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**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING**

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**LEVEL V**

**MODULE: EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

**15 CREDITS**

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## LEARNING OUTCOMES

After having completed the module, students will be able to:

- ❖ Demonstrate knowledge of the concept of planning in general and educational planning in particular
- ❖ Understand the history and evolution of educational planning
- ❖ Analyze problems faced by Educational Planners
- ❖ Understand the basic principles of educational planning
- ❖ Analyze approaches to educational planning
- ❖ Understand the technique of school mapping
- ❖ Analyze the stages of strategic planning process

## INTRODUCTION

The field of education is expected to provide society with human resources which have specialized knowledge, attitudes, work ethics, social, moral & political values and skills so as to sustain and enhance the expected development of the nation. This importance of education to the development of the country justify the reason why it should be planned so that it should reach the best results. Education is a system like any others and its has four components: inputs, process, outputs and outcomes, feedback.

**Inputs** to the education system include resources such as teachers, buildings, equipment, books, etc. These inputs go through a **process** whereby they are mixed, combined and/or moved along to achieve results.

**Educational outputs** are tangible results produced by the process in the system, such as enrolments, graduates and learning achievements. Another kind of result, which can be called outcome, is the benefit for the students, their families and/or the society.

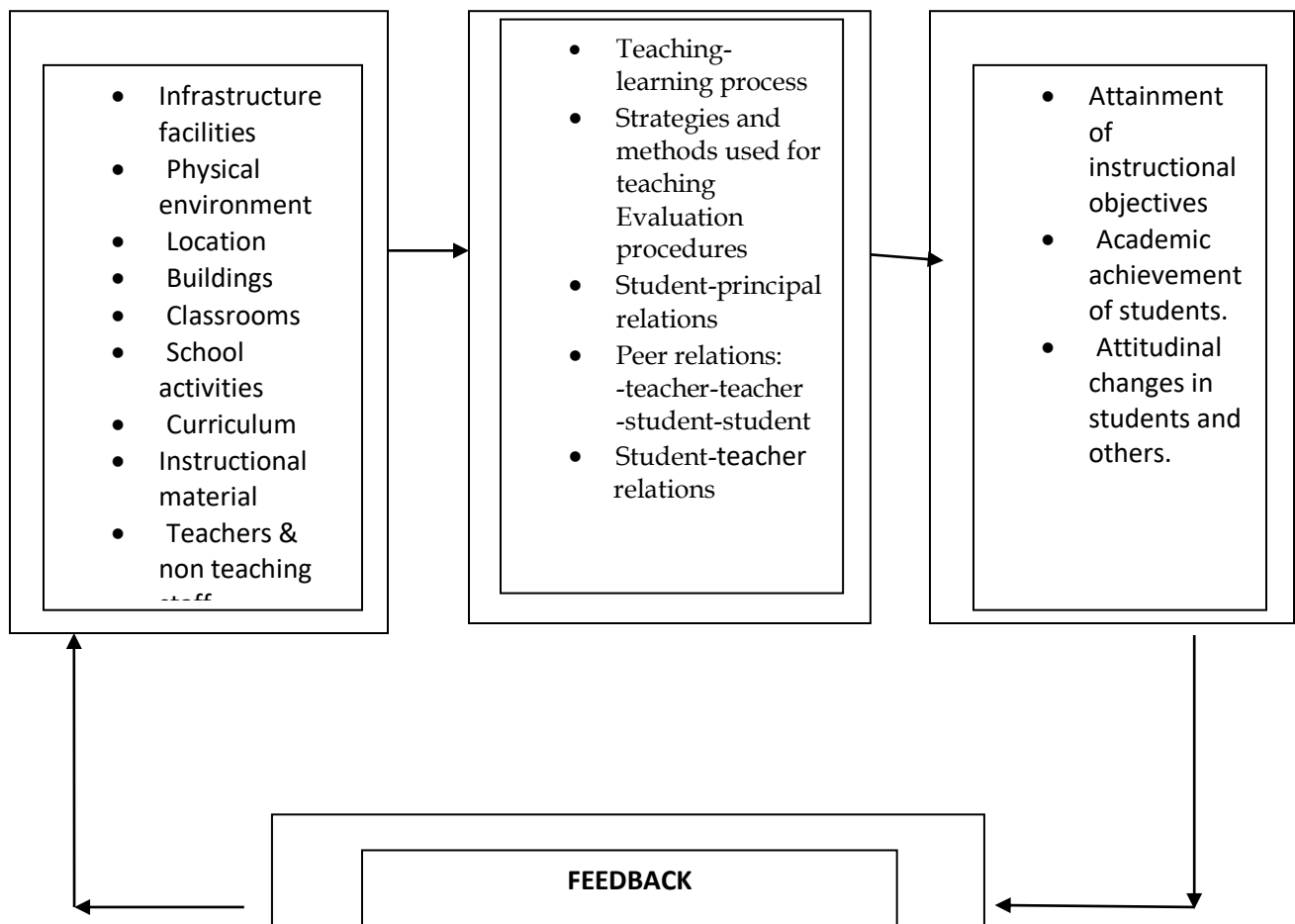
**Feedback:** It refers to the response to the output, enabling a system to modify its functioning. Feedback can be positive or negative in nature. Feedback can be stimulative, it can bring about corrective action leading to improvement.

The figure below shows the inputs-process-outputs-feedback model

## INPUTS

## PROCESSES

## OUTPUTS



Let us say that planning for education means taking into account all the four components

## **CHAPTER I: THE NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF PLANNING**

### **I.1 Introduction**

Planning is a management function concerned with defining goals for future organization or societal performance and deciding on the tasks to be performed and the resources to be used to attain those goals. For any society or organization to develop and survive in a rapidly changing environment, it has to take a serious view of planning on the basis of the whole spectrum of its affairs. This chapter examines the concept of planning, types of planning and importance of planning to educational managers.

### **I.2 What is planning**

Many definitions have been given to the concept of planning:

Planning is defined as a process whereby a direction is set forth and then the ways and means for following that direction are specified. Planning is essentially a process of deciding on a desired future and taking action to make it happen. Planning is also defined as a process of setting objectives and determining what should be done to achieve them. It is a decision-making activity through which, managers act to ensure the future success and effectiveness of their institutions and departments as well as themselves. A plan is the product of the planning process and can be defined as a set of decisions about what to do, why, and how to do it.

### **1.3. Characteristics of Planning**

The nature of planning can be highlighted by studying its characteristics. They are as follows:

***Planning is a mental activity:*** Planning is not a simple process. It is an intellectual exercise and involves thinking and forethought on the part of the manager.

***Planning is goal-oriented:*** Every plan specifies the goals to be attained in the future and the steps necessary to reach them. A manager cannot do any planning, unless the goals are known.

***Planning is forward (future) looking:*** Planning is in keeping with the adage, “look before you leap”. Thus planning means looking ahead and is futuristic in nature since it is performed to accomplish some objectives in future.

***Planning pervades all managerial activities:*** Planning is the basic function of managers at all levels, although the nature and scope of planning will vary at each level.

***Planning is the primary function:*** Planning logically precedes the execution of all other managerial functions, since managerial activities in organizing, staffing, directing and controlling are designed to support the attainment of system and organizational goals. Thus, management is a circular process beginning with planning and returning to planning for revision and adjustment.

***Planning is based on facts:*** Planning is a conscious determination and projection of a course of actions for the future. It is based on objectives, facts and considered forecasts. Thus planning is not a guess work.

***Planning is flexible:*** Planning is a dynamic process capable of adjustments in accordance with the needs and requirements of the situations. Thus planning has to be flexible and cannot be rigid.

***Planning is essentially decision making:*** Planning is a choice activity as the planning process involves finding the alternatives and the selection of the best. Thus decision making is the cardinal part of planning.

#### **I.4. Planning as a systematic process**

Planning is a systematic process which implies that there are some planning aspects to be considered. Weihrich and Koontz (1993) explained them as regular planning steps which include:

***1. Being aware of opportunities:*** Educational planners need to be aware of internal and external opportunities for their organizational or societal growth and survival. This implies looking at possible weaknesses and strengths inside and outside of one's society or the institution. Rowley, Lujan and Dolence (1973:3) affirm this by stating "*for this reason it is important to understand what exists within that environment that can be used or influenced to create the strategies that a strategic plan must consider*".

**2. Establishing goals and objectives:** Planning includes setting societal or organizational long term and realistic goals, which are usually done by higher level managers. Objectives are short term and measurable statements which specify the expected results at the end point of what is to be done.

**3. Developing premises:** Premises are assumptions about the environment in which the plan is to be carried out. Developing premises then include basic policies, forecasts, and identifying existing institutional procedures.

**4. Identifying alternative courses:** One aspect planners need to map out is the possible alternatives of action that will enable them achieve their goals and objectives. As a part of planning process, the planning team then develops strategies for achieving the goals and objectives.

**5. Evaluating alternative courses:** The identified alternatives of action need to be examined in light of their effectiveness, advantages and disadvantages. In other words, the planners must determine the standards, or levels of quality, that need to be met in completing the tasks.

**6. Selecting the alternatives courses:** At this stage, the decision is made and the selected plan of action is adopted.

**7. Formulating derivative plans:** This step ensures that the plans that guarantee action are taken to implement the adopted plan. For instance, the plan should be translated into money (i.e. budgeting). In order to implement the strategies, resources will be needed and must be acquired. In these planning steps, we can add *the monitoring aspect*, which involves keeping watch over the planned actions to determine whether they conform or deviate from the intention of the plan, and effecting revisions/amendments when they deviate. One does not need to proceed to the last stage in order to ensure the effectiveness of the plan but to monitor each step by going back and forth.

## **I.5. Major types of planning**

The types of planning can be classified according to the results towards which all educational activities are directed. This also refers to the period within which the plan should accomplish its

objectives, the formal or informal approaches used in developing the plan, and the content matter they deal with. The main types of planning, however, are strategic, tactical and action planning.

