is developed for those universities considering exporting their brand and academic programs abroad.

Earthman's article addresses a school facility equity issue in Canada where children of parents whose first language is French are provided schooling in rental facilities or obsolete school buildings. The parents filed a complaint that students in rental facilities are discriminated because long range planning is not possible. There are serious questions raised by the suite regarding the equity of the Ministry of Education actions.

Akinsolu's paper investigates wastage rate in selected public secondary schools in Nigeria with particular reference to educational planning implications. Findings from the study reveal that repetition was the major source of wastage in the sampled secondary schools. Recommendations were made to avert the alarming rate of wastage within the educational system.

Authors of this issue have alerted us with different educational planning issues that are happening in many countries in the world. We have much to learn from these educational planners who have developed strategies to meet with the challenges of these planning issues. They have offered us with live samples of case studies in educational planning.

Editor: Tak Cheung Chan

Associate Editors: Walt Polka and Peter Litchka

Assistant Editor: Holly Catalfamo

January 2017

## ABOUT THE AUTHORS

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*Glen I. Earthman* possesses forty years' experience in the field of education at all levels and thirty years of specialized experience in the educational facilities planning arena at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. He has authored six books on the subject of educational facilities and served as the first Director of the National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities. He continues a schedule of teaching and research in the field of school facilities specializing in the relationship between school building condition and student and teacher health and performance.

*M. Amanda Johnson* is a Ph.D. student researching higher education in international contexts at the College of William & Mary. Prior to beginning her Ph.D., Johnson worked on higher education capacity-building projects in Haiti, Senegal, Iraqi Kurdistan, and Saudi Arabia at Virginia Tech. Likewise, Johnson has over 12 years of experience as an educator and program manager in international higher education. Johnson earned her MA in TESOL from Eastern Michigan University.

*Canute Thompson* is a Leadership Coach and Certified Management Consultant and Lecturer in the School of Education, Department of Government, at the Mona Campus of the University of the West Indies. Dr. Thompson holds a PhD in Educational Administration and Leadership and postgraduate and professional training in Management. His publications include: *Locating the epicentre of effective (educational) leadership in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (2015)* and *Leadership re-Imagination: A primer of principles and practices (2013)*.



# AN EXPLORATION OF FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN AND ATTITUDES TOWARD STRATEGIC PLANNING IN THEIR INSTITUTIONS

CANUTE S. THOMPSON

## ABSTRACT

*This study examined the attitudes and perspectives of members of faculty towards strategic planning activities of their institutions. The study was conducted across four tertiary institutions and had a targeted sample of one hundred lecturers. A total of fifty-three (53) lecturers responded. The instrument used was a self-designed questionnaire consisting of thirty-five items, twenty-six (26) of which were on a Likert scale and the other nine focused on demographics. The study found that 75% of faculty members either agreed or strongly agreed that they are involved in strategic planning activities, while 66% agree or strongly agree that the process is meaningful. The study found a correlation of .563 between the variables 'involvement' and 'meaningful'. Two factors, namely 'use of insights from previous planning activities' and 'holding faculty members accountable for deliverables' (in relation to the strategic plan) accounted for 67.1% (45.8% and 21.3% respectively) of the variation in the data, while a third factor which contributed significantly to the variation in the data relating to the meaningfulness of the process accounted for 10.1% of the variation in the data. The findings of the study suggest that faculty members can be persuaded to participate in strategic planning activities provided they are satisfied that the process is structured and purposeful and is not merely done out of formality. The findings further suggest that among the ways by which the leadership of the institution can signal to faculty that the strategic planning process is to be taken seriously are by the involvement of the leadership in the planning process and the holding of faculty members accountable for deliverables. The study has implications for how strategic planning activities are undertaken and suggest that the credibility of strategic planning activities and the plans they generate, rests largely on what they in fact accomplish.*

## INTRODUCTION

Tertiary institutions are characterized by a certain level of looseness in their operations arising in large part from the culture of academic freedom for which higher education is known (Messah & Mucai, 2011). Vroom (1984) goes even further by suggesting that higher educational institutions are also characterized by vagueness and a tendency toward anarchy.

The level of academic freedom is sometimes expressed in indifference or lack of interest shown by faculty towards non-academic activities, including leadership of committees and engagement in strategic planning activities of the institution. Despite the ethos of academic freedom, the involvement of faculty in the strategic planning process is critical given the crescendo of criticism against public tertiary institutions of rising costs and declining quality as claimed by Immerwahr (2004) and Symonds (2003).

This study seeks to examine the attitudes and perspectives of faculty members towards the overall strategic planning process and implementation of the strategic plans of their institutions. The study also focuses on faculty members' perceptions of the extent of their involvement in the exercise, and their assessments of what makes the planning process and the plans they generate, credible and valuable.

The thrust of some educational institutions to engage in strategic planning is taking place in a context of a tendency towards anarchy, wherein faculty members are often indifferent towards the process. Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) contended that an academic revolution has taken place in higher education in the past half century. This revolution, they suggest, is marked by transformations unprecedented in scope and diversity, triggered by factors such as globalization. Globalization, while serving as a catalyst for innovation, has also created increased inequity, global compression, and thus more intense competition. These factors have, in turn, resulted in mass demand, growth in service industries and the knowledge economy and, as a consequence, greater pressure for survival on many tertiary institutions, both public and private.

## **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Bradford (2001) suggested that aligning everyone in the organization with the strategic direction of the organization is one of the most important things the leadership of an organization can do beyond formulating and implementing great strategies. Li, Guohui and Eppler (2008) emphasize the need for engaging employees at all levels in the organization in the strategic planning and implementation process, noting that one of the major reasons strategic plans fail is due to lack of sufficient engagement. This view is supported by Stanleigh (n.d.) who lists five factors that are critical to the success of strategic plans. Heading that list is 'engagement'. The other four factors are communication, innovation, project management, and culture. These five factors are in part corroborated by Arasa and K'Obonyo (2012) who in using correlation analysis found that there was a strong relationship between strategic planning and the performance of an organization. The lesson here is that a properly managed strategic planning process which is engaging and supported by a culture of accountability results in improved organizational performance.

Extracting the benefits from a strategic planning exercise is not a simple and straightforward process. Many organizations which invest heavily in strategic planning fail to realize the desired outcomes as Kaplan and Beinhocker (2003) observed. Mintzberg (1994) ridicules the strategic planning process arguing that real strategy is not made in board rooms and as such is not a formal process, and appears to imply that this is one of the possible reasons many organizations fail to extract the benefits from the exercise.

The foregoing views are shared by Martin (2014) who contends that one of the errors organizations make is that of seeking to make strategic planning an exercise that seeks to place the organization in some kind of comfort zone rather than positioning the organization's chances of success in an unpredictable and complex environment. Martin (2014) even suggests that placing 'strategy' and 'planning' side by side is contradictory. Similar views have been expressed by a number of contributors, including Bassett (2012) who describes the notion of 'strategic planning' as an oxymoron.

Jamaica's tertiary institutions have adopted the practice of focused engagement in strategic planning, and perhaps as a result of an incipient or defined consciousness of the complexity of the activity, there has been insufficient engagement of faculty in the strategic planning and implementation process. As a result of this limited engagement the sustainability and success of the plans developed by these institutions are threatened. Given the dependence of tertiary institutions in Jamaica on government grants (which are mainly spent for salaries) and the dependence of private institutions on tuition payments, there are not enough resources available for development. Thus strategic plans are often not funded and bright ideas remain ideas for periods that are longer than is desirable, resulting in loss of enthusiasm for, and interest in, the strategic planning process. In addition to the problem of insufficient engagement, the changing landscape of tertiary education has created conditions that necessitate that even Government-supported institutions gain and maintain market share, in order to remain economically viable.

## **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The study seeks to understand the attitudes and perspectives of faculty members towards the strategic planning and implementation process in their institutions as well as their attitudes to the plans and the planning process. The purposes of this undertaking are:

- (a) To find out the extent of involvement of faculty in the strategic planning and implementation processes of their institutions
- (b) To understand what motivates faculty members to participate in the strategic planning and implementation process
- (c) To explore the perspectives and attitudes of faculty towards strategic planning activities in their institutions
- (d) To explore what insights tertiary institutions (and other organizations) may glean from the perspectives and attitudes of faculty members towards strategic planning.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research will seek to answer the following questions:

- (1) To what extent are faculty members involved in the strategic planning and implementation activities of their institutions?
- (2) How meaningful do faculty members find the strategic planning and implementation process?
- (3) What are the perspectives and attitudes of faculty towards the strategic planning activities of their institutions?

## SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted across four (4) tertiary institutions - one privately-owned university, one publicly-owned university, and two colleges that are publicly owned. Participants were selected at random. A determination was made that about one hundred lecturers drawn from at least four institutions would provide a fairly good indication of the mindset of the general population.

## SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The assessment made by faculty members of the tertiary institutions concerning the extent of their involvement in the strategic planning activities of their institutions, as well as the level of meaning they derive from their engagement, help to shape their perspectives on strategic planning as an activity of their institutions. These assessments of the level of involvement in strategic planning activities, the depth of meaning derived, and the attitudes and perspectives they spawn, as related by faculty, can provide some important clues and reminders about the nature, purpose and impact of strategic planning and its use in tertiary educational institutions.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGIC PLANNING

Drucker (1954), perhaps the most well-known authority on strategic planning in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, defines strategic planning as a process of thinking through the issues facing the organization in order to optimize the benefits that can accrue to the organization. Drucker (2002) revisits the foundations of his basic arguments laid out over half a century ago and reiterates the futuristic orientation of strategic planning arguing that in order for organizations to be able to exploit the changes of the future and turn them into opportunities for the enterprise, executives need to develop a deep understanding of the realities facing the organization.

Ansoff (1970) conceptualizes strategic planning as the process of seeking a better match between a firm's products or technology and its increasingly turbulent markets. Ansoff's (1970) indelible mark on the practice of strategic planning is seen in the continued use of the SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis for which he is a major architect.

Ansoff's (1970) basic view that strategic planning is about matching resources with requirements of the market, is supported by Cook (1995) and Wendy (1997). Cook (1995) locates strategic planning on a path that moves from a defined mission to objectives, strategies, and then action plans. The crafting of these elements is supported by internal and external analyses, which include an assessment of the competition in ways akin to a SWOT analysis. Wendy (1997) explains that strategic planning is the process of developing and maintaining consistency between the organization's objectives and resources and its changing opportunities. Bryson (2011) argues that strategic planning must be linked to leadership, stakeholder involvement, the budget process, system redesign, and performance management.

Nickols (2016) catalogues perspectives and definitions of strategy and strategic planning as advanced by various authorities from 1962 to 1996, starting with Chandler's *Strategy and Structure*. Nickols (2016) shows that while there are some differences in what each authority advances as the meaning of these concepts, there are key areas of consensus. One area of consensus is that *strategy* and *strategic planning* are not one and the same but the latter takes elements of the former into

account. The other key area of consensus is that strategic planning involves determining an organizational mission, setting goals, allocating resources to support goal attainment, and monitoring results.

Thompson and Strickland (1996) suggest that strategic planning is a process of reviewing the nature and purpose of an organization's existence, taking account of the external environment in order to determine what kind of business the organization should be in and establishing clear objectives to be pursued in support of that determination of the organization's *raison d'être*.

Supporting the general thrust of the positions advanced above, Arasa and K'Obonyo (2012) conclude that strategic planning, in its general and basic understanding, is a process of selecting organizational goals and strategies, determining the necessary programs to achieve specific objectives en route to the goals that the organization has set itself, and establishing the methods necessary to ensure their attainment.

## THEORETICAL REVIEW

Li, Guohui, and Eppler (2008) found nine different factors that affect strategy implementation. They divided these nine factors into three categories soft, hard, and mixed factors. *Soft factors* are people-oriented variables which include the executors of the strategy, the communication activities as well as consensus about and commitment to the strategy. *Hard factors*, on the other hand, they identify as *institutional* variables which include the organizational structure and the administrative systems which would inform the way in which the strategy was developed and articulated. *Mixed factors* are embedded in the strategy formulation process which contains hard and soft factors. One of the critical variables in the strategy formulation process, which produce the mixed factors, is the relationships among different units/departments. The issue of soft, hard, and mixed factors provides insights into the findings of Salazar-Clemeña and Almonte-Acosta (2007) who found that engaging faculty in the affairs of the institution, even in core functions such as research – particularly in higher educational institutions that do not have a strong research culture – requires effort and incentives.

The issue of faculty involvement in strategic planning as illustrated by soft, hard and mixed factors of Li, Guohui, and Eppler (2008) intersects with the concept and practice of distributed leadership (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). According to Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond (2004) a distributed leadership perspective recognizes that there are multiple leaders in the organization. These leaders must all be brought into the decision making process and in doing so the organization must take account of their varied interests and capacities of the leaders as well as the various ways in which to engage them. (Harris & Spillane, 2008; Spillane & Camburn 2006).

The importance of emotions and people engagement, and the applicability of soft, hard, and mixed factors, are also at play in the work of Jacob and Hawkins (2009) who in a study of ten Chinese universities, highlight the critical importance of strategic planning among higher education institutions (HEIs). China has the world's largest education system and gives strategic planning activities an exceedingly high priority. Jacob and Hawkins (2009) point out that Chinese HEIs are surrounded by, and interact with, a local and global environment, which is virtually everything outside of the boundaries of the campus. The key elements of these strategic planning activities, according to Jacob are organizational *strategy*, institutional *culture*, and hard and soft *technology* – *with hard referring to*, all physical characteristics such as buildings, computers, and laboratories and soft technologies to all human resources, institutional knowledge, senses, and everything that exists inside of the individuals.

## Positions

Messah and Mucai (2011), in a study examining factors affecting the implementation of strategic plans in government tertiary institutions in Kenya, appear to capture the cynicism some stakeholders in the tertiary community feel about the activity, noting that while institutions were always engaged in planning there was never really anything strategic about the process as the planning has always been the traditional one merely following the government's five year planning cycle. They note further that it is common knowledge that government's five year planning cycles

mostly involved adjusting plans for inflation and political changes especially to accommodate the whims of the ruling regime.