### **Strategic planning**

Strategic planning is long-term planning that is normally carried out by top-level managers in an organization or in a country. Examples of strategic decisions educational managers make are goals of education after completion of primary level, plans to eradicate illiteracy, etc. Strategic planning is a long term preparation (5-10 years) that guide organizations in the rapidly changing environment to ensure their survival. Strategic planning is about the **big picture**. It is through strategic planning that an organization develops a strategic framework. This framework helps the organization to determine priorities that are likely to facilitate achievement of its vision

### **Tactical planning**

Tactical planning is the identification and selection of methods to help planners meet goals previously specified. This refers to the **ways and specified strategies** or tactics to achieve goals. It also answers the “how” question. Tactical planning can be considered as medium and short term planning that needs to happen in order to make the strategic planning come true

### **Action planning**

Action planning refers to implementation, action or operational planning. It is operational or short-term planning done for the benefit of lower level administrators or implementers, since it is **the process of developing very detailed strategies** about what need to be done, who should do it, how it should be done, by when it should be done, and what resources are needed to do it, etc. Operational planning has objectives which are specific, measurable results which are expected from departments, work groups and individuals within the organization. These plans are meant to aid the realization of tactical planning. The diagram below shows the relationship between strategic planning, tactical planning and action planning.



To elaborate this, let's use an example. Suppose your mission is to promote moral integrity in the society. On the basis of this mission, the strategic plan may state establishment of centre of ethics and moral formation. Your tactical plans will require having qualified personnel in ethical and moral knowledge, teaching in classroom setting, conducting conferences and workshops among other tactics. The action plan will identify the contents to be delivered, how and when to collaborate with religious and educational organizations, developing detailed plans for intensive campaigns against corruption, translating activities into money, etc. Your objective will be specific action plans, such as to train a certain number of teachers in every region of the country, to run a certain number of workshops in each region. Shapiro explained that the action plan will answer the questions:

- ➔ What is the exact number of workshops and the targets for attendance at each level (including a profile of the kind of participants you want)?
- ➔ What methods will be used to recruit the participants, who will be involved and by when this will take place?
- ➔ What curriculum will be used, who will develop it and by when?



- ➔ When the workshops will be held, where they will be held and who will be in charge of organizing this?
- ➔ How, when and by whom the workshop strategy will be monitored and evaluated?
- ➔ What resources will be needed to implement each step?
- ➔ What is the detailed budget for the activities?

## **I.6. Other categories of planning**

### **Macro and micro planning**

Based on the level at which the planning is done, we distinguish macro and micro planning.

Planning can be done at national, local or institutional level. Macro planning is the planning at national level whereas micro planning is done at local or institutional level.

### **Financial and Non financial planning**

Financial planning is a systematic approach concerned with maximizing existing financial tools to achieve financial goals. On the other hand, non financial planning relates to physical and human resources among others as the main concern of the planning. Thus, planning can be categorized according to the issue at hand.

### **Formal and informal planning**

Planning in black and white (clear), systematic, and incorporating the strategic, tactical and operational is known as formal planning. Informal planning is only thinking about it and taking action on the plan. An example of informal planning could be the traditional system of education in Africa.

### **Standing and Ad hoc planning**

**Standing plans are permanent in nature.** They are standardized approaches for handling recurrent and predictable situation. They are an established set of decisions used by managers to deal with recurring or organizational activities. Once established, it allows managers to conserve time used for planning and decision making because similar situations are handled in a

predetermined, consistent manner. Examples of standing plans are policies, rules, procedures, etc.

#### **Ad hoc planning or single use planning:**

They are developed to achieve specific purposes and to be dissolved when these have been accomplished or are developed to achieve a specific end. After reaching that target the plans become useless.

### **I.7. Importance of planning to (educational) managers**

Okumbe (1998) asserts that the first function of educational management is the assurance that sound policies, goals and objectives are formulated in given schools and that methods are determined for the achievement of these objectives. Hence, planning helps managers **to achieve goals and targets by using available time, workforce, material facilities and financial resources**. Planning is of great importance for managers because it has an **implementation function**. Implementation refers to the procedures for fulfilling the plan targets. Managers plan so that they take actions in order to achieve their goals and objectives.

**Coordination of activities** is another function of planning. Forojalla (1993) says that the **planner is well placed to coordinate the effort of his/her colleagues towards the realization of overall aims because he/she has a wide range of information**. Hence, planning reinforces the coordination function of managers. Coombs (1970) observes that planning can help to obtain larger and better aggregate results within the limits of available resources. It identifies the interrelationship between educational planning process and other sectors of the society as part of a dynamic organic whole. Thus, one of the central tasks of educational planning is to determine how **best to keep these intricate internal and external relationships of the educational system** in reasonable balance under dynamically changing circumstances to move constantly in the required direction.

**Planning has a participatory function**; it is a set of processes through which diverse groups and interests engage together in reaching for consensus on a plan and its implementation. It is more than just public participation but rather a spectrum of processes involving engagement, negotiation and mediation. It is an aspect of democratic planning. Wheat (2000) believes that

participatory planning maximizes involvement and ownership and limits “top-down imposition”. The planning framework allows for delineation of responsibilities so that each of the stakeholders understands their role in policy development and implementation. Non-participation in the planning process may give rise to a very dysfunctional educational system with the participants exhibiting alienation, apathy, dislike and ambivalent feeling toward the plan.

Besides this, it also results in conflict avoidance, developing a shared vision and formulating creative solutions. Finally, we can add the value of controlling as relevant to planning. Control is an important management function, which includes the discovery of discrepancies between actual and planned achievement, errors and problems and subsequent modification of the plan. In fact, control is the process of determining whether or not proper progress is being made towards objectives and goals set by a management while doing planning. Planning is required at the outset of management whereas control is required at the last stage. If planning is looking ahead, control is looking back. Therefore, without planning, the management function of control cannot be effectively done because the managers would not have a clear direction of what to do and the goals to be achieved. We can conclude then that planning is important to managers because of the following reasons

- ➔ A planned performance brings better results compared to unplanned one. Planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who should do it. All these taken into account lead to achievement of desired goals.
- ➔ Planning bridges the gap between where the organization is and where it desires to be. Hence, planning is associated with positive progression of the organization and projects.
- ➔ Planning encourages innovation. Planning is basically the deciding function of management. Many new ideas come to the mind of a manager when he/she is planning. This creates an innovative and foresighted attitude among managers. Planning helps tackle complexities of modern business, it gives the manager a clear picture of what is to be done
- ➔ A final remark is that systematic planning promotes team work and taking responsibility

## CHAPTER II: THE HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

### II.1. Introduction:

In any country, education has always responded to the prevailing socio-economic and political objectives. This view of educational development has its roots in traditional societies. For instance, if we trace the development of educational planning back to ancient Athens and Sparta, we discover that in these societies, education was meant to suit the lives, aspirations or goal of the society. Indeed, there was a close relationship between education and the philosophy of education of the society.

### II.2. The origins of education planning

Today's educational planning can claim an unbroken ancestry running back to ancient times. The authors of education plans were generally the philosophers who exercised their reflection on the society and whose creative thought saw in **the education a powerful instrument to achieve some reforms and to arrive at one honest life**. “Instruire une nation, c’est la civiliser ; y éteindre les connaissances, c’est la ramener à l’état primitif de barbarie.”(Diderot)

#### Examples:

- ❖ Xenophon tells (in the *Lacedaemonian Constitution*) how the Spartans planned their education to fit their well defined military, social and economic objectives.
- ❖ Plato in his *Republic* offered an education plan to serve the leadership needs and political purposes of Athens.
- ❖ China during the Han Dynasties and Peru of the Incas planned their education to fit their particular public purposes.
- ❖ John Knox in the mid-16th Century proposed a plan for a national system of schools and colleges expressly designed to give the Scots a felicitous combination of spiritual salvation and material wellbeing.
- ❖ The plan of ROUSSEAU that had for object to assure the education to all Polish citizens, and that pushed the precision as far as planning some corporal punishments for the unruly

pupils. Diderot's '*Plan d'une Université pour le Gouvernement de Russie*', prepared at the request of Catherine II.

- ❖ The modern concept of planning can be traced to the young Soviet Union after the **October revolution of 1917** with its First Five-Year Plan ( from October 1917 to 1923). Despite that its initial methodologies were crude by today's standards, it was the start of a continuous and comprehensive planning process which eventually helped transform in less than fifty years, a nation which began two-thirds illiterate into one of the world's most educationally developed nations. Its ideological orientation aside, this Soviet planning experience offers a variety of useful technical lessons for other countries.

## **II.3 The evolution of education planning**

### **II.3.1 Before the second World War**

Prior to the Second World War, educational systems everywhere were less complex in structure and content, smaller in size and less intricately tied to the total life of nations. Moreover, educational institutions and the world around them were growing and changing at a considerably slower pace. Thus there was minimal risk that serious imbalances and maladjustments might suddenly erupt amongst the constituent parts of an educational system or between the system and its client environment.

According to Combs, the education planning that was in use in a lot of places before the second World War presented these four key features:

- (1) **It was *short-range*** in outlook, extending only to the next budget year
- (2) **It was *fragmentary*** in its coverage of the educational system; the parts of the system were planned independently of one another;
- (3) **It was *non-integrated*** in the sense that educational institutions were planned autonomously without explicit ties to the evolving needs and trends of the society and economy at large; and
- (4) **It was a *non-dynamic*** kind of planning which assumed an essentially static educational model that would retain its main features intact year in and year out.

### II.3.2 After the second World War

During the twenty-five years from 1945 to 1970 the world was subjected to a barrage of scientific and technical, economic and demographic, political and cultural changes that shook everything in sight. The consequence for education was a new and formidable set of tasks, pressures, and problems that far exceeded in size and complexity anything they had ever experienced. They did their heroic best to cope with these, but their tools of planning and management proved grossly inadequate in the new situation. In retrospect one has to marvel that they accomplished all they did in the circumstances and somehow managed to avoid collapsing under the strain. By examining a few of the highlights of this extraordinary experience we can gain a clearer understanding of why a new kind of planning became imperative and what some of its major features would have to be.

#### ➤ Educational planning in industrialized (developed) countries

The industrialized nations have passed through three educational phases from 1945 to 1970 and found themselves in a perplexing fourth phase: (1) **the Reconstruction Phase**; (2) **the Manpower Shortage Phase**; (3) **the Rampant Expansion Phase**; and (4) **the Innovation Phase**. Each yielded a new crop of planning problems.

Most nations quickly started launching crash programmes of schools construction, teachers recruitment, emergency training and the like. It was soon evident that conventional pre-war educational planning would not suffice for these reconstruction tasks. Massive programmes, that deeply affected many communities and imposed a heavy burden on severely damaged and strained economies, required broader and more complex programming and scheduling, a longer view ahead, and more careful checking of their economic feasibility and impacts. Though the planning methods that were improvised to meet this situation had many shortcomings, they did do some good and they also conditioned educational authorities for still greater planning problems yet to come.

### ➤ **In the Third World (developing) Countries**

The development of educational planning in developing countries followed a similar pattern after independence. It was more closely associated with economic growth in these countries than in the developed world. At a series of Unesco conferences early in the **1960s** education ministers of Asia, Africa and Latin America set ambitious regional targets for educational expansion in their respective regions to be achieved by **1980 (1975 in the case of Latin America)**. These targets were widely adopted by individual nations. **They called for 100 percent participation in primary education by the end of the target period**, and sharply increased participation rates in secondary and higher education. Rough or forceful estimates of costs and revenues were made which even though tending on the optimistic side, showed that the attainment of these targets would require a large increase in the proportion of the Gross National Product (GNP) devoted to education. Consequently, the developing countries in Africa were soon faced with numerous problems. Let us enumerate some of them.

**1. Wasteful imbalances within the educational system:** In some places, high investment was made on teachers while there were no classrooms; others invested on higher education whereas there were insufficient secondary schools; there were also imbalances between textbooks and student numbers, etc.

**2. Demand far in excess of capacity:** The popular demand for education was targeting large promises which were hardly realized.

**3. Costs rising faster than revenues:** The budget could not keep pace with the rising costs and students numbers. To solve the challenge, the initial targets were to cut down, to reduce costs; this resulted in thinner resources. All these however, had effects on quality and effectiveness, e.g. overcrowded classrooms.

**4. Limited administrative abilities** of educational systems to plan and to transform plans and money into desired results,

**5. The long time required to** recruit and develop competent staffs for new schools and universities,

**6. Lack of enough jobs for the educated:** Those with educational qualifications ran away from their villages to towns for government jobs. At the beginning (in the case of Africa, immediately after independence) good jobs were available. But with time, more educated people were

produced than countries could accommodate. As a result individuals who were sent abroad failed to return since the best jobs were no longer available..

### ***7. Irrelevant or Wrong education:***

Educators could not divest themselves of all responsibility for this employment problem, however. True, the economy was not creating as many jobs as it should. But the other face of the problem was that many students were receiving the wrong sort of education for the world of work they would live in.

Education alienated people from their rural surroundings and there was high dropout rate. It was one thing however, to know what was wrong with an out- molded and misplaced curriculum, but another thing to know how to repair it. Another aspect of the planning challenge is striking a balance between theory (or an ideal vision) vis-à-vis its practical implications. Educational planners should aim at the best kind of education they want to provide.

Especially for Africa, Educational planning was deliberated at the Addis Ababa Conference in 1961, on 15-22 May, where an outline plan for the development of education was adopted.

### ***The outline plan for the development of Education in Africa from the Addis Ababa Conference, 15-22 May 1961***

The purpose of the conference was to provide a forum for Africa States to decide on the priority educational needs to promote economic and social development in Africa and, in the light of these, to establish a first tentative short-term and long-term plan for educational development in their continent, embodying the priorities they had decided upon for economic growth of the region.

Among other things that appear in the report of the conference, our interest goes to **its agenda**. The conference decided to examine the following problems at plenary meetings:

- Development of education in relation to Africa cultural and socio-cultural factors;
- Inventory of educational needs for economic and social development;
- Education as a basic factor in economic and social development;



- Patterns of international co-operation for the promotion and implementation of programs of educational development or planning.

Let us examples on the educational needs in Africa identified by the conference.

### **Inventory of Educational Needs for African Economic and Social Development**

The first plenary meetings of the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa were devoted to two aspects of serious concern: **the development of education in relation to African cultural and socio-cultural factors** and **an inventory of educational needs for economic and social development**.

#### *i. Needs of a general character*

During the conference, the leaders of education speaking of their countries' needs have stressed the following needs:

- Education was desired at all levels, but particularly by and for the youth of the country.
- The desire to accelerate the reorientation of the education patterns and systems to the economic and social needs of their individual areas.
- Thirdly, modern African education should be open to all, without discrimination, especially for the girls and women of Africa;
- The expansion of education at a rapid rate: This relates to expanding costs for the payment of teachers, construction of new buildings, production and supply of textbooks and teaching aids.
- International financial assistance was needed to supplement national budgets, particularly to accelerate building construction, to pay the salaries of expatriate teachers and the expenses of students studying abroad, for expanded teacher training, and for growth in the field of science and technology at the higher education level.

#### *ii. Needs of a material character*

##### **(a) School building**

- At the primary level, there was an extreme shortage of classrooms and many existing buildings did not meet minimum requirements. So, new classrooms needed to be built to meet targets of primary educational expansion.

- In secondary schools, there was the added need for student dormitories, housing for teaching staff, laboratories and other facilities.
- In addition to those building, there was a need of methods of school building construction and of building designs and patterns more adequately adapted to educational needs.

**(b) Equipment**

- The need for equipment of all types was urgent and the problem was crucial in technical, vocational and higher education, in laboratories and shops, where many requirements could only be met abroad.
- In addition, as curricula and teaching materials were progressively changed to meet new conditions and the needs of an expanding number of students, there was an urgent need for audio-visual and other teaching aids.

**(C) Production of Textbooks**

- The problem of the production of textbooks adapted to new curricula requirements and African conditions was crucial.
- On the side of content, scientific and technological books, in many cases produced for non-African consumers, had to be adapted to African teaching conditions.
- For history, literary and social studies subjects, there was an urgent need for adaptation of textbooks more relevant to African life and culture.
- It also required the training of textbook writers with the needed skills and knowledge to make possible the necessary transformation of textbooks to meet the new conditions.

iii. *Needs for teachers*

**(a) Primary education**

- Achieving the goal of universal primary education by 1980 in one country, would require the training of 20,000 teachers in the next 20 years. In another meeting the projected targets between 1961-1964 would require the training of over 2,000 new teachers.
- If the problem was to be met adequately, measures should be taken to improve the status of the teaching profession and the strength of teachers' organizations.

**(b) Secondary education**

- On the speedy growth of secondary education depended not only the expansion of primary education, but - more important - the urgently needed increase in the numbers of graduates from secondary schools qualified to undertake higher academic or technical studies and become the necessary cadres of high-level manpower. Targets indicated by many African States are impressive, for example “to double the secondary school intake in the next five years”, ” to triple the secondary school intake by 1970”.
- The operation of secondary education and technical education at the secondary level was dependent on a supply of expatriate teachers to supplement the growing programs to train African teachers through higher education in Africa and through training abroad.
- The shortage was particularly acute in areas of technical and agricultural instruction included in new secondary curricula.

iv. *Needs for changes and reforms*

Many speakers made mention of important new **directions and changes** in educational programs in order to meet new economic and social needs.

**(a) Rural education**

- There was interest in adapting educational curricula, particularly at the primary and lower secondary level, to rural and village life (in agriculture, different jobs or techniques: electricity, water management, construction, etc).
- Efforts were being made to bring the school to the countryside physically and in terms of a program more in **line with rural needs and interests**.
- This new direction would be an important factor in raising the productivity of the agricultural economy, in improving the community life in the villages, and in increasing employment opportunities in rural areas. It would help diminish the number of school leavers who flock to the towns and cities for employment.

**(b) Vocational and technical education**

- With the increasingly diversified development of **the economy of Africa, manpower with new skills and abilities were being required**.

- Therefore, vocational and technical education had to be reinforced at various levels. In addition, primary and secondary school students had to be predisposed **to manual occupations**.
- In the general program of primary schools, certain prerequisites in science, mathematics and manipulative skills had to be taught
- Such reforms were designed to predispose school leavers to productive occupations such as farming, technical and craft work.

#### **(c) Higher education**

- Facilities for higher education at the present time were far from adequate for the training of the necessary cadres of specialists, researchers, administrators and other leaders.
- Projected crucial needs required that considerable numbers of African individuals should undertake advanced studies overseas
- An expanded supply of expatriate staff would be provided for new higher institutions, universities, technical colleges, research institutes and laboratories.

#### **(d) Education for girls**

- Great need existed to increase the number of girls receiving education at all levels.
- Research indicates that girls made up less than 30 percent of the total African primary school enrolment and about 22 per cent of the secondary school enrolment.
- Most urgent was the need to develop a new conception of the rôle of women in the life of the community; to improve their condition as home-makers; to expand their opportunities of employment ;to encourage a greater participation and leadership by women in community affairs and public life. To meet this goal an expansion and reform of education for girls was required.

#### **(e) Adult education**

- The expansion and development of adult education programs was an essential and vital foundation. In a region where it was estimated that 100,000,000 people were unable to read and write, programs of literacy among adults posed problems of enormous dimensions.

- Adult education programs were essential in promoting a productive understanding of the great social and technical changes which were facing the adult members of the African community
- In the further development of adult education, there was great need for expanding library services, creating suitable reading and audio-visual materials, and increasing educational programs on radio to reach isolated areas.
- The training of adult education teachers was also an important element in this area.

### **CHAPTER III: BASIC PRINCIPLES IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

In the previous chapters, we have seen what planning is, the types of planning, the significance of planning and historical development of educational planning. The next logic question to ask would be: how to start planning. This chapter provides the basic considerations that any planner needs to keep in mind for an effective and efficient planning exercise.

#### **Change**

At the heart of any planning activity is a desire for change; change as a goal and change as a constant component of the planning process, and change that emanates from the internal and external environments. Educational planners have to consider this reality of change and make teaching and learning address it. Kaufman, Herman and Watters (1993) argue that “education must change much of what it does and how it does in order to become a contributing partner to our new realities. Change is inevitable. Whether we plan for it or not, some sort of change will happen, it is better to plan to determine the desired change and to avoid undesirable outcomes. Education is operating in a fast changing environment due to technological advancement, new political ideologies and economic realities and social factors. Education thus needs to plan for change in order to bring contribution to this environment in which it belongs.

#### **Need assessment**

Planning activities are also based on need assessment, which is a process of **identifying and acquiring an accurate and thorough picture of the community problems**. This is achieved

through collecting, analysing and interpreting data that will form the rationale for stating some intervention. The process of need assessment helps planners identify unmet gaps, prioritize needs, and select the most important resolutions. A planner needs to identify the strengths and limitations of the current problem before formulating a plan to solve it.

### **Consulting stakeholders**

Stakeholder consultation is being adopted as standard practice in planning and management. According to Forojalla (1993), the information campaign is vital in order to explain the aim of the plan and to enlist the support of leaders and local public administration. Consultation is not only with the public but also with everyone involved in the organization or project planning. The planning team should also be aware of what has been thought of and drafted.