The observations by Messah and Mucai (2011) concerning the routine nature of strategic planning in the universities are shared by Paris (2003) who indicates that strategic planning in American universities grew out of the budget exercises in America in the 1950's. Mintzberg (1994) notes, however, that by the mid-1960s and throughout the 1970's strategic planning at the university level took on the same fervor and importance as it did in large corporations. The consciousness among faculty of American colleges and universities about the need for strategic planning, and their involvement in same, continued to varying degrees throughout the 80's and 90' and into the 00's and beyond, as confirmed by Keller (1983) and Bryson (1988) and Jurinksi (1993) all cited by Paris (2003). It is not to be concluded, however, that all American universities were actively engaged in strategic planning. Indeed some universities, particularly those that continued to do well, never saw the need to engage in strategic thinking and planning until the ferocity of market competition was seen on the horizon.

It is noteworthy that in Kenya, the importance of strategic planning in education is emphasized at the tertiary and secondary levels. Chemwei, Leboo, and Koech (2014) in examining the factors that impede the implementation of strategic plans in secondary schools in Kenya, observe that despite the evidence of the existence of strategic plans in learning institutions in Kenya, the greatest impediment to the successful use of these strategies has been failure by institutions to implement them. With increasing competition from private schools, the need to become adept at plan implementation is an urgent matter, they argue.

Most tertiary (or higher educational institutions) in Jamaica have engaged in the development of strategic plans but what is unknown are the extent of faculty involvement and the attitudes that faculty have towards this exercise. This research seeks to establish both the level of involvement of faculty in the strategic planning exercise and their attitudes to, and value they place on it.

## **Underlying Theory**

The underlying theory that informs this research is that unless there is system-wide faculty involvement in the strategic planning exercise then the plans that emanate from the exercise are likely to be ineffective or even stillborn. The converse of this assertion, therefore, is simply that the likely effectiveness of the strategic planning exercise is dependent heavily on extensive faculty participation. Within the context of academic cultures of freedom as articulated by Messah and Mucai (2011), and a tendency towards anarchy as suggested by Vroom (1984), the key question becomes, 'how do we get faculty involved in the strategic planning process given their vital importance to the exercise and its outcomes?'

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **Research Design**

This research employs an exploratory design. Not much is currently known about the level of faculty participation in, and attitudes to, the strategic planning processes in Jamaican-based tertiary institutions. According to Cuthill (2002) an exploratory design is used to conduct research about a problem when there are few or no earlier studies to refer to or rely upon to predict an outcome.

The literature suggests that faculty participation in strategic planning has increased over the last three to four decades; but the literature is not generally categorical about the level of participation and there is no indication of the attitudes of faculty toward the exercise.

This study, therefore, seeks to explore what is the 'state of play' or 'lay of the land' in relation to the level of involvement of faculty in Jamaican tertiary institutions to the strategic planning processes in their institutions and their attitudes to the process. The insights from this study will be used to inform further interventions designed to investigate probable causes and propose possible solutions to challenges identified.

## Sample

The participants were randomly selected using a convenience sampling technique of contacting faculty at tertiary institutions with which the researcher was familiar. Convenience sampling is a specific type of non-probability sampling method that relies on data collection from population members who are conveniently available to participate in the study. Leedy and Omron (2010) reiterate that no sample size is perfect and Krejcie and Morgan (1970) had long ago suggested that the larger the population the smaller the nominal size of the sample. Krejcie and Morgan suggested that a sample of just fewer than 400 would be representative of a population of 1,000,000 and over. The faculty population of tertiary institutions in Jamaica is less than 10,000, thus using the guidelines above a sample of 40 would be about adequate.

A total of 53 lecturers out of a desired sample of 100 constitute the sample of the study. The age cohorts of the sample as well as the number of years they have been working as lecturers are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

**Table 1**

*Age Cohorts of Members of Sample*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 20 - 30 years	6	10.9	11.3	11.3
31 - 40 years	14	25.5	26.4	37.7
41 - 50 years	21	38.2	39.6	77.4
51 - 60 years	11	20.0	20.8	98.1
Over 60 years	1	1.8	1.9	100.0
Total	53	96.4	100.0	
Missing System	2	3.6		
Total	55	100.0		

**Table 2**

*Number of Years of Lecturers*

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Five years or less	16	29.1	30.8	30.8
6 - 10 years	14	25.5	26.9	57.7
11 - 15 years	7	12.7	13.5	71.2
16 - 20 years	11	20.0	21.2	92.3
Over 20 years	4	7.3	7.7	100.0
Total	52	94.5	100.0	
Missing System	3	5.5		
Total	55	100.0		



The sample comprised 60% females and 40% males. Of this total 75% were lecturers and the other 25%, senior lecturers. Forty-three (81%) of the respondents work in public institutions while the other 10 respondents (19%) work in a private institution.

### **Data Collection Instrument**

Data were collected using a self-designed instrument (see Appendix). The instrument consists of twenty-six items on a 5-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”. The points on the scale did not represent values but simply a numerical representation of the chosen answer.

Grace-Martin (2008) comments on the question of using Likert scales data in parametric statistical procedures that require interval data, such as Linear Regression, ANOVA, and Factor Analysis, and notes that questions of whether this approach is legitimate arise. Grace-Martin (2008) asserts that despite being made up of numbers, a Likert scale item is in fact a set of ordered categories. This view is supported by Jamieson (2004) who maintains that as ordered categories, the intervals between the scale values are not equal, thus any mean, correlation, or other numerical operation applied to them would be invalid. On the other hand Lubke and Muthen (2004) contend that while technically the Likert scale item is ordered, using it in parametric tests is valid in some situations.

Grace-Martin (2008) proposes some solutions that are designed to address the concerns of those who question the appropriateness of using Likert scales in the context being used in a study such as this. These solutions include the use of a minimum of a 5-point scale with the underlying concept being continuous, and ensuring that strong results are produced before making claims. These strong results are measured, among other ways, by using stringent alpha level, like .01 or even .005, instead of .05. All of Grace-Martin’s (2008) proposed standards are met by this instrument as well as the results.

### **Instrument Reliability and Validity**

The instrument used in this study was designed by the author. The instrument was benchmarked against another instrument that was developed, critiqued by a panel, revised, and piloted-tested twice and further revised, and used by the author in another study. In developing the current instrument the standards outlined by Drost (2011) and Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) and Nunnally (1978) which emphasize internal consistency, coverage, and balance among the items / factors in the instrument were taken into account. The items in the instrument reflect the focus of the conceptual understanding of strategic planning as advanced by Ansoff (1970) and Drucker (2002) Kaplan and Beinhocker (2003) and Bryson (2011) and Thompson and Strickland (1996). The correlations found in a number of the analyses demonstrate the level of internal consistency of the instrument. The instrument was long enough to cover a range of important elements (Nunnally, 1978), but not too long to bore the respondent, (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991).

The issue of the validity of the instrument revolved around *external validity* and *construct validity*. The size and scope of the sample provided the level of representativeness to create external validity and thus to support the generalizability of the findings. The requirements for *construct validity* were satisfied by capturing and describing behaviours in the items that reflected important elements of strategic planning, not merely planning in general. The distinction between strategic planning and planning in general, is critical as was discussed above. Trochim (2006) points to the importance of ensuring that a concept or idea is translated into a functioning and operating reality.

### **Data Collection and Analysis Procedures**

The instrument was administered electronically (using a Google facility) and in hard form to a local contact. Access was gained to the sites through formal request made to the principal or president and the relevant forms were completed as was required by one institution. Those using the electronic method accessed the instrument via a link. Those who used the hard form completed forms and returned them via a local contact (research assistant). All responses remain anonymous. Data were entered into Excel then exported to SPSS where they were analyzed using SPSS V 21.

## RESULTS

### Research Question # 1 – Level of Involvement in the Strategic Planning Process

The first question that this research seeks to answer is: “To what extent are faculty members involved in the strategic planning and implementation activities of their institutions?” Approximately forty (40) respondents or 75% of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed that they were involved in the strategic planning activities of their institutions.

### Research Question # 2 – Meaningfulness of the Strategic Planning Process

The data show that 66% of the sample either agreed or strongly agreed that the Strategic Planning (SP) process was meaningful. A correlation of .563 was found between the variables, ‘*The SP implementation process is well-defined*’ and ‘*The SP process is meaningful*’. This correlation had a 0.01 level of significance and thus gives a strong indication as to why faculty are likely to give or not give attention to the strategic planning process.

A similar picture, obtains with respect to faculty members’ assessment of how their being assigned responsibilities under the plan correlates with the amount of meaning they derive from their engagement with the process. The correlation in this case is .459. The issue of the source of meaningfulness is further confirmed in a correlation of .774 between the variables ‘*the participation of faculty is valued*’ and ‘*contributions made by faculty about priorities are respected*’.

A further insight into what faculty members consider to be meaningful about the strategic planning process was found when the variables ‘*plan promotes collective responsibility*’ and ‘*plan has strengthened the institutions’ market position*’ where a correlation of .692 was found. A similar level of correlation, .689, was found between the variables ‘*plan promotes collective responsibility*’ and ‘*plan inspires confidence in the institution’s future*’.

### Research Question # 3 – Perspectives and Attitudes of Faculty towards Strategic Planning

The issues analyzed in this regard were (a) whether they were of the view that the plans took into account the external realities facing the institution and (b) what other considerations should be placed alongside the assessment of external realities. These findings show a correlation of .575. Faculty concerns about the alignment between their institution’s plans and their mission and vision, on the one hand, and their confidence in the future of the institution, on the other, were fairly strong producing a correlation of .658. Faculty members also expect that the head of the institution will show leadership of the strategic planning process as their confidence in the process is hinged thereon as evidenced by a correlation of .566 between the variables ‘*principal / president presides over strategic planning process*’ and ‘*plan inspires confidence in the future*’.

## DISCUSSION

The top three factors which account for the variation in the data are: (a) *Previous Planning Insights used in Planning Process*, (b) *Faculty held responsible for Deliverables*, and (c) *The SP Implementation Process is Fulfilling*. These three factors account for 77% in the variation in the data with the first accounting for 45.7%, and the other two for 21% and 10% respectively.

The data uncovered by this study reiterate some key issues about inclusive and distributive leadership (Spillane & Camburn, 2006; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004) as much as they do about meaningful strategic planning (Jacob & Hawkins, 2009). The findings also highlight the vital importance of taking account of the historical plans (Drucker 1954) the efforts that were made to deliver under those plans, the results of those efforts, and the level of accountability for delivery (Ansoff, 1970; Bryson, 2011; Wendy, 1997).

Topping the list of the most important issues that faculty members take into account when asked to participate in strategic planning activities is how much the organization has learnt from past efforts. This factor accounts for 45.7% of the variation in the data. The next most important item is accountability which accounts for 21.3% of the variation in the data. Accountability was also found to be an important quality in strategic management in the works of Thompson and Strickland (1996) and Arasa and K’Obonyo (2012) both of whom emphasize the setting of objectives. The location of



the third variable, which accounts for 10% of the variation in the data may be interpreted to mean that when there is due regard paid to the outcomes of past efforts and where there has been appropriate accountability, faculty members are likely to find the process fulfilling.

While tertiary institutions are characterized by a certain level of looseness in their operations, as suggested by Messah and Mucai (2011) resulting in low levels of participation of faculty members in activities such as strategic planning, the underlying reasons for the low levels of participation appear to be less related to the insularity that is typical of academic cultures and more related to the perceived or assessed demonstrated value of these activities and their outputs. The findings of this study suggest that faculty members perceive that among the weaknesses in the strategic planning processes of their institutions are issues such as insufficient use of insights from previous planning efforts and lack of accountability. Thus separate and apart from the issue of involvement in the strategic planning activities of their respective institutions, there is the issue of their perspectives on how well the strategic planning is carried out.

The need for organization-wide involvement in strategic planning exists in the best of times but is even greater when the external business environment in which the organization operates is 'hostile'. The landscape of tertiary education faces a hostile business environment. This hostility, as Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) suggest, requires that greater efforts be made to build a coalition of committed staff if the institution is to cope with the unprecedented challenges that have been triggered by factors such as globalization. Building a coalition of committed staff requires, as Salazar-Clemeña and Almonte-Acosta (2007) suggest, the provision of incentives in order to attract faculty members' interest in the affairs of the institution. Understanding what kinds of incentives will gain the attention and interest of faculty members is vital.

### **Retaining the Interest of Faculty**

At face value, being 'involved' could mean different things to different members of a faculty, so further exploration would be required. This was the focus of the second research question. In order to attract and retain the interest of faculty members in strategic planning efforts, there are at least three compelling incentives that should be considered. The first two may be described as incentives in relation to personal expectation. The first is in relation to the taking into account of their contributions in negotiating and deciding on the priorities of the plan and the second is accountability for deliverables. The third incentive, which I describe as process-related, arises from the institution's reputation in using insights from previous planning activities and thus showing that it is learning from past failings and successes. That this single issue accounts for 45.7% of the variation in the data suggests that a great weight of importance is placed on the matter of what the institution learnt and accomplished in relation to previous plans.

Faculty members saw a strong relationship between the sensitivity (responsiveness) of strategic plans to their external realities and the attention paid to, and insights gained from, previous plans. The fact is that while external realities undergo change, some issues remain relevant from one planning cycle to the next and thus the credibility of a subsequent planning exercise rests in part with how seriously the institutions take the lessons learnt from a previous planning activity, in the context of the previous and prevailing external realities (as well as other variables). The importance of this focus on the issues that face the organization has been demonstrated by (Ansoff, 1970; Bryson, 2011; Drucker, 1954, 2002).

Taking account of the contributions of faculty members in deciding on the priorities of the plan does not mean that every idea and suggestion is included in the plan but that a decision on inclusion or exclusion of every idea is arrived at through discussion, debate, and even negotiation.

The need to gain the attention and commitment of faculty members is an unavoidable responsibility of leaders of higher educational institutions as Bradford (2001) suggests. Capturing the attention of faculty requires, as this study has shown, a well-defined implementation process. The clarity and focus of the implementation process goes to the heart of meaning as shown by the correlation of .563. This capturing of the attention of staff involves the alignment of everyone in the organization with the strategic direction of the organization.

If there is going to be meaningful alignment there is need for a clear sense of the organization's personality and there also needs to be some stability in the organization's personality even as it seeks to remain flexible and adaptable. This stability rests within the organization's mission. Strategic planning is built around a mission and vision and is grounded in a set of core values. It is therefore instructive that respondents to the survey seemed to be of the view that confidence in the organization's future was closely related to how aligned activities are to the organization's mission.

Li, Guohui, and Eppler (2008) in discussing factors that affect strategy implementation identified nine such factors. Among the factors they identify are soft or people-oriented variables which include communication activities. They contend that the implementation of a strategic plan can flounder if issues such as the timeliness and content of communication are not carefully addressed. The issue of holding faculty members accountable for deliverables involves timely follow-up to ascertain whether agreed deliverables are on schedule, or checking-in to find out if problems are being encountered. The tone, timeliness, and focus of the inquiries are critical to the quality of response and the maintenance of motivation. I suggest, therefore, that an important dimension of exercising accountability is the quality of communication and in this regard the findings of this study would resonate with those of Li, Guohui, and Eppler (2008).

## CONCLUSIONS

The key lessons from the findings of this research may be summarized by attempting the final research question, which asks: *“What are the insights that senior management in tertiary institutions, and other organizations, can gain from the perspectives and attitudes of faculty members towards strategic planning?”*

The findings of the research have confirmed much of what is already in the scientific literature concerning the principles and processes of effective strategic planning. The following conclusions are being advanced:

- (i) Staff members should be presumed to have an interest in participating in the strategic planning activities of the organization
- (ii) The leadership of the organization needs to ensure that the strategic planning and implementation processes are well defined as these affect the meaningfulness of the undertaking.
- (iii) The contributions of staff members should be taken into account in determining the priorities of the strategic plan.
- (iv) Confidence in the strategic planning process is affected by two things, namely the extent to which insights from previous planning efforts inform current planning activities and the alignment of the plans to the mission of the organization.
- (v) The value and meaningfulness that a strategic plan is perceived to attract dependent on the extent to which team members are held accountable for deliverables under the plan.
- (vi) The head of the organization should assume leadership of the strategic planning process but should ensure that there is a sense of collective ownership of the process. Collective ownership is created when the contributions of staff are taken into account.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the foregoing conclusions the following recommendations are offered to leaders of organizations – both tertiary educational institutions and other organizations:

- (i) College and University administrators should pursue active steps to facilitate the involvement of faculty in the strategic planning and implementation processes of their institutions.
- (ii) Guidelines for operational plans should be clearly articulated to accompany the strategic plan with specific offices or individuals held accountable for implementation of the activities contained in the plan.

- (iii) Contributions of staff members should be meticulously documented and debate on these contributions should take place before decisions are taken concerning the items that are included in the final plan.
- (iv) A methodological framework for using the insights and experiences gained from previous planning efforts should be developed and those insights that are used to inform the most recent plan should be articulated and highlighted.
- (v) There should be demonstrable alignment between the objectives of the Strategic Plans and the institution's vision and mission
- (vi) Deliverables should be assigned to team members who should be held strictly accountable for outcomes.

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## APPENDIX

### Survey Questionnaire

Dear Colleague: I am undertaking a research for the purposes of acquiring a better understanding of the perspectives of faculty members of tertiary institutions in relation to the strategic planning and implementation processes of the organization. I would be most grateful if you could contribute to this endeavour by completing this questionnaire. You will remain anonymous and your views will not be identifiable with the institution with which you work.

Regards,

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Management Consultant and University Lecturer

**Please use the key below to answer the questions that follow**

**SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree**

	SA	A	U	D	SD
(1) Faculty members are involved in the strategic planning activities					
(2) The strategic planning process adopted by the institution makes adequate provision for the involvement of faculty members					
(3) The strategic planning process is carefully and thoughtfully structured					
(4) Participation in the planning process is very meaningful					
(5) The institution expects that faculty should participate in the strategic planning process					
(6) Senior management of the institution values the participation of faculty in the strategic planning process					
(7) Contributions made by faculty about the priorities of the institution are treated with respect					
(8) The senior management of the institution makes it clear that every faculty member has a role to play in the implementation of the strategic plan					
(9) The implementation process for the strategic plan is generally well defined					
(10) Responsibilities for implementation aspects of the strategic plan are assigned to faculty members					
(11) The process of implementing the initiatives of plan is fulfilling					
(12) The strategic plans prepared by the institution reflect an understanding of the internal challenges facing the institution					
(13) The strategic plans prepared by the institution reflect an understanding of the external realities with which the institution must grapple					
(14) The plans are flexible and responsive to the needs of the changes that arise in the course of implementation					
(15) The institution has benefited from the level of attention it has paid to the strategic planning process					
(16) Lessons learnt from previous planning exercises have been used to inform subsequent planning activities					
(17) The strategic planning process is taken seriously by faculty members					
(18) Whenever faculty members fail to show for planning activities efforts are made to engage them					
(19) Faculty members are held responsible for the deliverables assigned to them under the strategic plan					

(20) There is periodic review of the institution's performance under the plan					
(21) The principal / president provides leadership in the planning process					
(22) The plan is aligned to the mission and vision of the organization					
(23) The plan inspires confidence in the future of the organization					
(24) The institution has been able to strengthen its market position as a result of the quality of its strategic planning					
(25) My professional competencies have been expanded as a result of my involvement in the strategic planning process					
(26) The plan promotes collective responsibility					

**Please answer the following questions.**

(27) Your age group is:

- (a) 20 – 30 [ ]
- (b) 31 – 40 [ ]
- (c) 41 – 50 [ ]
- (d) 51 – 60 [ ]
- (e) 60+ [ ]

(28) You have been a lecturer for:

- (a) 5 years or less [ ]
- (b) 6 – 10 years [ ]
- (c) 11 – 15 years [ ]
- (d) 16 – 20 years [ ]
- (e) Over 20 years [ ]

(29) You have been a lecturer at your current institution for:

- (a) 5 years or less [ ]
- (b) 6 – 10 years [ ]
- (c) 11 – 15 years [ ]
- (d) 16 – 20 years [ ]
- (e) Over 20 years [ ]

(30) Your highest professional qualification is:

- (a) Bachelor's Degree [ ]
- (b) Master's Degree [ ]
- (c) Postgraduate Cert in Education [ ]
- (d) Doctorate [ ]

(31) You are:

- (a) Male [ ]
- (b) Female [ ]

(32) You are employed to this institution:

- (a) Full-time [ ]
- (b) Part-time [ ]

- (33) The institution is:
- (a) Publicly owned [ ]
  - (b) Privately owned [ ]
- (34) Your position is classified as:
- (a) Lower Management [ ]
  - (b) Middle Management [ ]
  - (c) Senior Management [ ]
- (35) You are a:
- (a) Lecturer [ ]
  - (b) Senior Lecturer [ ]
  - (c) Associate Professor [ ]
  - (d) Professor [ ]



# AMERICAN UNIVERSITY BRANCH CAMPUSES ABROAD: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR STRATEGIC PLANNING

M. AMANDA JOHNSON

## ABSTRACT

*The topic of international branch campuses saturates the literature; however, little attention has been paid to the university strategic planning process for institutions setting up programs abroad. Many US universities have considered opening a branch campus in order to meet the demand of globalization and break into new student markets. Currently, the US leads efforts in establishing its brand of higher education in countries like the United Arab Emirates, Singapore, China, and Qatar. This paper considers the challenges of establishing a branch campus based on the literature surrounding American branch campuses' successes and failures and develops a conceptual model for planning, implementation, and monitoring for those universities considering exporting their brand and academic programs abroad.*

## INTRODUCTION

For the past 20 years, the world has seen an explosion of American universities setting up business on foreign soil to offer degrees and programs to students abroad. According to Lane, co-director of the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT), the number of branch campuses grew appreciably in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Miranda, 2014). "I define the 2000's as the gold rush period." he says. "In 1995, there was 15 to 16 [branch campuses]; now, there are about 200 that we know of." (Miranda, 2014, p.14) Kinser and Lane (2012) define the international branch campus (IBC) as:

An entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; engages in at least some face-to-face teaching; and provides access to an entire academic program that leads to a credential awarded by the foreign education provider. (p. 2)

American universities are not the only constituents in the field of transnational education—Australia, the United Kingdom, France, and India have also exported their institutions elsewhere. However, the US continues to lead the way with over 50 branch campuses throughout the world (C-BERT, 2016).

Likewise, many countries are taking advantage of the opportunity to expose their students to the globalization of higher education – chiefly the Arab States. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has the largest concentration of international branch campuses than any other country, hosting roughly 30 foreign post-secondary institutions (Becker, 2010). The greatest importers of branch campuses aside from the UAE are China, Singapore, Qatar, and Malaysia (C-BERT, 2016). American higher education institutions also see an opportunity to "attract students and parents willing to spend extensively with the objective of attaining a name-brand education" (Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014, p.122). By exporting American education, US universities are able to export their brand internationally and encounter new funding sources and research opportunities.

This paper introduces a strategic planning conceptual model for those US institutions considering the establishment of an IBC or for those already developed in another country. Moreover, specific examples of successful and unsuccessful IBCs are referenced and used to bring light to the challenges many IBCs face in operating abroad. The conceptual map, based on Allison and Kaye's (2005; 2015) strategic planning process model, is described and discussed in detail. The model works to support an IBC in being sustainable and successful in the face of the many challenges with which it will be confronted abroad. Further, the model highlights the need for a greater understanding of the cultural context and region where the IBC exists.

## TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Within the last decade, "universities with strong brand names (e.g., New York University and Paris-Sorbonne) have realized that establishing branch campuses overseas is an effective strategy toward expanding their student base and strengthening their brands globally" (Franklin & Alzouebi,



2014, p. 127). Characteristically, a government, or a government-backed foundation of the country hosting the IBC, funds in part or wholly the branch campus. As is the case in the Arabian Peninsula, facilities and buildings have been built for the IBCs, while in other countries the campuses can be basic, “resembling office complexes rather than academic institutions” (Altbach, 2010, p.2). Qatar and the United Arab Emirates have taken small desert villages and turned them into “academic” or “university” cities, dedicated to brick and mortar foreign universities. Education City, in the state of Qatar, was established as “an elite higher-education center with financing estimated at more than \$1 billion from a foundation controlled by the emirate’s royal family” (Bollag, 2006, p.A47). Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU), Cornell, Texas A&M, Georgetown, and Carnegie Mellon have exported degree programs to Qatar. In Dubai, at its International Academic City, IBCs “enjoy 100% foreign ownership, no taxes, and 100% repatriation of profits” (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012, p. 630). Likewise, Singapore invested over \$50 million into Johns Hopkins’ IBC (Jaschick, 2006).

Recently, South Korea launched the Incheon Global Campus in the Incheon Free Economic Zone, where George Mason (GMU) opened Mason Songdo in March 2014, despite their setback in the UAE. GMU signed a five-year contract with the Korean government granting them \$1 million dollars for planning the project and free use of facilities and utilities (McDonald, 2014). Similar to GMU’s contract with the UAE government’s Ras Al Khaimah (RAK) Foundation, Mason Songdo will be expected to be self-sustaining by 2019. The Incheon Global Campus hosts three American universities, thus far—Stony Brook University (SUNY Korea), Mason Songdo, and The University of Utah Asia Campus.

## **THE GLOBAL EXPANSION OF AMERICAN IBCS**

For over 90 years, American higher education institutions have pioneered cross-border education. Recognized by some as the earliest known IBC, the New York institution of Parsons School of Design opened its doors in Paris in 1921 (Miranda, 2014). Researchers of transnational education debate whether Parsons School in Paris represented an IBC, granting degrees to foreign students, or a location that housed American study abroad students. Johns Hopkins, according to Verbik and Merkle (2006), is the second oldest American post-secondary institution to open a branch campus abroad. Johns Hopkins launched its School of Advanced International Studies in Bologna, Italy, to provide graduate programming in the 1950’s. In the 1970’s, five other US universities opened IBCs abroad in Greece, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and Switzerland (Lane, 2011).

The US military has also provided impetus for US universities to internationalize. US universities have opened programs on the bases of the military to offer academic opportunities to civilians and the enlisted. As in the case of Panama, military and civilian personnel had access to studies at Florida State University and other schools while serving at the US-owned Canal Zone since 1933. However, as the universities were located on US-owned land, they were not considered an IBC. Once the canal reverted to Panamanian ownership in 1999, Florida State officially converted to an IBC – due to its now being located on foreign territory (Lane, 2011). Florida State Panama continues to offer undergraduate and graduate degrees to Latin American students.

The USA-Japan Committee for Promoting Trade Expansion, headed by Senator Gephardt of Missouri in 1986, led to over 100 American universities sending teams to Japan to investigate the possibility of branch campuses there (Chambers & Cummings, 1990). Temple University was the first to offer a graduate program in English as a Foreign Language to fulfill the need for an education program for English language teachers in the area. Now the Temple program offers 10 full-time undergraduate degrees, an executive MBA and law degrees. Ultimately, over 35 US colleges and universities set up IBCs in Japan hoping to take advantage of the Japanese economy and academic market (Chambers & Cummings, 1990). However, due to the difficulty of finding English proficient students, establishing their brand, and the economic troubles in Japan, only Temple remains from this group (Hénard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012). The Japan hosts US IBC—Lakeland University was established in 1993 and recognized as a branch campus by Japan’s Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2005 (Lakeland University-Japan, 2016).