In most cases, educational planning is for societal needs rather than for the planner's benefit. This being the case, beneficiaries of the plan need to be aware and involved in what is going to affect their lives, this cannot be done without consultation.

### **Data collection and processing**

The collection and analysis of relevant information concerning the educational system and related socio-cultural and economic factor is a necessity because they form the basis for preparation of planning. Such information provides the necessary foundation for assessing the existing situation of the educational system. It can also be used for making projections regarding the future development of the educational organization.

The types of data required for planning can be classified in two.

- a) Data internal to the system: this consist largely of internal qualitative data such as age, culture, religion of the students, conditions of resources or facilities, and other quantitative data such as statistics on the number of laboratories, number of books in the libraries, playing fields, pupils age, class size, teachers' qualification, etc.
- b) Data external to the system: these data refer to the external forces that affect the organization of the project to be planned. As we have mentioned before, the organizations do not exist in isolation from their external environments. External data

may comprise information affecting the expansion of organizational facilities such as cultural, political, economical and environmental factors.

The collection and analysis of quantitative or qualitative data are important in that they form the content and give direction the plan should take.

### **Selecting the planning team**

Another important consideration that the planner needs to keep in mind is how to select the planning team. The planning team should be selected from internal and external groups. The internal group includes members of the organization who will be involved in the planning process. For example in educational settings, this should include teachers, support personnel and learners, to assure that the plans will be done to professional standards and will be acceptable to those who will benefit from it. External groups should also be selected, such as parents, religious leaders, politicians and professionals from varied fields to ensure that there will be broad ownership of the plans that are developed.

#### **1. Prioritize**

Internal and external data collection and need assessment will provide several options for planning. All opportunities cannot be part of the plan. This demands selecting opportunities and prioritizing activities. A planner needs the skills of prioritizing to schedule which action should be taken first and by what activities it should be followed.

### **Develop clear planning goals and strategies.**

It is desirable for the planner to have an idea of what to expect in the future. This helps to avoid the risk of unexpected surprises and impractical policies based on haphazard guesses. In addition, a planner needs to be clear enough about the relationships between goals and the mission and vision of the organization. There must be an organic relationship between them.

## **Plan implementation**

A plan will not be complete without implementation strategies. The planner needs to ensure that the organization has the capacity not only to develop its transformation plan but also to implement it.

## **Monitor the plan**

Monitoring the plan is a continuous process. From the initial stage, a systematic method of monitoring the activities must be adopted to continuously improve the implementation process. It specifies exactly what is going to be measured, who will measure it, how and when he/she will measure it. It assigns responsibilities and dates/timelines to help ensure that monitoring is actually being done. Criteria must also be set to decide when the strategy must be changed or amended. Feedback is encouraged and incorporated to determine if goals and objectives are feasible.

## **Budgeting**

The bible says “which of you wishing to construct a tower, does not first sit down and calculate the cost to see if there is enough for its completion? If you began before you weigh your resources, people will laugh at you, saying: “this one began to build but did not have resources to finish” (Lk 14: 28). The plan and the budget together provide a picture of what is intended and expected and the means by which the objectives are achieved. The budget, thus, contributes to implementation of the plans. A planner needs to ensure that the financial requirements of the plan are realistic. There is a need to identify the sources of finances when planning.

## **Time management**

When planning for organization, projects and individuals, planners need to be able to manage their time well if planning is to translate into implementation. Timing reflects the order and time limit which each group task must be subjected to. A planner therefore needs to consider the amount of time each task will take and put in place logistics to ensure that time is properly managed.



## **Planning for evaluation**

Evaluation activities emphasize the overall judgment made about the plan and its impact. Planners should develop indicators for the expected outcomes and impacts so that these form the basis for performance measurement and evaluation. This can be done through identifying the information needed to evaluate the outcomes of the plan, information and feedback to be collected, how and where from, who should be involved in collecting evaluation data, and how they will store, analyze and report it.

## **Communicating the plan**

An educational planner must communicate full information and use open presentation of every component of the plan to different stakeholders in order to make them understand and accept the plan in the view of making day to day decisions that will support the plan implementation.

## **CHAPTER IV: APPROACHES/MODELS TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

It is important to explain what is understood by “planning model” before discussing models. The term “planning model” refers to guidelines that provide directions to the planner to be focused at certain points. A model is a theoretical framework that conceptualizes the plan. Planning model also means foundations on which one’s plan is based. It can also be taken as a way of thinking and doing the planning

There are different approaches:

- ❖ The social demand approach
- ❖ The manpower requirement
- ❖ The cost benefit analysis

### **IV.1 The social demand approach**

This approach requires the education authorities to **provide schools and find facilities for all students who demand admission and who are qualified to enter**. Aghenta (1987) argues that this approach looks on education, as **service demanded by people just like any other social services**. Politicians in developing countries often find the approach expedient to use because of its appealing nature.

### ***Advantages of the Social Demand Approach***

1. The approach provides the planners with approximate number of places where educational facilities has to be provided.
2. It is a suitable political tool to meet the need to satisfy the demands of the general public.
3. Where resources are acutely limited, and where we are seeking to provide those kinds and quantities of education which will offer the greatest good to the greatest number, such planning techniques are best.

### ***Limitations of the Approach***

1. The approach has no control over factors such as the price of education
2. The approach has no control over absorptive capacity of the economy for the trained personnel.
3. The approach does not in any way lay claim to whether the resources expended are economically allocated and to that extent, the approach is poor.
4. The approach does not provide guidance we need as to how best to meet the identified needs.
5. etc

## **IV.2 The manpower requirement approach**

The focus of this approach is to forecast the manpower needs of the economy. That is, it **stresses output from the educational system to meet the manpower needs** at some future date. This approach insists on three main elements such as

- ✓ Specification of the composition of manpower need at some future date.
- ✓ Specification of manpower availabilities.
- ✓ Specification which reconciles the former specification with the later.

### ***Advantages of Manpower requirement Approach***

1. Manpower could usefully call attention to extreme gaps and imbalances in the education output pattern that need remedy.

2. It gives educators useful guidance on how roughly educational qualifications of the labor force ought to be developed in the future.
3. It helps to reduce the labor cost as excess staff can be identified and thereby over staffing can be avoided.
4. The unemployment and underemployment which may result from some over-emphasis on manpower approach may become a challenge to move towards the right kind of education which may be development-oriented.
- 5.etc

#### ***Disadvantages of manpower approach***

1. It gives educational planner a limited guidance in the sense that it does not tell what can be actually achieved in every level of education e.g. primary education, secondary education, etc.
2. The approach says nothing about primary education, which is not considered to be work connected. By implication, manpower approach suggests the curbing of the expansion of primary education until the nation is rich enough to expand it. Hence, attention is focused on the cream of education that will contribute to manpower development in the society.
3. Most manpower needs are mostly needed in the urban employment. Thus, the planner who may be called to plan is not given any useful consideration about education in the rural areas.
4. The employment classifications and manpower ratios such as desirable ratio of engineers to technicians; doctors to nurses etc. and the assumed education qualifications corresponding to each category of job are borrowed ideas from industrialized countries or economy. This does not fit into the realities of less developed countries of Africa.
5. etc

#### **IV.3. Cost- benefit analysis approach**

One of the approaches which orient educational planners is cost benefit analysis which **compares the expenses of education and the expected outcomes**. Cost benefit analysis is a systematic process for calculating and comparing benefits and costs of a project, decision or government policy. Applying cost-benefit analysis in education means that education should be

provided basing on the benefit to be derived from it. Educational investment involves calculating the costs of education, estimating the benefits from education and comparing the benefit with the costs of getting anticipated returns. It is on this basis that decisions are made on the future pattern of resource allocation to and within the education sector.

### ***Characteristics of Cost- Benefit Analysis of Education***

The cost benefit analysis should be analyzed in rates of return. The rates of return are grouped in two according to Fakoya (2011).

#### **❖ The social rates of return**

This stresses the benefit to be derived by the state of investing in a particular form of education. The cost of education is usually borne by the society as a whole.

#### **❖ The private rates of return**

This is the investment by private individual and the expected benefits for acquiring a particular type of education. Maureen (2004: 59) describes private rate of return saying that: “*estimates of the private rate of return are intended to measure how profitable it is for the individual to spend money on his or her own education as a way of increasing his or her future earning power*”.

Based on the given description of these rates of return, let us say that Governments and individuals continue to invest in education because they feel it is a profitable investment. Government's investment in education is referred to as social investment, while that of individuals or parents is referred to as private investment.

### ***Measurement of costs***

The measurement of the costs of education involves more than a simple calculation of money expenditures. It involves an attempt to estimate the total cost of investment in education, in terms of alternative opportunities foregone either by society as a whole, or by the private individual.

The cost of education includes the value of teachers' time, books, materials and other goods or services, the value of the use of buildings and capital equipment, and finally the value of students' time, measured in terms of alternative uses (Maureen, 1992).

From what is said by the author, we realize that educational cost includes all forms of resources used in the process of educating people. This cost concerns physical resources, cost of services offered to students, cost of all forms of purchases used for providing education. Concrete examples of education cost are the following

- ❖ School fees paid by pupils and students
- ❖ Teacher salaries and other allowances
- ❖ Teachers training
- ❖ Purchase of textbooks and other school materials
- ❖ Classrooms construction and equipment, etc.

### ***Measurement of benefits***

To evaluate education as an investment we need a measure of education's expected contribution to future levels of income or output (Maureen, 1992: 21). The way in which education contributes to future income can be measured by the skills and knowledge got by an educated person and how he will use them in improving the productivity of labour. In general we can realize that the productivity of educated workers is higher than that of the uneducated. This will be reflected in increased output and in higher earnings for the educated.

#### ***a) Earnings as a measure of direct benefits***

Based on researches conducted for nearly 100 developed and developing countries, Maureen (2004) has showed that typical age-earnings profiles have the following characteristics:

- ❖ Earnings are highly correlated with education; at every age the highly educated earn more than workers with less education.
- ❖ Earnings increase with age up to a peak at middle age and then flatten, or even decline, up to the age of retirement.
- ❖ The profiles of highly educated workers are steeper than those of the less educated.
- ❖ The age at which earnings reach their peak is later for highly educated than for less educated workers and in few cases, the earnings of highly qualified manpower continue to rise until retirement.