Following the inception of the World Trade Organization and in response to the General Agreement on Trade for Services (GATS), adopted in 1995, American higher education became a liberalized service and regulated by trade rules (Knight, 2006). The global development of the ‘knowledge economy’ led the US universities to believe that their survival was dependent on the “globalization of its organizational form (emulating private sector enterprise) and the globalization of their services” (Peters, 2004, p. 74). During this time period, Harvard began developing branch campuses in Cyprus and the UAE and VCU launched their campus in Qatar. Between 1995 and 2001, American universities opened over 20 IBCs (C-BERT, 2016).

The bubble of international students studying in the US burst after the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001. The attacks on the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon in D.C. triggered an extreme tightening of F-1 student visa regulations in the US. In light of the attacks, US universities had to find a novel way of attracting international students. IBCs became a way for US universities to find a way around visa issues by going directly to the source. Between 2006 and 2009, global IBCs increased by 43%, to a total of 162 campuses (Becker, 2010). Today, American universities continue to be the number one exporter of higher education. With over 48% of IBCs representing American universities, students abroad are heavily exposed to US-style higher education (Becker, 2010).

For a US institution to have a sustainable branch campus abroad, multiple factors must be considered in the strategic planning process. Altbach (2010) cites several reasons why many IBCs are untenable: the difficulty in attracting home campus professors to the IBC; providing an education equivalent to the home campus; and the conditions in the host country. Further, not meeting enrollment targets and the difficulty for local students to meet home campus admissions requirements may spell the doom of an IBC. George Mason University closed their Ras Al Khaimah campus in the UAE after only three years in operation due to setting too high enrollment numbers initially and the UAE government-backed RAK Foundation’s unwillingness to subsidize the underperforming campus (Lewin, 2009). Likewise, Singapore invested over \$50 million dollars in Johns Hopkins biomedical research program, but pulled funding for the program because Hopkins had neither recruited sufficient graduate students nor sent senior professors from Baltimore to Singapore as promised (Jaschik, 2006). Many American institutions, however, have been successful in sustaining their IBC abroad due to importing a niche program, being aware of the local needs, and/or having brand recognition. New York University has opened several campuses abroad (Shanghai and Abu Dhabi) and VCU’s Qatar campus has survived for almost 20 years offering an art program to local students.

### **MODEL FOR IBC STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS**

The strategic planning process for an American IBC can, in many ways, mimic the home institution’s process, with several clear caveats. Stanfield (2014) points out that the IBC has to decide between adapting or replicating home campus’ policies and planning. Where some policies can be replicated, the strategic planning process cannot. It is essential for planners to have an in-depth understanding of the funding partners’ expectations and a profound awareness of the local/host country market. Further, the IBC must have the ability to respond to an uncertain environment, an essential element to the planning process for those institutions operating in a foreign context, in order to avoid a crisis management mode that may be too late to help an IBC survive (Taylor & de Lourdes Machado, 2006). The model (Figure 1), informed by Allison and Kaye’s (2005; 2015) strategic planning process, varies notably from strategic planning at the home campus in the first steps of the process.

The first step in the planning process is to have a deep awareness of the host country’s market, customs, and human resource needs—the rest of the planning process should flow from this step. Shams and Huisman (2012) caution IBCs from attempting to port American cultural values and beliefs about the superiority of US education into the planning process. Moreover, understanding the local human resource needs will help the IBC choose appropriate and viable programs for in-country students and maintain a competitive advantage over other providers in the field (Shams & Huisman, 2012).

Based on the failure of several IBCs due to uncertainty surrounding the funding partner's expectations, understanding the point of view of the funding partner is an essential first step in the planning process. Before any goals or objectives can be set, the IBC must be clear on what the funding agency for the project foresees for the future. Another important element of the first steps in the planning process is to gauge internal and external stakeholder engagement in the IBC. This means not only buy-in from home campus stakeholders (faculty, administrators, Board of Visitors, alumni, and state government), but also the in-country stakeholders, like local students, local government, funding agencies, and local academic staff and faculty. The ability to draw upon the home campus faculty to teach at the IBC characterizes one of the largest challenges in IBC sustainability, according to Altbach (2010). Franklin and Alzouebi (2014) also recommend that IBCs not merely port their mission and vision from the home campus to the international context. They suggest that the IBC clearly align their mission and vision with that of the government or private investor committed to the IBC's success and sustainability in the country, thus rounding out the first steps of the process.

During the strategic analysis phase, an environmental analysis of the home campus and the IBC is critical. Here, part of the scan would be to ensure the ability to meet home campus institutional accreditation and local accreditation standards. Similarly, the IBC should analyze the local political, economic, social, and educational environment and be aware of the IBCs strengths weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in that country. Issues of security in the Arabian Peninsula—host to the majority of US branch campuses—have arisen due to IBC proximity to unrest and terrorist organization movements in the Middle East. In 2002, after George Bush received Congressional approval for military action against Iraq, VCU's branch campus in Qatar hired extra security to patrol the campus and faculty housing (Marrow, 2002). Likewise, the IBC should be aware of their fellow IBC competitors in the country or region as this will affect the program objectives.

Analyzing the viability and sustainability of the IBC's program portfolio is another factor in the process. After having acquired an in depth understanding of local human resource needs, opening or closing degree programs, setting new enrollment targets, or admissions requirements based on this information will help to develop the plan's goals and sustainability strategies. Many IBCs close due to setting enrollment targets too high and then unable to attract students to their programs. Analyzing the capacity of both the home campus and the IBC's organization will help the IBC to plan for challenges the program may face in the future. As stated, one of the biggest sustainability issues is attracting home campus faculty to the IBC and relying on expatriate 'revolving door' faculty. Altbach (2010) asserts that "as governments, accreditors, overseas partners, and students become savvier about their educational goals, they may demand the 'real thing' in the branches" (p. 2). In GMU's case, they opened an engineering program and then were forced to rely on faculty and administrators who had no affiliation with the home campus. This is especially true of faculty in the sciences, who are focused on research or see overseas teaching as inhibiting promotion (Altbach, 2010).

Franklin and Alzouebi (2014) point out that the issue of leadership in the strategic planning process of the IBC cannot be overlooked. Having leadership that is not only alert to issues at the home campus, but also cognizant of local educational customs will help the sustainability of the institution. Bryson (2011) characterizes interconnected effective leadership as one that understands the context and the stakeholders involved, drives and champions the process, and fosters collective leadership. Ensuring the involvement of both home campus leadership, IBC leadership, and in-country leadership is a key ingredient to the successful creation of goals and implementation of the strategic plan.

In the last two phases of the planning process, the IBC should develop appropriate, sustainable, and measurable goals for the campus and be sure to communicate those goals to the entire organization and the funding partners. Moreover, the IBC develops an implementation plan and manages the transition of the strategic plan. Here the IBC identifies the resources each goal and step will require. "Resources for implementing a strategic plan include: people, time, space, technology, and funding" (Hinton, 2012, p. 12-13). Due to the uncertainty of the environment in many of the countries and regions where US IBCs exist, an annual operation plan would be highly beneficial for constituents of the branch campus. Like most higher education institutions, monitoring of the strategic plan should be continual.

## CONCLUSION

Due to the push towards internationalization of higher education in the US and the competitiveness of the global knowledge economy, American universities are looking to IBCs as an innovative way to attract international students, provide global opportunities for faculty and students on the home campus, and stay at the forefront of the higher education market. Though US universities continue to maintain supremacy in global higher education, many other countries are beginning to export their higher education systems, as well. Eventually, the IBC market will be oversaturated, as is the case in the Emirates. Several US IBCs have closed due to the inability to hit enrollment targets and fulfill contractual obligations to be self-sustaining.

Ultimately, the university cannot anticipate every challenge that may arise. In the case of GMURAK, GMU may not have been able to foresee the RAK foundation removing funding midway through the contract. Nor by porting a niche program can a university guarantee success, as was the case of Johns Hopkins medical program in Singapore. However, the US has already exported its higher education to the main consumers abroad. New IBC initiatives can study past developments in the Arab States to have a clearer understanding of funding and recruitment issues. The biggest challenge new IBC developments may face is building and sustaining in areas that have not imported US higher education before. Due to the rise of BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) nations in the global economy, cross-border education is gaining ground in some of those countries (i.e. China has 27 branch campuses) (C-BERT, 2016). Also, we are already seeing universities opening in developing or emerging economy nations, as well. Currently, Malaysia hosts 9 branch campuses (none are from US institutions) (C-BERT, 2016). The challenges involved in opening an IBC in those countries remains to be seen.

Establishing and then successfully maintaining an IBC is a risky endeavor, laden with pitfalls. Those that do, like Carnegie Mellon and New York University, either have international name recognition to attract top students that can meet admissions requirements, or open small programs that fulfill a niche market, like VCU's art school and Georgetown's international studies program in Qatar. For a university to be able to extend itself abroad and take advantage of a new revenue stream and new students, as well as be sustainable and competitive, it must understand the local context. By including a detailed understanding of the local context and local human resource needs and the expectations of the funding partners, while also being responsive to change and uncertainty, an IBC can prepare strategic initiatives that help sustain the institution successfully abroad.

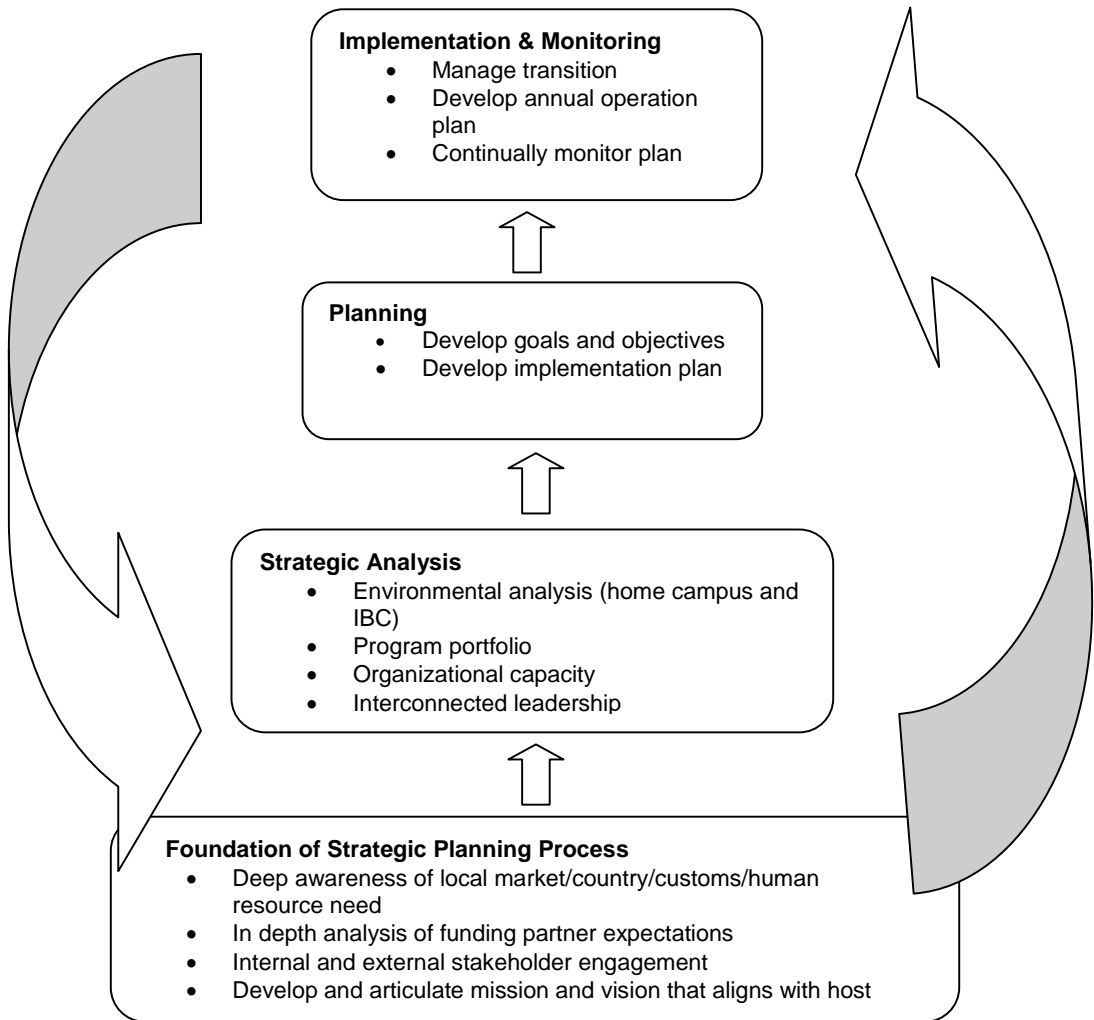
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Figure 1

Model of Strategic Planning Process for US International Branch Campuses





# PLANNING FOR SCHOOL BUILDING EQUITY: THE BRITISH COLUMBIA EXPERIENCE

Glen I. Earthman

## ABSTRACT

*Under Section 23 of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, children of parents whose first language is French are provided separate schools and promise the same educational opportunity for these schools as the English Language schools. Because the Francophone schools have been established long after the common schools for all students in the Province have been, the Council Scholaire Francophone (CSF), which is the governing body of the Francophone schools has had a struggle finding adequate school buildings. Many of the Francophone students are in either rental school facilities or school buildings that have been abandoned by the English Language schools because they were obsolete. The parents complain that because the students are in rental facilities, long range planning is not possible. Other complaints were that the schools were old and did not look attractive and were not large enough to fully implement the curriculum. These problems and concerns lead to the filing of a complaint that the students of French Language parents were being discriminated against by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education employed an expert witness to examine the complaints of the parents to see if there was a valid claim that the complaints were related to educational outcomes of students. The expert witness found that none of the parental complaints were related to research indicating the complaints would influence student educational outcomes. The initial legal complaint was adjudicated in favor of the Francophone parents and was then appealed to the British Columbia Supreme Court by the Ministry of Education. The appeal has not been settled as yet, but there are serious questions raised by the suite regarding the equity of the Ministry of Education actions.*

## INTRODUCTION

The British Columbia Government provides a dual enrollment system of schooling to educate their children and youth. This guarantee provides for a system of common schools for all students where English is the primary language in usage. The second educational system is for students whose primary language is French. Both educational systems are governed and funded by the Ministry of Education of the Provincial Government. Under Section 23 of the Canadian Clause of Rights and Freedom, French Language schools are maintained and financed by the Ministry of Education just as all other government sponsored schools are funded. French language schools are to receive equal financing and educational opportunity

Parents whose primary language in the home is French have the option of sending their child to the Francophone schools free of charge. In all areas and regions of the British Columbia Province a Francophone school is located to serve these students. Francophone schools serve students from kindergarten through high school graduation.

## COUNCIL SCHOLAIRE FRANCOPHONE

The Conseil scolaire Francophone De La Colombie-Britannique (CSF) is the governing board for all Francophone schools in the Province. The CSF serves as the administrative and fiduciary agent for these schools. It has the responsibility for not only governing the schools, but also to find suitable housing for all Francophone students. This has not been an easy task because of the manner in which the Francophone schools have come into existence after Anglophone schools have already been established. This fact causes the CSF to obtain school housing that may not be in the best interests of the school children, at least in the opinion of the CSF and CSF parents.

Capital funding of the province is structured in such a manner that the capital projects of the CSF are prioritized along with all other capital requests from all of the school districts in the entire province. The CSF forwards their requests for capital needs to the Ministry of Education along with all of the other school districts in the province. The Ministry of Education places these requests into the list of capital needs for the entire province. The CSF requests are prioritized according to the

formula utilized to provide a reasonable relief to all school districts. The prioritization of these requests is based upon an equitable response to the needs in each school district. Because of this formula for prioritizing capital projects, the CSF claimed the Ministry of Education ignored the unique needs of the Francophone schools in starting the French language school system.

One part of this inequity is that the CSF may not expropriate land for a school in spite of the fact the English language schools have that power. Additionally, the CSF claim the system for expending capital funds takes into account irrelevant factors by weighing the CSF's capital project funding needs against those of the English language schools. Further, the English language schools have the ability to benefit from surplus capacity in the schools and thereby profit from leasing vacant school buildings or even disposing of school facilities (Second Further Amended Notice of Civil Claim, British Columbia Supreme Court, p 6).

Although the distribution of capital funds are on an equitable basis of need, there can be a difference in the capital needs of an existing school district and a school entity, such as the CSF, might have in starting an educational system without school facilities. Nevertheless, the distribution of capital funds is made based upon the prioritization formula utilized by the Ministry of Education. Whatever thought that was given to the needs of an educational enterprise that is just starting operation without existing buildings did not seem equitable to the CSF.

As a result, the CSF had to obtain facilities by either purchasing abandoned school buildings or renting facilities. In the case of the abandoned school buildings, the buildings were thought obsolete for educational purposes by the English Language School Board. Some of the rented facilities have been in school buildings not in use by the public school district. In one case, the CSF school has been forced to rent space in an operating public school building. The latter have been classroom rentals in buildings where the English Language School has their operations. This situation is very unsatisfactory to the Francophone students in that the shared common core facilities are not readily available when the Francophone students need them. In addition the close association with English Language students does not bode well for a French Language school emphasis. Neither method of securing facilities has been successful according to the parents of students attending these schools. For these reasons, the CSF and CSF parents have felt they have not been treated fairly by the Ministry of Education in try to secure adequate school facilities for their children and filed suit in the courts to seek a remedy.

### **INITIATING A LEGAL COMPLAINT**

The issue of inequity in school facilities stems from a complaint filed by Conseil scolaire Francophone De La Colombie-Britannique and the Federation Des Parents Francophones De Colombie-Britannique, and is based on Section 23 of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms. That section allows for separate schools for first language French students and that promises the same educational opportunity for the Conseil Scolaire Francophone (CSF) administered schools as the English language schools have.

Although there are school catchment areas in every part of the Providence, the parents in only 14 catchment areas schools filed legal action against the Ministry of Education claiming inequity.

The parents and the CSF initiated legal action claiming their students were housed in inadequate school buildings. The resolution of the legal action according to the parents and CSF would be for the Ministry of Education to provide more than \$286 million in funding for new schools claiming inequity in facilities housing students.

### **PARENTAL COMPLAINTS**

As far as the legal suite, there was always the question of whether or not the parental complaints had any relationship to the educational outcomes of students. Of the total complaints (284) only 16 could conceivably be related to student educational outcomes. Close examination of these sixteen complaints, however, indicated that none of the complaints were even remotely associated with research findings that related to student educational outcomes.



For instance, one such complaint stated that the school site had an animal smell that was very distasteful. The school was located on a site next to a working farm and apparently fumes from manure and animals were carried onto the school site by wind.

Several other complaints were that the school building was not located centrally to the student population, which resulted in long bus rides for students. With the small Francophone student population spread over a large catchment area it would be natural for some students to have to ride the bus for a long period of time.

Parents also complained that the school facility housing the student body was a rented building and as a result parents and administration could not plan for future expansion of the Francophone program. Apparently the lease agreements were not long term which prevented the faculty and administration from formulating long term plans. Granted that short term leases do not facilitate long term educational program plans, there is no research to indicate that students housed in rented or leased facilities perform less well than if they were housed in facilities owned by the administration. Some parents also complained that the school signage was not prominent enough for people to see, while another complaint was that the buildings were old. Parents further complained that the school was not large enough to fully implement the curriculum. Other complaints were that there was no library space and there was no cafeteria in the school. The school is unattractive was another complaint with several schools.

### **INITIAL JUDGMENT**

In the initial trial of this legal action, the courts sided with the parents and CSF claiming inequity and ruled that relief should be given to the parents and CSF. The judge indicated that the rights of the Francophone parents under Section 23 of the Clause of Rights and Freedom had been breached and that the Francophone students were not housed in adequate facilities. (L'Association des parents de l'école Rose-des-Vents, August 20, 2013)

In the Supreme Court of British Columbia, No. S103975 of the Vancouver Registry, paragraph 41 indicates "Right holder parents under section 23 of the *Charter* also have the right to the public funds required to ensure the Conseil's school facilities allow it to offer a standard of education equivalent to that offered and anticipated to be offered to students attending English language schools in the catchment areas of the Conseil."(p.6) The Ministry of Education appealed the case to the British Columbia Supreme Court.

### **THE EXPERT'S REPORT**

To bolster their case, the CSF sought an expert's report on the influence educational facilities have upon student educational outcomes. The intent was to secure their position that school buildings do have an influence upon student learning and therefore inadequate school facilities were detrimental to the educational outcomes of the Francophone students. The CSF secured the services of Professor Lance Roberts at the University of Manitoba to prepare a report on the available research on the relationship between the condition of educational facilities and student educational outcomes.

The report Roberts (2013) prepared reviewed available research on the subject and concluded that the condition of the school building did in fact influence student achievement. Roberts also discussed the type of instrument utilized by researchers in assessing the condition of the school building. Roberts observed that the major problem with research on the relationship between school building condition and student achievement was the manner in which the school buildings were assessed.

He identified two different methods of assessing the condition of a school building. Roberts differentiated between the maintenance-type of instrument versus the mission-type of instrument. The former instrument measures all maintenance needs of a school building in order to help keep the building in good working condition. On the contrary, the mission-type of assessment instrument does provide the researcher with an assessment of those building elements that previous research has

indicated have an influence upon student achievement. The most important building elements or components that do influence is: complete control of the thermal environment, proper lighting, control of the acoustical environment, presence or absence of graffiti, proper furniture and equipment, and a sound building structure (Earthman, 2004).

The Roberts report was presented to the court and became part of the judiciary evidence to support the claims of the CSF and Francophone parents that the school building does influence student learning.

### **MINISTRY OF EDUCATION REPLY**

The Ministry of Education secured an expert witness to reply to the claims of the Francophone parents and CSF. The Ministry of Education asked the expert witness to develop a report detailing the research related to a relationship between school building condition and student achievement and to then determine if the complaints of the parents had any basis of research to back up their complaint. This methodology entailed the review of numerous data sources to develop a data base on relevant research dealing with the relationship between school building condition and student achievement. Data sources such as the three clearinghouses related to school facilities – National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities, the American Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities and the Educational Facility Clearinghouse, plus Google, EBSCO, and the Virginia Tech library were all explored to find relevant research findings.

The nature of all of the complaints was rather personal and dealt with how the school looked and did not really apply to educational attainment of students. The complaints were what parents had knowledge about, but did not address what should probably have been the main complaint about the buildings and student achievement.

The methodology used in determining if the parental complaint had standing and if the complaints were research based was a normative comparison to available research. On all complaints the experts looked for a research base to determine if the complaint had merit. When no research findings were available, the researchers provided an explanation as to this fact. Thus, the individual complaint was judged not to have a negative influence upon student educational outcomes. A report was developed on related research and then the individual complaints of the parents (284 complaints) were analyzed to determine if there was a research basis.

The report the expert witness prepared included the findings of 44 studies dealing directly with the relationship between school building condition and student achievement. The preponderance of the findings indicated a positive association between the two variables of building condition and student achievement. The conclusion of the report was that the condition of the school building does in fact influence student learning. Students in school buildings assessed as being in poor condition perform less well than students in buildings assessed as being in good condition. This conclusion supported the findings of Roberts in his report to the court.

### **Francophone Students Achievement**

The CSF maintains a website advertising the Francophone schools, the programs offered, locations of schools, and achievement results of students attending Francophone schools. The contents of the web report the progress of students on the achievement tests who are attending these schools. The expert witness accessed the website to ascertain how well students in the Francophone school perform. According to the CSF, as indicated by their presence on the CSF website, the following statements, among others, are provided to the public.

- \* Students who finish their secondary studies at the CSF receive at least two diplomas and sometimes three. This is two more than a student receives in the regular Anglophone program.
- \* All the courses offered in the CSF administered schools are approved by the provincial Ministry of Education, by the same token as the programs offered in other schools of the province. The qualifying exams are prepared by the Ministry and are rigorously administered to the students of the CSF administered schools, which offer exactly the same programs of study as the Anglophone public schools of the province.

\* However, an important point distinguishes CSF students: the grades determined by the Ministry indicate that students in the CSF are just as successful, if not more so, in the provincial exams as students in B.C. schools overall in a number of subjects, including mathematics, reading and writing.

\* The graduation rate for students in the CSF administered schools is between 85 and 89 %, which is some 10 % higher than the provincial average. This means that students who finish their secondary studies at the CSF administered schools have as much chance, if not more, than students from other schools in the province, to be accepted into the university of their choice. In addition, they have ready access to Francophone universities around the world. (<http://www.csf.bc.ca/informations/foire-aux-questions/reussite-scolaire-eng/> retrieved January 13, 2014)

These statements would indicate that in spite of the complaints of the parents, students in the Francophone schools do well on their achievement tests, even though the school buildings in which these students are located do not seem to provide the kind of learning environment that parents think is suitable for their children.

### **QUESTIONS FOR THE COURT**

The question the court had to address was the seriousness of the parent's complaints and the equity of the school facilities. But the real question seems to be the equity of the process of formulating a new school system and then housing the students in suitable facilities. How does an agency of the government go about providing adequate school facilities for a new school system within an existing school system? The question of how to house a new student body in an adequate building when none is available is the problem the court had to address.

Several questions are still not resolved. These questions center around the equity of the system used to provide the CSF with initial funds to adequately house the students. To try to establish a new school organization within an existing school system and then house it properly in any neighborhood is an extremely difficult task. Normally established neighborhoods do not have large tracts of land available upon which to place a new school building. Neither was there, in the case of the 14 catchment areas, vacant school buildings that were available to the CSF, unless the school building had been abandoned because the building was deemed obsolete. Further, buildings with a large square footage that could be converted to a school building were not readily available in established neighborhoods where students were located.

The problem is further complicated by the scarcity of students who would benefit from a Francophone school. The enrollments in the several Francophone school organizations vary greatly, but all student bodies are small. The smallest school organization serves 32 students in école de Permberton. The largest school organization, Viktor Brodeur, serves 695 students, K-12. None of the school organizations could be considered large. As result of the scarcity of French speaking children, these students have to travel long distances to the local school. In some cases students ride a school bus for over an hour. The long bus trip for students was a consistent complaint of parents.

The first question concerns the suitability of the facilities that are currently utilized by CSF to house the student population. None of the complaints actually stated that the school building was unsuitable for the education of students because of lack of thermal control, poor lighting, uncontrolled acoustical environment, unsuitable furniture and equipment, the presence of graffiti in the building and a structure that was not sound which are essential building elements necessary for successful student progress (Earthman, 2004). The complaints were of the nature of superficial complaints related to the parents being unsatisfied with the housing arrangement.

Complaints about rental facilities speak to the desire of parents and CSF to own their school. Somehow renting a school facility is deemed less desirable than owning the building in which the students are housed. There may be something to that argument, but the complaints do not relate to student educational outcomes. In fact, the CSF states on their web site that the Francophone students perform better on the provincial academic assessment than do students in the English Language schools. This fact cannot be used as evidence that the facilities utilized to house the Francophone students are not suitable for them. Apparently the facilities in which the students are housed do not hinder them in their educational outcomes.

Although there are some alternative ways to housing student populations in the absence of standard brick and mortar school buildings, none seemed to be employed by the CSF for whatever reason. Conversion of existing commercial buildings to school use is one such alternative. This alternative has been quite successful in other localities, such as the school district of Philadelphia (Philadelphia Public Schools, 1970). In all probability, there also may not have been any suitable buildings for educational conversion in the fourteen catchment areas of the Francophone Schools when they were initially established. Some of the Francophone schools in the 14 catchment areas were located in rural areas and there were no facilities that could be converted satisfactorily to educational purposes. In one catchment area the Francophone school had to rent facilities in an operating English language school. The school rented six classrooms and jointly used the support facilities. This arrangement proved unsatisfactory for the Francophone school.