#### ***b) Production as a measure of direct benefit.***

People with higher level of education tend to be more productive than people with lower level of education because they are enough skilled and have knowledge which help them in their work place. That is supported by Hough (1993) when he says that “*Economists have tended to concentrate on the evidence that exists in most countries that those people with higher levels of education on average receive higher incomes throughout their working lives than people with lower levels of education*”.

### ***Indirect benefit of education***

**The benefit of education can also be indirect and sometimes it is not easy to measure it.** For Maureen (2004: 39), education has also indirect and non economic benefits including social and cultural benefits. There are non-economic benefits to the individual, for example personal enjoyment of education known as the consumption values of education. The same author stresses other examples of indirect benefits such as health, reduced fertility rates among females with primary schooling and higher educational achievement among the children of educated mothers.

### ***Advantages of Cost-Benefits Analysis Approach***

1. By looking at the age earnings structure of the educated person, it is possible to measure or quantify the increase in productivity of an educated person.
2. The analysis can show or suggest the directions in which education systems in a society should expand so as to maximize the earning capacity of their products.
3. It shows the relationship between the cost of gaining more education and the increase in payment which results from additional education.

### ***Disadvantages of Cost-Benefits Analysis***

1. In African states, it is a wrong assumption to say that salaries reflect productivity.
2. It is difficult to measure the benefits, which derives from investing in any type of education.

3. In developing countries, differentials in earnings of workers cannot be attributed to additional education acquired but to other things such as habits, customs, family background, primordial factor, etc.
4. The salaries of civil servants are more influenced by economic variables than by productivity considerations.

## **CHAPTER V: BASIC AFRICAN PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

### **V.1. Lack of availability of accurate data**

Planning does not only require data but also accurate data especially on the demographic trends. In most cases, Africans obtain inaccurate data due to inadequate recording system and unavailability of reliable and complete data (Cook & Kuhn 1982). No effective planning can take place without required information (Lewis 1987).

In most developing countries census takers more often receive inaccurate or even false statements on for example age of people or even where children are born and not registered.

Enaohwo (1990) asserts that it is difficult to estimate how many classrooms, teachers, books, desks, and other materials needed to serve them appropriately, how much money all these would require and how much one would spend.

In the absence of accurate data, it is difficult therefore to estimate the school enrolments by age, sex locality or even the economic standards of a given year, and even to oppose decisions based on political reasons (Cook & Kuhn 1982).

National planners should have a data centre which has data on all important aspects of the economy and sectors of the nation for example data on registration of birth, school enrolments, and any other demographic data. They should be able to log into different web sites of different sectors and get current information for them to plan adequately<sup>1</sup>. There should be user package software related to planning and for easy communication.

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<sup>1</sup>

## **V.2. Unrealistic appraisal and forecasting**

Coombs (1970) explained that effective decision making requires the systematic analysis of need, and clear identification of goals and capacity to implement. This is not easy to achieve in practice as it requires discipline, determination, and not to rush. Unrealistic estimations of the capacity to implement over ambitious plans are a primary reason for the apparent failure of the planning process.

Unrealistic appraisal can be solved by clear evaluation of employees by considering different aspects, elements and values, following the right steps or procedures for workers appraisal. Forecasting requires thinking before taking action to avoid rushing into actions.

## **V.3. Political constraints**

Two basic factors have been addressed in this arena (McKinnon, 1973)

- a. Constraints due to lack of clear national educational goals and policies
- b. Constraints due to failure to separate technical and political aspects of educational decisions

In the first case existing policies are the main constraints to successful educational planning as the system lacks a clear direction and focus.

In the second case, as explained by Forojolla (1993), failure to distinguish between political and technical aspects of educational decisions leads to making key appointments in educational sector without considering the technical competence or experience of the appointees. This also leads to the formation of cliques and groups who have limited knowledge of educational planning process

All such cases compromise the proper planning and the implementation of the plans. Planners should know how to involve politicians as political goodwill is an absolute condition for the success of educational planning.

A determined effort on the part of the political and civil authorities to be consulted and be involved is a crucial ingredient to the purpose of resource mobilization and prioritisation of planned activities.



#### **V.4. Colonial influence**

Amar (1982) asserts that curriculum planning in developing nations sometimes hinder the process of finding solutions to local problems. For example, the case of a country where it never snows, the students in an electrical engineering class were taught to take into account the extra weight put on the high voltage power line by snow. The system of primary, secondary and university education patterned after the system of developed countries, and therefore require substantial adaptation.

As the influence of the political system, political leaders can also introduce a study program which seems to favor their positions such as their party's philosophies and ideologies or may prefer to promote the superiority of specific ethnic communities.

#### **V.5. Failure to pay attention to the components of the overall plans**

##### **Planners do not pay much attention to the components of the overall plans, or they**

Planners get so deeply involved in detail of micro plans that they forget the overall objectives of the plan). This may happen because planners may have little experience in large-scale systems and can only focus attention on immediate and less important issues or because the political climate may force educational planners to design an educational system to fit the needs of few powerful individuals. For example an influential politician may want to build a fully equipped school in a village where the demand for such services is small.

Education planners need regular sensitization and trainings in large systems of education and overall plans of the education system. As educational planners, it is good to know and maintain their roles and responsibilities without being taken up by any external influence.

#### **V.6. Shortage of resources**

In any country and at any time in history, availability of resources is limited. This is the situation when the resources cannot satisfy the minimum requirements. In this case therefore, the resources include human, financial, physical facilities and time. As an educational planner it is good to know how to allocate and use available resources to achieve educational goals.

##### ***a. Human resources (distribution of personnel and equity)***

There may be shortage of qualified teachers in schools and school inspectors to oversee the supervision of teachers as explained by Mutua and Namaswa (1992). This challenge is most evident with the introduction of universal primary education where a teacher is handling 80 pupils in a classroom.

There is a need therefore to improve the allocation of personnel and to optimize their use as well as to ensure that there is equity in distribution of personnel in both rural and urban areas.

***b. Financial resources (economic constraints)***

Worldwide inflation makes it difficult for developing nations to allocate adequate budget for maintaining educational services. Since all levels of education require funding, it is a problem confronting the planner to know how much funds should be allocated to each section considering that the national funds are always scarce. This results into thinly spreading of funds across the ministry of education.

The cost benefit analysis technique can be used to address this problem by determining the benefits of various educational plans and projects before plans are formulated and implemented. Feasibility studies can also help to address this problem before it emanates.

***c. Shortage of physical resources and facilities.***

This is in form of lacking enough learning and teaching materials, insufficient classrooms, libraries and laboratories, which make it difficult for planners to execute their duties with ease. There is where resource allocation is unbalanced between different levels of education such as primary, secondary and tertiary levels. To address this challenge it is suggested that the allocation of material resources be done equitably.

***d. The time factor***

. During planning, enough time is needed to collect, and analyze data, conduct meetings and report findings, obtaining approval and pilot studies among others. For that reason, planning consumes much time which is also limited like any other resource

Lets us take an example where the curriculum needs to be changed, teachers need to be trained, textbooks must be published, required facilities need to be purchased and all these take much time.

To address this issue therefore, planning should not be taken as a part time activity that can be done along with other duties, as it requires conducive environment, considerable thinking and ample time.

#### **V.7. Administrative constraints**

Education plans for improvement and expansion are normally executed by the administrative division. However, some of the administrators are not able to implement the plans because they lack the requisite skills and knowledge in planning (Forojala, 1993). Some leaders like spending much time performing hands on functions which they are comfortable with and neglect planning roles.

The successful implementation of plans depends on innovations and measures to increase managerial and administrative efficiency. However, successful planning to be realized, administrators need to get the right people qualified in planning.

#### **V.8. Focusing inward and Sisyphus syndrome**

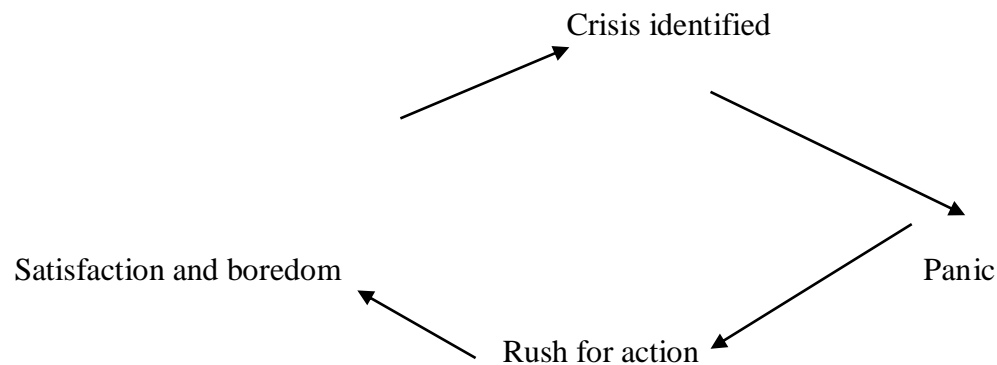
Many organizations hesitate or even refuse to implement any form of strategic planning because their managers believe that things are going well thus no need for change. By focusing inward we mean the belief that, if things are not broken, they should not be fixed. The problem with inward focus is that it generates contentment with the status quo that leads to resistance to change. Organizations with the inward focus present an obstacle to planning; the result is that the plan may not exist or be ineffective.

This can be solved by benchmarking practice. This is the practice of recognizing and examining the best practices in a similar institution and using this knowledge as a basis for improving all aspects of the organization.

By Sisyphus syndrome we mean an addiction to crisis management (Dew, 2007). It describes those organizations that fixate on dealing with the crises of the moment at the expense of proper planning. Some organizations may focus on routine activities that add little value to the

organization as their crises. In this crisis-focus, managers derive their satisfaction from the excitement created by the series of activities such as deadlines and meetings they have to undertake to solve the problem of the day and the sense of immediate accomplishment. This kind of addiction can lead managers to avoid both short term and long term planning.

#### **The diagram illustrating the crisis culture**



The Sisyphus syndrome can be solved by utilizing the services of an outside consultant.

Workshops can also be done to help managers discover for themselves where they are trapped in activities and focused on crisis, and where they need to redirect their attention in order to develop long-term strategic plans for achieving high quality success for the organization.