The second major question centers on the method of acquiring suitable student housing. As stated earlier, there are normally no vacant school buildings in the community that can be used by the CSF to house a student body. Neither were there vacant commercial or religious buildings that can be easily converted to educational spaces. There were few options available to the CSF to properly house the Francophone students in all of the regions of the Providence.

### **Questions for the Court**

The legal action and subsequent court decisions had to address the complaints of the Plaintiffs, but the court also had to address other questions. These questions concerned how to provide equitable, but separate, school facilities for a minority population of students within the frame work of an existing school system.

1. How does an agency of the government establish equity in the allocation of capital funds?
2. What are the rules for establishing a new school system within the bounds of existing educational organizations?
3. What should be the basis of equitable treatment when a new school system is organized?
4. How could the Ministry of Education have provided equality to both the Francophone and Anglophone Schools with limited resources in this situation?
5. Is there a way now to ameliorate the situation without the vast expenditure of funds requested by the CSF?

On September 26, 2016, the Supreme Court of British Columbia handed down its decision in this case. The most important court decisions that were handed down were the following:

The CSF has the jurisdiction pursuant to s. 23 of the Charter to establish a secondary school programme (for children age 14-17) in Whistler with heterogeneous instructional space for about 30 students (Conseil-scolaire francophone de la Colombie-Britannique v. British Columbia (Education) Page 1588).

Ecole Elementarie du Pacifique does not allow the CSF to offer a global educational experience that is equivalent to that in smaller elementary schools in SD-Sunshine Coast and proportionate to the facilities in larger comparator schools (Conseil-scolaire francophone de la Columbia-Britannique v. British Columbia (Education) Page 1587).

The Ministry's policy freezing CSF lease funding at 2014/14 levels is contrary to s. 23 of the Charter, and therefore of no force and effect (Page 1590).

The Ministry's policy of not funding Expansion Projects and evaluating the CSF's request for capital projects against those of Majority School Boards with greater capital resources than the CSF unjustifiably infringes s. 23 of the charter (Page 1590)

The Ministry's failure to collect information regarding the potential demand for minority language education in British Colombia.....constitutes an unjustifiable violation of s. 23 of the Charter (Page 1590).

To rectify the above abuses, the court requested the Ministry of Education to “create a long-term, rolling Capital Envelope to provide the CSF with secure funding to address its need for capital projects across the Province.” Page 1591)

The Ministry must also create policy or enact legislation to either resolve or ensure the Ministry’s active participation in the resilient of issues concerning the CSF’s need for space and the types of disputes that arise between the CSF and majority school boards (Page 1591)

Regarding the first decision about the authority to establish new Francophone schools, two other areas were designated for new schools. The second decision addressed the need for expanded existing schools. Seven other individual schools were named to be in such a condition. This meant that these schools would have to either find new locations other than what they now have or improve or enlarge the exist facilities of these school organizations.

The next three decisions relate to policies of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry previously apparently had a hands-off policy regarding the negotiation and approval of rental agreements. Now the Ministry must assist the CSF in such arrangements and must also provide assistance in resolving problems between the CSF and the local school board. Also the freezing of rental funds was declared unequal and the Ministry must cease doing this.

One important decision is that the Ministry can no longer evaluate the request of the CSF for capital project funding the same way that it does for the Majority schools. This is important for the CSF because their capital project funding needs are not exactly the same as those of the Majority schools, where the local school board has powers to acquiring sites and expanding their facilities that the CSF does not have.

Like most court decisions regarding school facilities, there is never an absolute winner. In most cases each party secured something, but not everything requested. The CSF initially requested a payment of \$286 million to provide new facilities for each of the 14 catchment areas in the legal action. This was not granted, so the Ministry was saved from addressing this sizeable financial demand on the Province. The CSF, on the other hand, did secure some financial assistance in providing more equitable school facilities and a secure stream of funding from the Ministry. The court stated the Ministry needs to establish a rolling Expansion Envelope to provide the CSF with a more secure funding stream. Lastly, the CSF received the assurance that the Ministry would be more proactive in its relations with the CSF in helping them secure rental agreements and in solving problems with the local school boards. Perhaps the most important request of the court is that the needs of the CSF would not be evaluated in the same manner as the Majority Schools.

Whether or not the decisions of the court will satisfy all of the wants and needs of both parties, only time will determine. Starting a new educational organization after one has already been established is a very unique problem for educators. How does one governmental agency provide parity to both parties with limited resources without disadvantaging either party is the question that educators confronted in this situation?

It is mere speculation to state that there might have been some bias in the policies of the Ministry of Education. If there was any bias, the court decision in some fashion tried to compensate for that. There might also be the belief that the Ministry did not have any prior experience in dealing with a separate educational organization and did not account for that in their policies and dealing with the CSF.

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# ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL WASTAGE IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN OLORUNDA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

A. OLATOUN AKINSOLU

## ABSTRACT

*Educational wastage is like a canker worm that has eaten deep into the fabric of our educational system. Over the years, educational planners, school administrators and educational agencies are concerned about how to reduce this state of educational system inefficiency. This paper investigates wastage rate in some selected public secondary schools vis a viz its causes and its implications on educational planning in Nigeria with particular reference to Olorunda LGA of Osun state. Two schools were purposively sampled using rural and urban dichotomy while stratified random sampling was used to select teachers and pupils of the two sampled schools. Data for the study were collected through the use of a questionnaire titled “Wastage Rate in Public Secondary School Questionnaire (WRPSSQ)” and was administered to the teachers and the students of the two sampled schools. Findings from the study revealed that repetition was the major source of wastage in the two sampled secondary schools. The implications of this study on educational planning were made vide conclusion and recommendations in order to avert the alarming rate of wastage within the educational system. This will ascertain that the expectations of all stakeholders in turning out graduates with minimal wastage in the school system is achieved and will enable students spend only the minimum number of years expected of them for secondary education.*

## INTRODUCTION

Education globally has been given adequate attention with many countries contributing much investment to promote the awareness of political and socio-economic development of individuals and the nation as a whole. The expectation of all concerned is that students within any school setting should stay for the minimum number of years expected for that level of education within the school system.

Nigeria educational system is financed from both tax money collectable and allocation from the Federal Government revenue, although each tier of government has power over specific areas of taxing fields. The federal, state and local government, out of the revenue generated, allocated some amounts to education for sustainability. Education is viewed as a good investment for national development. Hence, between 7.6 % and 9.9 % of annual expenditure is devoted to education by Nigeria government.

Secondary education is meant for children between the ages of 11 and 16 years. This level of education started in Nigeria as far back as 1859 with the founding of Church Missionary Society (C.M.S.) Grammar School in Lagos and later with the establishment of secondary schools in other parts of the country including Abeokuta, Calabar, Ibadan, Ijebu-Ode, and Ondo (Taiwo, 1983). Secondary education is the second tier of Nigerian educational system. The measurement of its performance must be viewed in terms of its stated objectives in the National Policy on Education. While the broad aims of secondary education are: preparing for useful living within the society and, preparation for higher education (National Policy on Education (NPE), 2013 revised), the objectives are:

1. To provide an increasing number of primary school pupils with an opportunity for education of a higher quality irrespective of sex or social, religious and ethnic background
2. To diversify its curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities and roles possessed by or open to students after their secondary course;
3. To equip students to live effectively in our modern age of science and technology;
4. To develop and project Nigerian culture, arts and languages as well as the world's cultural heritage;



5. To raise a generation of people which can think for themselves, respect the view and feelings of others, respect the dignity of labor and appreciate those values specified under our broad national aim and live as good citizens;
6. To foster Nigerian unity with an emphasis on the common ties that unite her in diversity;
7. To inspire students with a desire for achievement and self-improvement both at school and later in life (NPE, 2013).

Recent happenings in our secondary schools in Nigeria reveal that there are some elements of inefficiency in the school system as there is a gap between the expectancy and the actual output. Inefficiency of an educational system constitutes a sort of waste to the system (Nwankwo, 1981). The act by which a student repeats a class and spends seven (7) years instead of the six (6) student-year, implies an additional cost to the government and other duty bearers. Apart from this, the most devastating of all is for those students that completed the secondary schooling but failed to gain admission into the tertiary level. Some students drop out of the system before completion year. All these are termed as wastages within the system.

The poor quality and inefficient conditions of our secondary schools were affirmed by Yusuf and Sofoluwe (2014), and Obemeata (1995), as they all agreed that only a small proportion of secondary school products are qualified to enter the university in Nigeria. Also, Adeoye (1983) lamented on the outcry by parents and media over the decline in standards of operation of our educational system leading to the poor quality of student performance in West African Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examination Council (NECO), and Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (SSCE). What follow are their subsequent inability to secure gainful employment and admission into tertiary institutions at the completion of secondary schooling despite huge amount of resources invested into the educational system. Therefore, the purpose of this study to examine and analyze educational wastage in public secondary schools with particular reference to Olorunda Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun state, Nigeria.

## **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES**

Educational wastage implies the inefficient use of educational resources. Some of the noticeable signs of wastages include dropouts, repeaters, premature withdrawals, misguided types of education, non-employment of school leavers and even brain drain (Durosaro, 2012). According to Babalola, (2014), the term ‘wastage’ applied to education as an unfamiliar ring, and educationists may object to it as a depersonalizing of what is essentially an individual growth process. It comes from the language of economists and seems to liken education to industry, with capital invested in plant, and raw materials being processed into finished products.

Repetition and dropout rates are the commonly used parameters to measure educational wastage (Deribe, Endale, & Ashebir, 2015; Longe & Durosaro, 1986). According to then repeating a grade means utilizing more resources than allocated to a student and hindering the intake capacity of schools. Similarly, leaving a school (dropping) before completing a particular cycle/level of education is wastage in resources.

According to them, wastage in education indicates inefficiency of the educational system since an educational system is efficient when such system tries to reduce wastage to the barest minimum. Adigwe (1997), in his report on wastage, lamented that the poor conditions of secondary schools, such as poor teaching, poor motivation of teachers, lack of facilities and equipment have culminated into inefficiency in the system with students dropping out and repeating classes.

Akolo (1998) on the alarming rate of student failure in our secondary schools stressed that the root cause of failure in secondary schools stemmed from inadequately trained teachers and lack of needed instructional materials. This consequently contributed to the apparent poor students’ academic performance and reduction of graduation rates in public secondary schools in Nigeria. The above scenario confirms Eguridu’s position (2015) on the need to re-assess the mode of conduct of the Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (SSCE) in Nigeria so as to reduce wastage and improve the quality of the certificates and thereby promoting the efficiency of secondary education. This



corroborates Durosaro's (1985) opinion that the concept of efficiency in education generally, refers to the capacity of the educational system to turn out graduates with minimal wastage. It also agrees with that production efficiency of all educational investment can be measured by students' academic performance.

There are three broad categories of efficiency; we have the social efficiency, production efficiency and educational efficiency in education. Social efficiency primarily relates to the goals of the society to promote education. Production efficiency deals with utilization of resources in education. It is mainly concerned with how resources are combined to achieve stated objectives. Hanushek (2013) explains further that educational efficiency or internal efficiency is usually seen or measured in terms of pupil academic achievement, i.e. learning outcome.

A recent survey, situation policy analysis of basic education (UNICEF, 2011), reveals that the retention rate is lower in primary classes than in the upper classes while the drop-out rate is higher in the upper classes probably because the students are more matured and are in their adolescence, a period of storm and stress. The survey also reveals that wastage rate in Nigeria Basic Education system is about 17% between 2009 and 2010 on average. It is discovered that about 46.6% of the pupils who withdraws from the system are girls. In the same vein, data available on retardation and attrition rate in our secondary schools indicate that most secondary school students do not complete the six years program while the percentage of successful completers is very low in terms of meeting the requirement for transition into tertiary institutions and the world of work as secondary school certificate holders. In the same vein, Oyetakin (2011) opined that wastage in the education system is improved when more education outputs are produced using given education resources or fewer education resources. He further stressed that wastage or leakage in the system are draining the limited financial and material resources that go into the system as inputs for transformation process.

Yusuf and Sofoluwe (2014), in their study on wastage analysis in Ekiti state secondary schools in Nigeria, reported that admittance into senior secondary schools should be modified to enable the school to admit good and intelligent students who can cope with the secondary school activities so as to reduce and minimize repetition and drop-out rates which are indices of high wastage rate in the school system.