#### **V.9. Centralized control of planning process**

Cook (1995) observes that in some cases, planners are largely confined to the headquarters and this tends to divorce them from prevailing situations from rural areas, hence they remain ignorant of the realities of implementation in the field. It means that the planners at the headquarters are not fully aware of the objective conditions in the remote parts of the. For the plans to be successful there is a need for decentralization of planners and education sectors to other parts of the country. This will allow for the planners to receive inputs from all stakeholders and improve the value and relevance of the plans. Planners should also work hand in hand with stakeholders with stakeholders or users in order to make the plans compatible with the local needs and acceptable for implementation by those affected

#### **V.10. A pattern of endullment**

The concept of endullment originated in the field of education by Ira Shor at Columbia University. He found that classes which do not involve students will ultimately endull them (Dew, 2007). When the students have no choice about what to learn or how to learn, they are turned off by learning.

This disinterest in learning eventually leads to passive resistance, such as not doing homework or just not responding to questions in class. Dew continues to explain that an effective participative strategic planning process cannot occur in a culture of endullment - the dulling of people's mind as a result of their non participation. Non participation leads to low motivation, poor attendance, and refusal to cooperate to improve the system and learned apathy.

When people have little or no input into or understanding of the strategic plan or direction of the organization and how their work makes a difference, they will be turned off by working. Once an organization begins to develop a pattern of endullment, it can easily split into reification. Endulled people resist strategic planning process because they deny their ability to influence.

Overcoming endullment in either an education system or any working environment can happen only when planners make a concerted effort to change their style of planning and management from controlling to facilitating. The planner as a facilitator engages the work force in participating in the planning process, challenging them to take responsibilities and ownership for improvement. The best strategic plan shall be developed by the team that includes all people from all levels of the organization (Dew, 2007).

#### **V.11. Planner turnover**

Little (2003) observes that the composition of planning team may evolve. Planners come and go, and sometimes they retire and disappear from the system, planners facilitate and create change; they also impede change. The movement of planners from the scene can be a blessing in disguise; and of others an impediment for future development; and of others a significant loss of human resource. High rate of turnover of planners may have implications for continuity of the planning, as well as call for constant reorganization in the planning activities, besides creating the need for new staff to be oriented to planning work. This may slow down the pace of the planning work.

## **V.12. Resistance to change**

People fear and feel threatened by change. Williamson et al. (1997) assert that even among very progressive organizations there is significance resistance to planning. The feeling that planning is not hands-on and not related to the important day-to-day operations of institutions is frequently voiced. However, this point of view is short sighted and can inhibit long term success.

As a way of minimizing resistance to change, leaders should help the members of the organization see the anticipated benefits rather than the current challenges. To make change effectively implemented, Daft and Marcis (2006) suggest that leaders should establish a sense of urgency that change is really needed and develop a compelling vision and strategy, where the vision should be made attractive to the concerned members of the organization and to the stakeholders.

Moreover, major change takes time; hence to avoid discouragements there is a need to plan for short-term accomplishment that employees can recognize and celebrate. A highly visible and successful short-term accomplishment boosts the credibility of the change process and renews the commitment and enthusiasm of organizational members involved in change management.

## **CHAPTER VI: THE PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

### **Introduction**

Planning is a logical process where one step leads to another step, and any step is related to the economic, social, educational and other aspects in the internal and external environments. This chapter will shade light on the logical process of educational planning and the elements that influence each step in the process.

### **VI.1. First planning sessions: Preparation**

Planning partners need to agree on the preparation issues and the kind of process they desire to follow; thereafter they should follow their agreement. Here are some aspects to be agreed upon during the preparation sessions:

#### ***a. Identifying a facilitator***

The quality of any plan depends first and foremost upon the personality, group management skills, and technical knowledge of the facilitator. When planning for an organization, the facilitator can be identified from within the organization (internal facilitator) or outside (external facilitator). Some people find that most advantages are found in the external facilitator.

***b. Setting a conducive climate for planning***

A “conducive climate” refers to the required receptive climate about first what is to be planned, and second about any change that may accompany it. In most cases, employees and organizational leaders will naturally resist change or any challenge to their status quo. To create a receptive climate therefore, it is good to identify representative derived from all categories of stakeholders and educate them on the importance of the plan through meetings, use of media and group discussions.

***Identifying and understanding an organizational information base***

Strategic planning is based on both decision making and data collected. Just as the human body is made up of different systems and organs and understanding the health of a human being depends on some indicators (such energy level, temperature, etc.). Understanding the organization also depends on such factors as:

- Understanding the plans and prospects: past plans of the organization, other plans, etc.
- Enrolment history and projection
- Achievement scores
- Pupil-teacher ratios
- Expenditure per student
- Demographics trends
- Etc.

Data on such signs will serve during planning as reference point to reality

- c. ***The planning team:*** It is the team that will establish the aspirations and commitments of the organization for years to come and that may monitor the organization’s performance towards the plan

The characteristics of the team should:

- Be composed both strategically and operationally.
- Represent all the stakeholders including parents and local authorities.
- Be manageable in size. But, in medium-size institutions, two groups may be required to get the job done: a relatively large group to provide broad representation - legitimization of the planning process - and a smaller committee that does most of the actual work and makes recommendations to the larger group.
- The planning members must be of good will, articulate and willing to pursue consensus.

## **VI.2. Second planning sessions: Further steps in the planning process**

### ***Step One: Identifying the goals of education***

Educational plans should reflect the central planning purpose which is usually identified by national authorities. Such authorities usually think of the county's situation and want to address it. Characteristics of national goals of education include:

- Goals have a qualitative nature. They should address questions of value.
- They are stated in behavioral terms, e.g. change of attitudes.
- Goals are also reasonably achievable and measurable, but long-term and broad targets.
- The goals must be relevant, realizable, and capable of being operational.
- Goals should generate objectives:- short-term, measurable, and achievable targets.

### ***Step Two: Stating provisional targets***

This step implies identifying alternative ways of achieving the goals. In doing this, the planner needs to consider the alternatives in terms of: relative costs, relative benefits, time required, practical feasibility, and educational effectiveness.

Alternative means of achieving the objectives are examined in order to determine the most relevant and effective ones within allowable costs.

### ***Step Three: Feasibility testing***

Feasibility testing is a systematic process of scrutinizing all built-in assumptions and beliefs that generated the plan. It is important since it anticipates possible factors that will influence



educational plans, e.g. political groups, availability of resources, individual support, etc. and it helps to see the possibilities of achieving the plan's objectives. For this reason, the planner needs to consider these dimensions:

- i) Reactions which stem from socio-cultural attitudes and values
- ii) Pressures from political interests/power groups
- iii) Lack of support from the administrative/bureaucratic machinery
- iv) Incompatibility with economic conditions and market forces

The “closed” and/or “open” approaches can be used when the planner goes about the task of feasibility testing. The closed approach involves discussing and brainstorming sessions among the staff of an educational planning unit and clears any inconsistencies. However, discussions behind closed doors should not make planners assume that the public will accept their plans. The open approach involves hearing the views of external stakeholders. All those affected by the plan, those beneficiaries, those who will support it from a position, those who will carry the burden of its implementation, etc, should be brought together in order to test out their reaction.

#### ***Step Four: Plan formulation***

At this point the planner's task is to put his/her findings and conclusions in a suitable format. Attention should be paid to the clarity of the plan presentation because it will be presented to and approved by authorities or the public, who are not planning experts. It is necessary that the document be written logically and in a clear language. The document should be self-explanatory, so that the reader should be able to get salient information without having to seek help elsewhere

#### ***Step Five: Presenting the plan for approval, and choosing the optimum method for having it accepted by the authorities***

Educational authorities such as the Minister of education, the Provincial and District officers and directors of education are approached to approve and help identify the directions to be taken. It is also possible that the plan can be rejected, can be sent back for further revision or be accepted without alterations

#### ***Step Six: Implementation***

At this stage, each member of the planning team should know his/her task in the plan. Responsibilities are assigned. When the **team for strategic planning** is dissolved, there is need to form **an action team**. The whole intent of the strategic plan needs to be **translated into action plan or strategic action**. Activities required in the implementation stage include assuming a workable plan and identifying strategic responsibilities, translation of strategic plan into action plan while taking into account the expectations of the involved personnel, identifying job components and rationale associated with each component, performance expectation in each area, etc.

#### ***Step Seven: Evaluation and feedback***

Evaluation and feedback is not necessarily the last stage, but a way of monitoring how the planning process is proceeding in light of the expectations. In fact, the plan needs to have a self-evaluating mechanism by which its application is refined in the light of experience, so as to answer the following questions: has the plan conformed to the objectives? Have these objectives been achieved? What is the degree of success or failure of the plan?

## **CHAPTER VII: STRATEGIC PLANNING AS AN EXAMPLE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING**

**The Strategic planning** is a process undertaken by an organization to develop a plan for achievement of its overall long-term organizational goals. There is no one model of strategic planning. However, the strategic planning process should include a **situational analysis**. This consists of looking at the current external and internal environment the organization finds itself in, formulating organizational objectives and strategies based upon the environmental assessment, and developing procedures to implement and evaluate the strategic plan. Strategic plans for business organizations often cover a three-to-five year period, but if the business or its environment is highly dynamic, a shorter period may be advisable.

### **The Strategic Planning Process**

**Vision, Mission & and value  
statements**



**Environmental  
Scanning**



**Strategy  
Formulation**



**Strategy  
Implementation**



**Evaluation  
& Control**

## **VII.1. Vision, mission, and value statements**

### **VII.1.1. Writing the Vision Statement:**

Write the vision statement by answering the question: “What do you hope for your university, program, school, students and stakeholders?” Ideally, this should be written in a compelling, inspirational fashion.

### **VII.1.2. Writing the Mission Statement:**

Write a concise description of the purpose of your university, program or school. Answer the question: “Why does our university, program or school exist?” When answering this question, include the nature of your educational products and the groups of students and stakeholders who buy or are affected by your educational products and services. The mission statement should provide continued direction and focus to your plans and operations in your university, school or program.

### **VII.1.3 Writing the Value Statement:**

Write down the most important values on which you want your university, school or program to operate. The value statement depicts priorities in how the university, school or program carries out its activities with stakeholders.