There are several causes of educational wastage. According to Akinsolu (2005), Matage, Kyalo and Shandrack (2015), the following are identified as major causes of wastage in education system

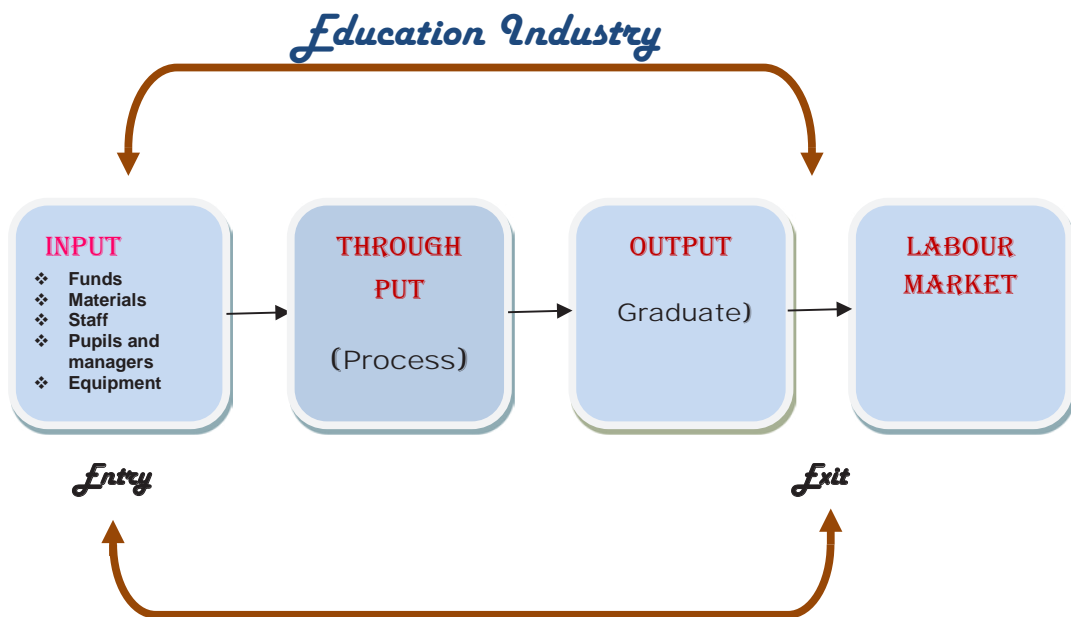
- The nature, ability and capability of students
- The nature of the schools
- The nature of the educational systems
- The socio- economic status of parents
- The resources available to education (merely teachers, equipment, etc.)
- The socio- physical environment

All these can be categorized under the following factors:

- School Factors
- Economic Factors
- Cultural factors
- Social factors

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: EDUCATION PRODUCTION FUNCTION**

The study is guided by the theory of education production function. Many scholars shared this view; such as Ezekwesili (2006), Donald Winkler and Lars Sondergaard (2008), Agboola and Adeyemi (2012) and Durosaro (2012). The concept of wastage in educational services within the context of this paper is stemmed from the fact that education is a product. The educational production function includes inputs, the process and the output. Therefore any realistic discussion on educational wastage must be viewed from production function perspectives as illustrated in the schematic diagram below:



**Source:** Ezekwesill (2006), *The Nigerian Educational System should simulate a manufacturing model.*

Secondary school system, like any other system receives inputs (raw materials) from its environment, converts or processes it and afterwards, discharges the output (products) to the environment from where the inputs are obtained. Educational production function is a mathematical construct that mainstreams economists and educational researchers in understudying education investments. It relates some measure of education output such as student achievement to the various inputs and the processes used in education.

In addition, Adepoju (2000) described the production function in education as the maximum level of outcome, possible from alternative combinations of inputs. He stressed further that school system consists of four major components: the inputs are pupils, teachers, facilities and funding; the procedure throughput is the processing stage; the student achievement is the output of schooling; the evaluation is the feedback. He further opined that wastage can occur only in three of the four components and these are the inputs, the throughput (process) and the output, while the feedback is the appraisal of the whole process. Oluchukwu (2011) stated that the measurement of efficiency of the school system involves queries on the inputs and outputs from education. The outputs of the educational system are graduated students. He further stressed that the educational efficiency can be measured by cohort analysis of the educational system. This can be achieved by the collection of the school's history of the group of students based on specific years traced through the educational cycle.

The above implies that any lapses in any of the aforementioned factors constitute wastage within any educational system. Education wastage is a crisis facing Nigeria secondary schools and even the rest of African countries. In his study on Wastage Rates in Kenyan Secondary Schools: A Case of Kathonzwani District, Makueni County (2005 – 2007 Cohorts), Mumina (2013) affirmed that educational wastage is a cankerworm in the education sector in Kenya which requires affirmative action from all stakeholders towards the development of mitigation strategies. Likewise, Gbadamosi (2014) reported on the alarming rate of attrition in Nigerian secondary schools which call the major attention of all key stakeholders especially the educational planners. This confirms educational

wastage as part of the political, socio-economic and educational problems which many countries in the world have been grappling with as the output from the system seems not to justify the inputs.

Educational wastage ((Akinsolu, 2005) can be defined mathematically (algebraically) as follows:

$$\text{(Wastage) } W_g^t = \frac{E_g^t - P^{t+1}}{E_g^t} \times 100$$

Where

$W_g^t$  refers to Wastage Rate in the year t (a particular year and in a particular class g)

$E_g^t$  refers to enrolment in year t and for class g while

$P^{t+1}$  refers to the number of students promoted to the next class g in the following year t .

Example: Computation of Wastage rate in Class 2 for 2010/2011 with enrolment of 450 students.

(Enrollment in Class 2 for 2010/2011) 450 - 380 (Students promoted to the next class for 2011/2012)

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$$\frac{450 - 380}{450} \times 100 = 15\% \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{(Repeaters and Dropouts)}$$

Wastage rate = 15%

### THE PROBLEM

Most nations in the world regard education as a form of social and private investment. Therefore all stakeholders of secondary education have invested in the system with the hope that all the inputs injected will ensure effective teaching and learning for quality assurance.

Quality assurance is the act of audit, reviewing the instructional program in an educational setting and getting convinced after critical examination/observations that what is expected has been done (Akinsolu, 2014). The present state of quality of education in most of Nigerian secondary schools has much to be expected. Many of the secondary schools' graduate outputs exhibit low quality education while the prevalence rate of students repeating and dropping out of the system calls for urgent attention.

Based on the aforementioned, this study is designed to investigate educational wastage in public secondary schools in Olorunda Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun state, Nigeria. The objectives of the study are:

- 1) To investigate the major sources of educational wastage in the selected sampled schools.
- 2) To investigate the proportion of wastage that could be accounted for viz-a-vis repetition, dropout and failure of students during the period of study.
- 3) To examine if there is any disparity between wastage rates of the two schools in this study.
- 4) To identify the major factor that could be attributed to the wastage indicators viz-a-vis, dropout, repetition and failures in the sampled schools

## **SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The significance of this study lies greatly in the strategic position occupied by education globally and the need to clarify the currently assailing problem in Nigeria. The gap between the expected school quality and the actual quality of output is large. The study also focuses on the need for continuous appraisal to guide educational planners and managers on the necessary actions needed to ensure that the school turns out its output with minimal wastage.

Secondly, this study will assist in identifying the efficiency level of secondary school system with particular reference to Osun State, Nigeria.

## **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following questions will guide the conduct of this study;

- 1) What are the major sources of educational wastage in the sampled schools as perceived by both the teachers and the students?
- 2) What proportion of wastage could be accounted for through cohort analysis with respect to Repetition (R), Dropout (D) and Failure (F) of the sampled schools (A & B) during the period under study?
- 3) What is the Cumulative Average Percentage wastage rate in the two sampled schools?
- 4) What are the student graduation and fail-out rates in SSCE of the two sampled schools regarding the cohort of students from 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 academic sessions?
- 5) What is the crude-cohort wastage rate and input /output ratio in the two sampled schools?
- 6) Is there any difference between the wastage rates of the two sampled schools?
- 7) What is the major factor that could be attributed to the wastage rate in the sampled secondary schools as perceived by both teachers and students?

## **SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The study was carried out in two secondary schools in Olorunda Local Government Area (LGA) of Osun State. The two schools fall within the rural and urban area of the LGA respectively. School A is in the urban center of the LGA while school B falls within the rural area of the LGA under study. The two schools are:

- 1) School A: Ansarudeen Grammar School Osogbo - Urban
- 2) School B: Aderounmu Grammar School Oba Oke - Rural

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **Design**

The research design employed in this study was a descriptive survey involving the use of questionnaires and documents. This particular design was used, mainly because of the focus of the study. This corroborates with Nwagwu (1991) on the use of descriptive survey research in studying significant educational problems.

### **Sample and Sampling Procedure**

The population of this study comprises all the secondary schools in Olorunda local Government area of Osun State. Two schools were purposively sampled out of the existing eight schools in the LGA using rural and urban dichotomy. Teachers and students of the two sampled schools were sampled using stratified random sampling procedure.

In school A, out of the sixty-two (62) teachers in the school, twenty-seven (27) teachers were sampled, with thirteen (13) females and fourteen (14) males. This results in a sampled percentage of 43.5%. For the students, the school has student population of seven hundred and fifty (450). One hundred and fifty students (150) were sampled, given us a sampled percentage of 33%.

For school B, out of the existing forty-five (45) teachers in the school, fifteen (15) teachers were sampled given us a sampled percentage of 33%. For students in school B, out of three hundred and

sixty (360) students, one hundred and fifty (150) were sampled, giving us a sampled percentage of 43%.

### The Instrument

To secure the needed information, a questionnaire tagged ‘Wastage Rate in Public Secondary School Questionnaire (WRPSSQ) was constructed to seek students’ and teachers’ opinion on factors responsible for student wastage in public secondary schools. The questionnaire was researcher-made and validated by experts in Educational Management. The questionnaire was found reliable using test re-test at a reliability coefficient of 0.76%.

Apart from the questionnaire, a specially designed table was used to obtain information on enrolment of the students, repeaters and dropouts in each of the year observed per classes from 2008/09 - 2013/2014 academic sessions.

In addition the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (SSCE) results of the two schools for the sessions under study were used. Five credits including English Language and Mathematics served as the criteria for passed candidates because in Nigeria, it is only those that have such results can secure admission into tertiary institutions and at the same time secure gainful employment.

### PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The distribution and the collection of the questionnaires were conducted by the researcher. The data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive statistics, namely, percentage and mean. In addition, all information gathered in respect of enrolments, repeaters and dropouts from the two schools was analyzed using the reconstructed cohort- method based on successive year class data on enrolment by the researcher. For decision, in respect of the items for Research Question five (5), the criterion mean was taken to be 55%. Therefore, any item with a mean score of 55% or above was accepted as effective; otherwise it was not accepted.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### Research Question 1

What are the major sources of educational wastage with respect to repetition, withdrawal and failure in the sampled schools as perceived by both teachers and students?

Table 1: Sources of wastage in the two sampled schools as perceived by both teachers and students

Sources	School A Responses		School B Responses	
	Teachers	Students	Teachers	Students
Repetition	18 (66%)	77 (51%)	8 (53.3%)	59 (39.3)
Withdrawals	7 (26%)	48 (32%)	3 (20%)	31 (21%)
Dropout	2 (7.5%)	25 (16.6%)	4 (27%)	60 (40%)
Total	27 (100%)	150 (100%)	15 (100%)	150 (100%)

Source: Fieldwork. Teachers and Students’ Response in Parenthesis

In Table 1, three sources of wastage were identified in the school system- Repetition, Withdrawals, and Dropout. Repetition within the context of this paper is the number of students who repeat a grade in the succeeding year as a percentage of the original enrolment in the same grade. Withdrawals are number of students who officially left the system based on one reason or the other while Dropout refers to the number of those students unaccounted for after deduction of the number promoted to the next class and the number meant to repeat from the total enrolled in the class.

In the above table, School A ranked repetition as the foremost source of wastage out of the three major sources of wastage identified with 66% and 51% by both teachers and students respectively; while in school B, findings revealed that both the teachers and students also reported repetition as the foremost source of wastage in their school with 53.3% and 39.3%. The findings in Table 1 affirm what Akolo (1998) observed, when he lamented about the alarming rate of student repetition and dropout in the Nigerian secondary schools. He further stressed that the root cause of this wastage in secondary schools is inadequately trained teachers and lack of needed instructional materials which consequently contribute to the apparent poor students' academic performance and thereby reducing graduation rates in public secondary schools in Nigeria. It also corroborates Yusuf and Sofoluwe, (2014) whose study revealed that repetition and dropout rates are indices of high wastage rate in the Nigerian school system.

### Research Question 2

What proportion of wastage could be accounted for through cohort analysis with respect to Repetition (R), Dropout (D) and Failure (F) of the sampled schools (A & B) during the period understudy?

In Table 2, the cohort of the students studied in school A revealed that out of the 220 students that were in JSS 1 in 2008/2009 academic session, only 197 were promoted to JSS 2, 15 repeated the class and 8 students could not be accounted for they were therefore assumed to have dropped out for that session. The figure represents 89.5%, 6.8% and 3.6 of the total enrolment respectively. For session 2009/2010 school year, out of 197 enrolled in JSS 2, 118 were promoted, 69 repeated the class while 10 students were assumed to have dropped out of the system. For this session, the following figure represents 60%, 35% and 5% of the total enrolment for JSS II in that academic session.

Table 2: Cohort Flow of students in Ansarudeen Grammar School (School A)

FLOW	Year 1997/98		Year 1998/99		Year 1999/2000		Year 2000/2001		Year 2001/2002		Year 2002/2003	
	J.S.S 1		J.S.S 2		J.S.S 3		S.S.S 1		S.S.S 1		S.S.S 3	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
E	220	100	197	100	118	100	110	100	97	100		
P	197	89.5	118	60	110	93	97	88	90	92	90	100
R	15	7	69	35	5	4	11	10	5	5		
D	8	4	10	5	3	3	2	2	2	3		

Source: Computation from School Records- 2008/2009 – 2013 /2014 academic session in School A

Keys: E- Enrolment P- Promoters R- Repeaters D- Dropouts

In 2010/2011 academic session, out of 118 enrolled in JSS 3, only 110 were promoted, 5 repeated while 3 dropped out. These represents 93%, 4% and 3% of the total enrolled for that session. In 2011/2012 session, we have 110 students enrolled in SS 1. Out of the number enrolled, 97 were

promoted, 11 repeated while 2 dropped out, all these represents 88%, 10% and 2% of the total enrolled for that session.

Likewise in the year 2012/2013, out of the 97 enrolled, 90 were promoted to the final class, 5 repeated with 2 dropped out. This gives us 92%, 5% and 2.6% of the total enrolled respectively. From the students flow in the table above, 220 enrolled in the initial year, only 90 could reach the certificate class for 2013/2014 academic session. In addition, the magnitude of the wastage is more revealed in the 2009/2010 session. Out of 197 enrolled in JSS 2, only 118 students were promoted. The total number of repeaters recorded was 69 and 10 dropped out, making a sum total of 79 as wastage. This represents 36% of the total enrolled for that academic session.