## **VII.2. Environmental scanning**

The environmental scanning will consist in conducting both SWOT analysis and PEST analysis

### **a) SWOT analysis**

#### ***Conduct an Internal Environment Analysis (SW):***

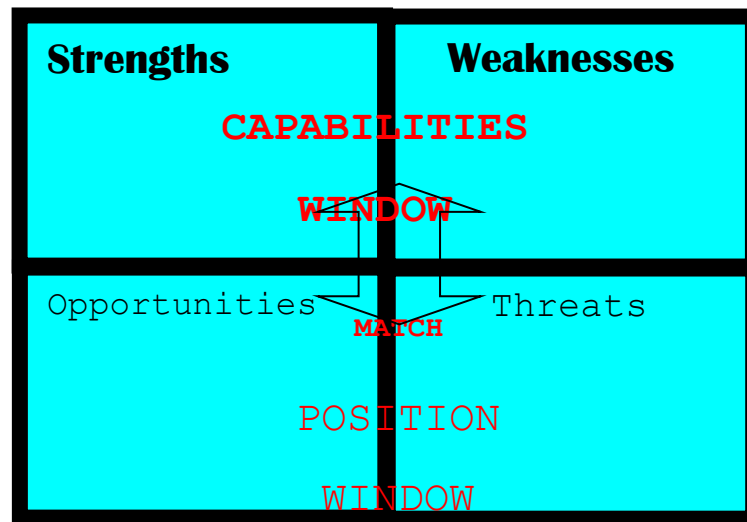
Write down your thoughts from your internal analysis, including the major strengths and weaknesses of your institution, school or program.

#### ***Conduct an External Environment Analysis (OT):***

Write down your thoughts from an external analysis. An external analysis looks at the opportunities and threats from the surrounding of the institution, which can affect it positively (opportunities) or negatively (threats).

The figure below shows an analysis of the internal and external environmental factors which will result in the traditional **SWOT** matrix where, in reality, “SW” represents the “Capabilities dimension” of the institution, and “OT” represents its “Position Dimension”

### SWOT “Capabilities” and “Position” Matrix



### Strengths

Organization’s strengths are its resources and capabilities that can be used as a basis for developing a competitive advantage. Examples of such strengths include:

- patents
- strong brand names
- good reputation among customers
- cost advantages from proprietary know-how
- exclusive access to high grade natural resources

- favorable access to distribution networks

## **Weaknesses**

The absence of certain strengths may be viewed as a weakness. For example, each of the following may be considered weaknesses:

- lack of patent protection
- a weak brand name
- poor reputation among customers
- high cost structure
- lack of access to the best natural resources
- lack of access to key distribution channels

In some cases, a weakness may be the flip side of a strength. Take the case in which a firm has a large amount of manufacturing capacity. While this capacity may be considered a strength that competitors do not share, it also may be considered a weakness if the large investment in manufacturing capacity prevents the firm from reacting quickly to changes in the strategic environment.

## **Opportunities**

The external environmental analysis may reveal certain new opportunities for profit and growth. Some examples of such opportunities include:

- an unfulfilled customer need
- arrival of new technologies
- loosening of regulations
- removal of international trade barriers

## **Threats**

Changes in the external environmental also may present threats to the firm. Some examples of such threats include:

- shifts in consumer tastes away from the firm's products
- emergence of substitute products
- new regulations
- increased trade barriers

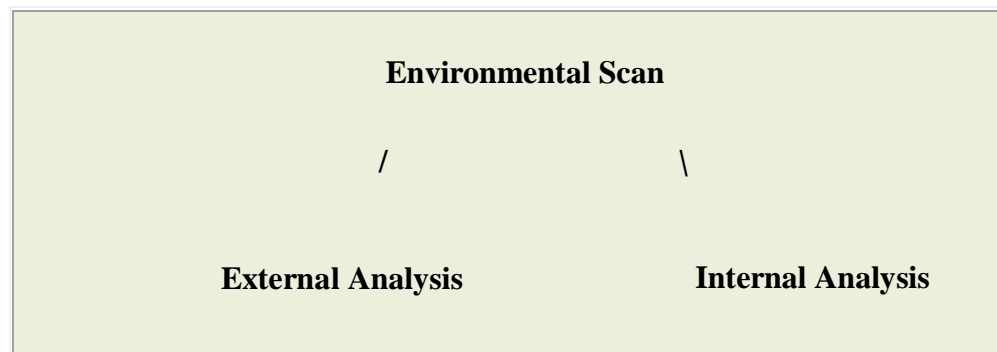
**In class, students should discuss on concrete examples of SWOT for learning institutions**

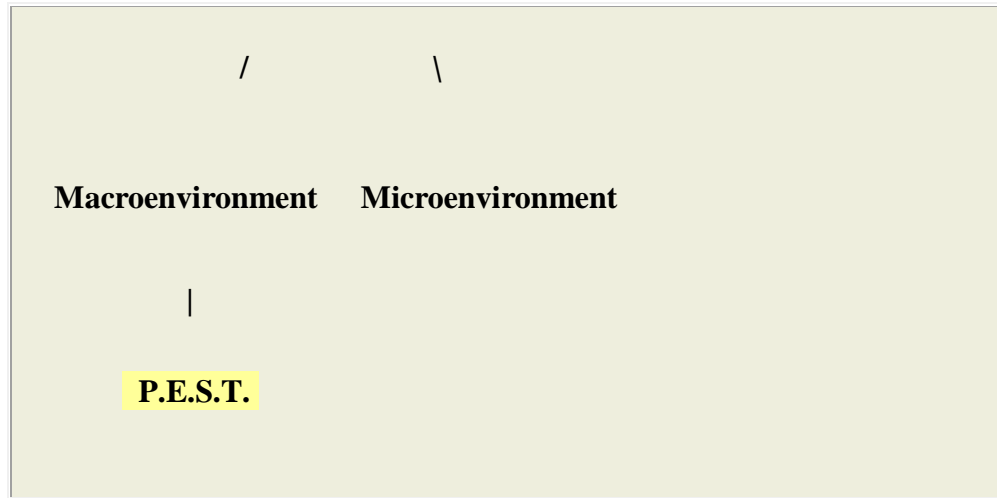
#### **b) PEST analysis**

As we have said, the SWOT analysis consists in analysing both internal and external environment but here we insist in micro environment. In environmental scanning, it will also be important to analyse the factors of macro environment in which the organization operates. A scan of the external macro-environment in which the organization operates can be expressed in terms of the following factors:

- **Political**
- **Economic**
- **Social**
- **Technological**

The acronym **PEST** (or sometimes rearranged as "STEP") is used to describe a framework for the analysis of these macro-environmental factors. A PEST analysis fits into an overall environmental scan as shown in the following diagram:





## **Political Factors**

Political factors include government regulations and legal issues and define both formal and informal rules under which the firm must operate. Some examples include:

- tax policy
- employment laws
- environmental regulations
- trade restrictions and tariffs
- political stability

## **Economic Factors**

Economic factors affect the purchasing power of potential customers and the firm's cost of capital. The following are examples of factors in the macro economy:

- economic growth
- interest rates
- exchange rates
- inflation rate



## **Social Factors**

Social factors include the demographic and cultural aspects of the external macro environment. These factors affect customer needs and the size of potential markets. Some social factors include:

- health consciousness
- population growth rate
- age distribution
- career attitudes
- emphasis on safety

## **Technological Factors**

Technological factors can lower barriers to entry, reduce minimum efficient production levels, and influence outsourcing decisions. Some technological factors include:

- automation
- technology incentives
- rate of technological change

Here, you will develop an organizational vision and a mission statement that describes the future of your organization - where it wants to be, its essential values, and what it wants to do. After you have defined the organization's vision and mission, you can begin to formulate a detailed strategy to achieve them.

## **VII.3.Strategy Formulation**

Given the information from the environmental scan, the firm should match its strengths to the opportunities that it has identified, while addressing its weaknesses and external threats.

Thereafter the organization will formulate all possible strategies which will lead to the overall strategic goal or vision.

#### **VII.4. Strategy Implementation**

The selected strategy is implemented by means of programs, budgets, and procedures. Implementation involves organization of the firm's resources and motivation of the staff to achieve objectives.

The way in which the strategy is implemented can have a significant impact on whether it will be successful. In a large company, those who implement the strategy likely will be different people from those who formulated it. For this reason, care must be taken to communicate the strategy and the reasoning behind it. Otherwise, the implementation might not succeed if the strategy is misunderstood or if lower-level managers resist its implementation because they do not understand why the particular strategy was selected.

#### **VII.5. Evaluation & Control**

The implementation of the strategy must be monitored and adjustments made as needed. Evaluation and control consists of the following steps:

1. Define parameters to be measured
2. Define target values for those parameters
3. Perform measurements
4. Compare measured results to the pre-defined standard
5. Make necessary changes

### **CHAPTER VIII: SCHOOL MAPPING AS A MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AT THE LOCAL LEVEL**

#### **VIII.1. Meaning of a school map**

The school mapping is one of the planning at local or sub-regional level. It consists of a set of techniques and procedures used to plan for the needs of education in regional or local level, as well as the means used to achieve them. It is therefore not just a map where there are reports of large-scale location or the location of existing schools for administrative purposes even if they are the basis for the preparation of what we might call the prospective school map. In addition to

existing schools, the prospective school map indicates schools to build, schools to repair, schools to equip at short or long term.

## **VIII. 2. Why the use of technical school map?**

The use of technical school map was born of the shortcomings observed at the macro-educational planning. Indeed, a thorough analysis of the educational planning shows that the development of education in both developed and developing countries is not always in line with expectations. Also, the policies defined at the national level are not always implemented because they are unsuited to the realities.

Despite the priorities at the national level planning, there are still disparities in the regions and often in highly developed areas, education continues to grow more while in others there is no significant progress. The reason of unbalances in educational development at different regions or levels is explained in three important ways:

1. Planners working at the ministry generally have insufficient knowledge of regional and local entities. Unable to make a careful diagnosis of the features of the population to be served or different working conditions of different types of schools, teachers and students, they usually work with statistics that deviate from certain realities. Consequently, the objectives are unattainable because they are unsuitable for certain regions.
2. There is a little emphasis on how decisions are implemented on the ground, even if the schedule exists, it stops at the publication of the plan; its implementation is left to the direction of administrators who generally have not participated in its elaboration. The implementation performance is reduced most often to send circulars and directives from the ministry, which guidelines are not always applicable as they are, to any situation.
3. The participation of the beneficiary population, of the educational services, and to a lesser extent that of local staff in the process of decision making (setting objectives and means) is very small. Therefore, implementers of the plan may feel less concerned by its success since the plan is not the result of their efforts, but of central government's. So to overcome these shortcomings we introduce the micro- planning as an essential complement to the macro- level planning. In planning the educational needs from the

database, it is easier to put into practice the overall objectives through the achievement in the field.

### **VIII.3. Stages of the development of the prospective school map**

The school mapping at the local level can be carried out according to the following three stages:

- a) Diagnosis of the existing situation
- b) Projection of future requirements and
- c) Drawing up of a prospective school map

#### **a) Stage I : Diagnosis of the existing situation**

It is important to diagnose or assess the educational development in the selected area. The term “diagnosis” is generally used in medicine: a physician does not prescribe medicines without having made a careful study of his patient’s state. In the same way the educational planner will not make proposals for the location of new institutions, for the repair of premises or the allocation of teachers, without having previously studied the level of development of the educational system and the way it works: this will allow him to identify whatever gaps or imbalances there may be. In preparing your diagnosis you will have to deal with the following matters :

#### **➤ *Coverage of the educational system : accessibility and access to educational system***

The coverage of the educational system consists in studying the accessibility and the access to education.

The problem of coverage of an educational system may be summed up in two questions :

- a) Is the school network, as it is now organised and territorially distributed, such as to serve efficiently the school-age population or the region or area under study ? In other words, this is a matter of studying the location of the various schools in the different areas and of seeing in particular how near a school is to the homes of the pupils and of how easily the latter can travel

from one to the other. This is what is called the accessibility of the school network for the region's school-age population.

b) Do the families and their children make efficient use of the existing school network?

To answer this it is necessary to study the interaction between families' demand and educational supply as represented by the existing school network.

#### **- Analysis of the school network's accessibility**

Accessibility to education can be of three kinds. Firstly, physical accessibility, which emphasizes that geographical distance between schools and households, is to be minimized. Secondly, economic accessibility, which implies the financial capacity of households to send children to schools even when facilities are easily accessible in a geographical sense. Thirdly, social accessibility which means that social stratification based on caste, class and religion has implications for access available public provisions. In countries like India various social factors come in the way of sending children to school. While the potential demand for education depends on physical access, the realized/effective household demand depends on economic and social access. In other words, existence of schooling facilities in any particular geographical area does not necessarily lead to an increase in household demand for schooling. The relative economic and social status to a large extent determines the realized household demand for education

#### **- Analysis of access**

Access is the result of the interaction between family demand and the educational supply presented by the network of existing schools

Faced with such school supply, what proportions of children take effective advantage of it or benefit from it? Concretely access to education is shown by indicators such as pupils' or students' admission, their enrolment, and their transition from a cycle to the other:

a) admitted to a given level

b) finishing this level and going on to the next (transition rate). Further, the ages of children in school do not always coincide with the official age for the level of education concerned and it

must be borne in mind that this complicates the definition of concepts and the calculation of indicators.

## **1. Admission rate**

Right from the first entry level, pupils' ages do not correspond to the official admission age, since both early and late entry occur. For this reason three types of admission rate are distinguished:

### **a) Gross Intake Rate (GIR) or Gross Admission Rate (GAR)**

Total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official primary school-entrance age. The new-entry group is not to be confused with 1<sup>st</sup> year enrolment since in this are included repeaters.

$$\text{GAR} = \frac{\text{Number of the new intrants in P1 in year } t}{\text{Population of related school age (7 years in our case)}} \times 100$$

### **b) Net Intake Rate (NIR) or Net Admission Rate (NAR)**

The total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary school-entrance age, expressed as a percentage of the population of the same age.

$$\text{NAR} = \frac{\text{Number of 7 years new intrants in P1 in school year } t}{\text{Population of 7 years in school year } t \text{ (in our case)}} \times 100$$

### **c) Age-specific admission rate**

The age-specific admission rate gives a more exact idea of entry. Here in fact distinctions are made among entries according to the children's ages and instead of having a single admission rate (as is the case with the apparent admission rate) one has a series of admission rates corresponding to different ages for example, we may calculate admission rates for 5-year olds, 6-year olds, 7-year olds, etc. The admission rate for children aged 6, for example, is calculated as follows :

$$\text{6-year old admission rate} = \frac{\text{new 6-year entries}}{\text{6 - year age-group}} \times 100$$

## **2. Enrolment rate**

The enrolment rate is especially useful because it enables a direct and quick idea to be got of the enrolment in the different zones and regions, and makes comparisons easy.

Three types of enrolment rate are distinguished,

**a) Gross enrolment rate ( GER) :** this rate is calculated by dividing total enrolment in a given educational level (whatever may be the pupils' ages) by the age group corresponding to the official age for the level, and converting the result to a percentage. If, for example, primary education lasts for 6 years and if the official entry age is 6 years, the official age group corresponding to primary education is the 6 to 11 years group. The gross enrolment rate is therefore expressed thus :

$$\text{GER} = \frac{\text{total primary enrolment}}{\text{6 - 11 age-group}} \times 100$$

**b) Net enrolment rate(NER) :** whereas above we have taken total enrolment, irrespective of age, the net enrolment rate is the enrolment of the official age-group for a given level expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. In our example this has been taken as 6 - 11 years.

Hence the net enrolment rate is calculated on the basis of the following formula :

$$\text{NER} = \frac{\text{pupils aged 6-11}}{\text{6 - 11 age-group}} \times 100$$

**c) Age-specific enrolment rate( ASER) :** instead of calculating the enrolment rate for a complete age-group one may also do it specifically for each annual age-group. For example, the enrolment rate for 7-year olds is obtained by making the following calculation :

### 3. Transition rate

One may also deal with those who, having reached the end of one level, succeed in passing into a higher one, and this is what one tries to do by calculating transition rates. The transition rate from primary to secondary education shows the percentage of pupils in the final class of primary

education who are admitted to continue their studies in secondary education during the following year. This rate is calculated as follow :

$$\text{Transition rate to primary education} = \frac{\text{number of new entrants in S1 in year } t}{\text{number of pupils in P6 in year } t-1} \times 100$$

$$\text{Transition rate to secondary education} = \frac{\text{number of new entrants in S4 in year } t}{\text{number of pupils in S3 in year } t-1} \times 100$$

### ➤ *Internal efficiency of the educational system*

If the internal efficiency of the educational system is defined as its ability to educate the greatest number of pupils who have entered the system, in the shortest time and with the least use of financial and human resources, the flow of such pupils needs to be followed throughout the system for the duration of each level of study. Apart from purely financial aspects, the means generally used to follow this flow and to measure the system's internal efficiency are :promotion, repetition drop-out; transition rate and completion rate.

### **Flow analysis**

Flow analysis of enrolment is by far the most commonly employed method to analyze and study the flow of pupils through the education system. It is often used to assess the level of internal efficiency and wastage of the system, as well as in projecting future enrolment.

Essentially, pupils enrolled at any grade in a school system can be represented as in Diagram 1 on the next page, where it is shown that enrolment in any grade consists of either promotees from a lower grade of previous year or new entrants if this is the first grade, plus repeaters from the last year in the same grade.

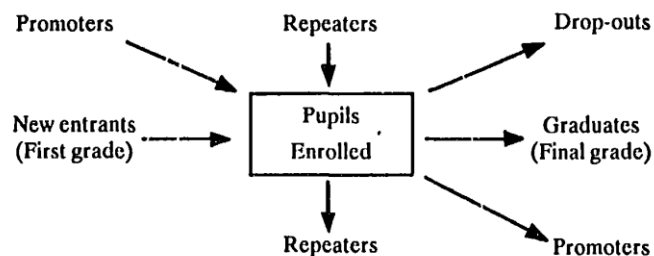


Diagram 1. Pupil flow

At the end of the school year, a number of them will be promoted to the next higher grade, while some will repeat the same grade. A few may have dropped out of the school in the meantime due to various reasons. If this grade happens to be the final grade, the promotees are actually the graduates.

## **1. Promotion Rate**



The number of pupils entering a given grade of education as a percentage of the pupils who were enrolled in previous grade in the previous year.

$$\text{PR} = \frac{\text{number of pupils promoted in the next grade in year } t}{\text{number of pupils enrolled in the previous grade in year } t-1} \times 100$$

## 2. Repetition Rate

Proportion of pupils enrolled in a given grade at given school year who study in the same grade in the following school year.

$$\text{RR} = \frac{\text{number of pupils repeating in a grade in year } t}{\text{number of pupils enrolled in that grade in year } t-1} \times 100$$

## 3. Dropout Rate

The percentage of pupils who dropped out the school without completing the grade they was enrolled in previous year.

$$\text{DR} = \frac{\text{number of pupils who dropped out the school in a grade in year } t}{\text{number of pupils enrolled in that grade in year } t-1} \times 100$$

Dropout rate can also be obtained by subtracting the sum of promotion rate and repetition rate from 100 in a given school year.

$$\text{DR} = 100\% - (\text{PR} + \text{RR})$$

## Completion Rate (CR)

The number of new entrants in last grade for each level in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the total number of population having official age for being in the last grade for each level. The completion rate is also known as the Gross Intake Ratio in the last grade (GIRLG) for each level.

$$\text{CR} = \frac{\text{number of new entrants in P6 school in year } t}{\text{population aged 12 years in school year } t} \times 100$$

$$\text{CR} = \frac{\text{number of new entrants in S3 school in year } t}{\text{population aged 15 years in school year } t} \times 100$$

$$\text{CR} = \frac{\text{number of new entrants in S6 school in year } t}{\text{population aged 18 years in school year } t} \times 100$$

### b) Stage II: Making projection of future requirements

After a comprehensive diagnosis, it is necessary to make projections about future demand in education and future supply and the comparison between them will help a planner to take decisions which will lead in providing for example, equal opportunity of access to education, improving teaching learning, more efficient use of human and physical resources, of teaching material and facilities

**C) Stage III: Drawing up of a prospective school map:** It consists in preparation of proposals for the reorganization of the network of educational institutions. These should, at one and the same time, bring about equality of educational opportunity, better utilization of resources and adherence to certain norms for the use of teachers, premises, etc.. Proposals will have different dimensions from country to country. In some countries they will bear only upon certain aspects of educational supply, such as the location and size of school buildings.

In others, the proposals will have a wider range and aim at a more radical reorganization of educational supply, involving transfer of teachers among institutions, adaptation of curricula and modifications of the school calendar. Others will, in addition, try to reduce inequalities through actions at the demand level and will include various measures to encourage school attendance, such as: school meals, free school books, etc.. In these last cases, the proposals are really an exercise in educational micro planning. Participation of the population groups concerned may be sought from the time the diagnosis is formulated. In all cases, when it comes to proposals, lengthy discussions should be arranged so as to obtain, if possible, the approval of the groups concerned. In the absence of such participation in decisions, subsequent implementation of the school map could prove difficult. The diagram below summarize clearly these stages

# Methodology stages in the preparation of the detailed local school map