Table 3: Cohort Flow of students in Aderounmu Grammar School (School B)

FLOW	Year 1997/98		Year 1998/99		Year 1999/2000		Year 2000/2001		Year 2001/2002		Year 2002/2003	
	J.S.S 1		J.S.S 2		J.S.S 3		S.S.S 1		S.S.S 1		S.S.S 3	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
E	150	100	138	100	130	100	80	100	75	100		
P	138	92	130	94	80	62	75	94	71	95	71	100
R	9	6	7	5	48	36	5	37	3	4		
D	3	2	1	1	2	2	-	-	1	1		

Source: Computation from School Records- 2008/2009 – 2013 /2014 Academic session in School B

Keys: E- Enrolment P- Promoters R- Repeaters D- Dropouts

Table 3 above reveals that for 2008/2009 session in school B, 150 students enrolled in JSS1, out of which 138 were promoted, 9 students repeated and 3 were assumed to have dropped out from the system. The above figures represents 92%, 6% and 2% of the total enrolled for that academic session, whereas in the 2009/ 2010 session, out of the 138 students enrolled in JSS II, 130 were promoted, 7 repeated the class and 1 student was assumed to have dropped out of the system. All these account for the following percentage respectively 94%, 5% and 1%. In 2010/2011 session, 130 students were enrolled, 80 students were promoted and 48 students repeated the class while 2 students were assumed to have dropped out. This gives us 62%, 36% and 2% of the total enrolled for that session.

For 2011/2012, out of the 121 enrolled in SS 1, 75 were promoted, 45 repeated and 1 dropped out while in 2012/2013 session. Seventy-five students enrolled in SS 2. Seventy-one were promoted to SSS 3; 3 repeated and 1 dropped out. This gives us the following as percentage against the number enrolled, 95%, 4% and 1 % respectively. These indexes indicate that out of 150 students enrolled in JSS1 in school B in the year 2008/2009, only 71 could reach the certificate class for 2013/2014 academic session.

In addition, from the table, the magnitude of the wastage in school B is more in the year 2011/2012 session. Out of the 121 students enrolled in SS1, only 75 students passed with 45 repeaters. One student dropped out of the system. All this makes a total of 46, thus representing 38% of the total enrolled.



### Research Question 3

What is the Cumulative Average Percentage of wastage rate in the two sampled schools?

Table 4: Analysis of Cumulative Average Percentage of wastage rate vide the flow of students in the two sampled schools in %

Schools	Repeaters	Dropouts	Wastage (R+ D)
School A	12.2%	3.5%	15.7%
School B	17.6%	1.5%	19%
Cumulative Average wastage	29.8%	5%	34.7%

Source: Computed from Table 2 and 3

From the above table, the proportion of wastage for repetition and dropout is shown. Findings revealed that in school A, the repetition rate is 7%, 35%, 4% , 10% and 5% for the consecutive five years. The summation of these values divided by five (5) gives 12.2% - average value for repeaters in School A. The dropout rate is as follows, 4%, 5%, 3%, 2% and 3%. The summation of these values divided by five (5) gives 3.5% - average value for Dropouts in School A. The sum total of these two average values (R&D) gives the wastage for School A which was 15.7%

For school B, we have the following repetition rates 6%, 5%, 36%, 37% and 4%. The summation of these values divided by five (5) gives 17.6% - average value for repeaters in School B while the dropout rate is as follows 2%, 1%, 2%, and 1%. The summation of these values, divided by four (4) gives 1.5% - average value for dropouts in School B. The sum total of these two average values (R&D) gives the wastage for School B which was 19%.

From these two sets of data analyzed, School B recorded more repeaters than School A while school A recorded more dropouts than school B. A closer look at the table further shows that school B recorded the highest wastage rate of 19% while school A recorded 15.7%.

Overall cumulative average wastage rate for the two schools between 2008/09 to 2013/2014 academic session for this cohort was 34.7% out of which 29.8% were repeaters and 5% were dropouts. Table 4 finding corroborates Obemeata (1995), Gbadamosi (2014) and UNICEF (2011) on the retardation and attrition rate in public secondary schools in Nigeria. They opined that the rate of repetition is very alarming which grossly affects the percentage of successful completers of secondary education in Nigeria.

### Research Question 4

What is the student graduation and fail-out rate in (SSCE) in respect of the examined cohort of students from 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 academic sessions in school A and B?

In Table 4, following the two schools cohort analysis, the student graduate output percentage of school A is 48% while that of school B is 68%. The table further shows that 52% of the examined candidates in school A failed the 2013/2014 SSCE exams while 32% failed in School B respectively. Findings from Table 4 revealed that the two schools experience wastage with the percentage of fail out in SSCE. The expectation of stakeholders and duty bearers is to invest in education and get the desired output. This confirms Yusuf and Sofoluwe (2014), Akolo (1998), Adeoye (1983), Akinsolu (2005) and Durosaro (2012) on their outcry of key stakeholders and the media over the decline in standards of

operation of our secondary education system, the poor performance of students in Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) and their subsequent inability to secure admission at the completion of their secondary school career despite the huge investment in form of inputs that goes into the secondary education production function. This seems worrisome and calls for serious attention by various stakeholders.

Table 4: Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) Result Analysis for 2013/2014 for school A and B

Year	No. Enrolled at the Final Class for SSCE	No. Passed	%	No. Failed	%
School A	90	43	48	47	52
School B	71	48	68	23	32

Note: Enrolment for the exam excludes the external candidates.

### Research Question 5

What is the crude-cohort wastage rate and input/output ratio in the two sampled schools?

Crude-cohort wastage rate (C-CWR) is the percentage of repeaters and drop-outs from the first year to the final year of academic sessions of a given cohort of students. The crude wastage rate of the two sampled schools was computed from the two schools cohort table using the formula below:

$$\text{Equation} = \text{C-CWR} = \frac{Et^1 - Et^6}{Et^1} \times 100$$

where

C-CWR - means Crude-Cohort wastage rate

$Et$  means Enrolment

$Et^1$  means Enrolment in the initial year (the 1<sup>st</sup> year of secondary schooling).

$Et^6$  means Enrolment in the final year (the 6<sup>th</sup> year of secondary schooling).

### School A

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CCWR} &= \frac{220 - 90}{220} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{130}{220} \times 100 = 59\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{CCWR} = 59\%$$

(This is the percentage of repeaters and drop-outs from the first year to the final year of academic sessions of a given cohort of students from 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 in school A)

**School B**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CWR} &= \frac{150-71}{50} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{79}{150} \times 100 = 52\% \\ \text{CCWR} &= 52\% \end{aligned}$$

**School A**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CCWR} &= \frac{220-90}{220} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{130}{220} \times 100 = 59\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{CCWR} = 59\%$$

(This is the percentage of repeaters and drop-outs from the first year to the final year of academic sessions of a given cohort of students from 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 in school A)

**School B**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CWR} &= \frac{150-71}{50} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{79}{150} \times 100 = 52\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{CCWR} = 52\%$$

(This is the percentage of repeaters and drop-outs from the first year to the final year of academic sessions of a given cohort of students from 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 in school B).

From the calculation, the student crude cohort wastage rates in the two schools were 59% and 52% respectively.

**The Input /Output Computation:** Within the context of this paper, this is a literacy computation for a particular flow set of students based on the assumption that the number of students enrolled (student input) in the initial year should complete the secondary six year cycle. For instance, if 200 students were enrolled in year one, it is expected that all the 200 enrolled students should complete their secondary education.

$$\text{Input/Output Ratio Equation} = \frac{Et^1}{Et^6}$$

$Et^1$  means- Enrolment in the initial year (the 1<sup>st</sup> year of secondary schooling).

$Et^6$  means- Enrolment in the final year (the 6<sup>th</sup> year of secondary schooling).

**School A**

Input/Output Ratio =

$$\frac{220}{90} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(Input value for year 1)} \\ \text{(Output value at the final year)} \end{array}$$

$$= \frac{2.44}{1}$$

$$= \frac{4.8}{2} \quad \approx \quad \frac{5}{2}$$

$$= 5:2$$

The input / output ratio for student cohort flow in School A is 5:2. The above finding implies that for every five (5) students that got enrolled only 2 completed the secondary education which connotes wastage.

**School B**

$$\text{Input/Output Ratio} = \frac{150}{71} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(Input value for year 1)} \\ \text{(Output value for the final year)} \end{array}$$

$$= \frac{2.1}{1}$$

$$\text{Input/Output ratio} = \frac{2}{1}$$

$$= 2:1$$

The input / output ratio for student cohort flow in School B is 2:1. The above finding implies that for every two (2) students that got enrolled only 1 completed the secondary education which likewise connotes wastage as obtained in school A.

From the calculated input and output ratio of the two sampled schools, school A and school B, the two schools experienced educational wastage.

**Research Question 6**

Is there any difference between the crude cohort wastage rate and input /output ratio of the two sampled schools?

From the analysis of RQ5, the result indicates that there is a marginal difference in the crude cohort wastage rate of the two sampled schools. While school A is having 59%, school B has 52% giving a difference of 7%. The input output ratio of school A is higher than school B. In school A for every 5 enrolled; only 2 reached the final class while in school B, for every two, one completed the secondary school cycle. With school A having a higher crude cohort wastage rate despite being in the urban centers, the findings agree with Berstecher (1992), Mumina (2013), Adeyemi (2011), and Deibe, et al (2015) on factors that can be attributed to educational wastage in some of the urban secondary schools such as: overcrowded classrooms, poor staffing and high prevalence rate of truancy and juvenile delinquency.

**Research Question 7**

What are the major factors that could be attributed to educational wastage in the sampled secondary schools as perceived by both students and teachers?

From Table 6, teachers' and students' opinions on factors that are responsible for educational wastage based on the established criterion mean of 55%, five out of the eight proposed items were accepted. These were items 3, 2, 5, 8 and 4 with the following shares 90.5%, 87.5%, 73.5%, 57.6% and 54.5% respectively with an overall mean (X) 'yes' score of 63.1.

The proposed items were generally regarded as factors accounting for wastage. The finding conforms with those of Akolo (1998), Mumina, et al (2013) and Gbadamosi (2014) that the root cause of failure in secondary schools is a fall-out of inadequately trained teachers and non-provision of the needed instructional materials. These consequently contribute to the apparent poor students' academic performance and thereby reducing graduation rates in public secondary schools in Nigeria. It also corroborates Akinsolu (2005) and UNICEF, (2011) on predicting factors that signal student failure as well as propensity of their withdrawal in the schooling process. These are constant failures in school subjects, teachers' poor attitude, inability to pay school fees due to parental socio-economic status and poor school learning environment may cause low academic ability resulting in repetition, failure and drop-out of the school system by students.

The WRPSSQ contained eight (8) items from which teachers' and students' opinions were sought. Table 6 below reveals the result.

Table 6: - Students' and teachers' opinions on factors that could be attributed to educational wastage (School A & B)

Items	Students' Response				Teachers' Response				Composite Response of Teachers And Students	
	Yes		No		Yes		No		%	%
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	Yes	No
1) School administrative styles has an impact on education wastage	115	58	85	42	15	36	27	64	47	53
2) Government policy of credit in Mathematics and English Language account for poor transition of students to tertiary institutions failure in SSCE	170	85	30	15	38	90	4	10	87.5	12.5
3) Truancy and absenteeism account majorly for wastages in the school setting	167	83	33	17	41	98	1	2	90.5	9.5
4) Peer pressure account for poor performance of public secondary students	80	40	120	60	29	69	13	31	54.5	45.5
5) Fear of examination contribute immensely to high wastages in secondary schools	141	71	59	29	32	76	10	24	73.5	26.5
6) Socio – economic status of the parents to high wastages in secondary schools	60	30	140	70	25	60	17	40	45	55

7) Most of the students help their parents in farm work or petty trading with less time for studying	130	65	70	35	18	43	24	57	54	46
8) Teachers commitment to work has reduced nowadays	125	62.5	75	37.5	18	42.8	24	57.2	57.6	42.4
Overall Mean (X)		61.8		38.2		64.3		35.7	63.1	36.9

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the findings of this study, educational wastage is evident in the two schools: School A: Ansarudeen Grammar School, Osogbo (Urban) and School B: Aderounmu Grammar School, Oba Oke (Rural). Findings further revealed the following factors: schools, home, students' truancy, repetitions, socio-economic status of parents, and low commitment of teachers are contributing to educational wastage in the school system. In addition, it was observed that schools experienced wastage regardless of their locations because school A in the urban metropolis of Osun State experienced higher wastage rate than school B located in one of the rural areas of the State.

The need to minimize wastage in secondary schools calls for prompt action by all relevant stakeholders in the state since secondary education is compulsory for any child with willingness to gain admission into tertiary institutions. The need to meet all the necessary requirements is essentials before being given admission. Hence, the need to combat wastages in public secondary schools in Osun state and in Nigeria as a nation is essential.

In combating wastage in Nigeria secondary schools, the following recommendations are hereby made;

- Extensive sensitization and awareness programs should be conducted on quarterly basis to enlighten parents on the need to support their children schooling by providing these children with needed materials to aid their active participation and retention in schools.
- Teachers' welfare should be looked into by government. This is to boost their morale and makes them more committed to their job. This will encourage them to put in their best in the profession and thereby improve the teaching and learning process in public secondary schools
- Proper admission policies should be made to ensure that intakes into secondary schools are of the right quality to ease student flow from one grade to another as well as smooth transition to the next level of education with quality outputs.
- Schools' mangers should ensure that discipline is maintained in our secondary schools, since this will assist in combating truancy and peer pressure among our secondary school students thereby minimizing wastage.
- School Based Management Committees (SBMCs), parent unions, women leaders and other related groups need to work towards ensuring that the enabling environments are created for access, retention and completion of education by the students.
- The school counselors should prepare a program to work with students before they sit for both internal and external examinations to allay their fears and phobia for examinations.
- Lastly, all key stakeholders' attention should shift from enrollment to active participation and retention of students in the school system to ascertain quality assurance thus paving way for good academic performance.

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## NOTES

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