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Moving forward

Joel R. Noche

The Philippine Education Research Journal was launched on December 3, 2015 at the 2015 Philippine Education Conference as the official research publication of the Private Education Assistance Committee. Focusing on Philippine education, it is a forum where policy and practice as well as public and private education can and will meet.

Its first issue (volume 2019, number 1) has two refereed articles. Its second issue (volume 2020, numbers 1-2) has five refereed articles. This issue (volume 2025, number 1) is its third. The goal is to regularly publish five refereed articles in each issue, with two issues per yearly volume.

Many PERJ refereed articles are papers presented in conferences or are the results of theses or dissertations. The PERJ policies on paper presentations and preprints published in this issue should clarify which submissions can be considered for publication and which cannot.

Also included in this issue is an information item to help authors write articles that are more likely to be accepted for publication.

I thank the PEAC National Secretariat and, in particular, its Communications and Research Unit, for their support. I also thank the editorial board members and the referees for their time and effort in ensuring that submissions are thoroughly peer reviewed; their names are listed here in gratitude for their contributions.

Addendum to editorial policies and procedures

This is an addendum to the editorial policies and procedures published in the PERJ December 2019 issue.

Policies on paper presentations and preprints

A documentation of a master's thesis or a doctoral dissertation is not considered a publication. A submission that is based on a master's thesis or a doctoral dissertation (and is otherwise not previously published) is considered as previously unpublished. The thesis or dissertation must be cited in the submission.

If a submission has a substantially similar version previously presented in a conference (or a similar event) but not published in the conference proceedings (or elsewhere) (and the submission is otherwise not previously published), then the submission is considered as previously unpublished. In particular, if only the title or the abstract (or both) of the paper is published in the conference proceedings (or elsewhere) (and the submission is otherwise not previously published), then the submission is considered as previously unpublished. The paper presentation must be cited in the submission.

If a submission has a substantially similar version previously presented in a conference (or a similar event) and is published in the conference proceedings (or elsewhere), then the submission is considered as previously published.

A preprint is defined here as a written work that has no indication of being previously published and is publicly accessible (for example, though an online repository).

If a submission has a substantially similar version that is a preprint (and is otherwise not previously published), then the submission is considered as previously unpublished. The preprint is not required to be cited in the submission.

Advice on writing PERJ refereed articles

Manuscripts submitted for possible publication as Philippine Education Research Journal (PERJ) refereed articles are more likely to be accepted if the authors follow the recommendations listed here.

Follow the PERJ guidelines

The PERJ Author Guidelines (Philippine Education Research Journal, 2019a) state the general requirements for Refereed Article submissions. (The requirement for the abstract has changed since these Author Guidelines were published. "Structured abstracts" (2019) are now required.) More requirements are in the included Submission Preparation Checklist (SPC). Additional rules on citation are in the addendum to the editorial policies and procedures (in this issue).

The title and the ordered list of authors in the SPC must be the same as the ones in the manuscript.

Use the American Psychological Association (APA) (2024) style for numbers and statistics. Do not use both numerals and words to denote the same number. For example, you may write "There were 40 participants" or "Forty participants volunteered" but not "forty (40) participants."

You may use an online citation generator to help you write the reference list in APA style.

The PERJ Review Guidelines for Refereed Articles (Philippine Education Research Journal, 2019b) are intended for referees but they can also guide authors in creating submissions that are more likely to be accepted.

Be clear and succinct

Be clear. Include all the important details. Be succinct.
Exclude all the unimportant details.

For example, instead of writing “Participants were interviewed,” consider including relevant information and writing something like “Participants were individually given face-to-face semi-structured interviews at the same venue by the same interviewer.”

Instead of writing "After obtaining the ages of the participants, it was determined that the mean of the ages was 18.2 years and the standard deviation of the ages was 2.1 years," write "Participants were on average 18.2 years old ($SD = 2.1$)."

Support statements presented as facts

Facts that are common knowledge (that is, found in many sources) and statements presented as opinions do not

need to be supported with citations or evidence. For example, there is no need to provide citations or evidence for Newton's law of universal gravitation or for the statement "it seems that many student teachers have misconceptions about gravity."

Statements presented as facts but are not common knowledge should be supported by a citation (to a reference claiming it) or by evidence (presented in the study described in the manuscript).

For example, the statement “A common misconception of some student teachers is that heavier objects fall faster” needs to be supported, either by a citation (such as Syuhendri (2019)), or by results presented in the manuscript.

Short direct quotations should be enclosed in quotation marks; long direct quotations should be in a separate indented block paragraph. If not, then you are implying that the words are your own (when they are not). This is considered plagiarism (even if the source is cited).

All references cited in the text should be in the reference list; all references in the reference list should be cited in the text.

Do not overgeneralize. If a sample is not representative of a population, then a statement about the sample is not applicable to the population.

Rewrite theses or dissertations

A thesis or a dissertation is a complete documentation of a study; a journal article is a summary of the study. When converting a thesis or a dissertation into a journal article, do not simply delete entire sections and leave the other sections unchanged. This can remove important information and retain nonessential details. For each section, write a concise summary.

If a table or a figure is removed, then renumber the remaining tables and figures and the references to them if needed.

Appendices containing raw data, copies of the research instruments used, letters or correspondence, and the author's curriculum vitae are generally not included in a journal article and so should not be included in a submitted manuscript.

Some theses or dissertations have the reference list divided into categories (such as “Books,” “Periodicals,” and “Documents and Unpublished Works”). This is not done in journal articles.

Limit acknowledgments to those who provided financial support (grants, scholarships, fellowships), ac-

cess to resources (facilities, equipment, materials, information), technical assistance (in data collection, entry, analysis), or comments (from peers, mentors, referees). Acknowledgments to those who provided moral or emotional support may be appropriate in theses and dissertations but are often inappropriate in journal articles.

Revise and resubmit

Submissions that are not declined are most often returned for revision (instead of accepted as is). Submissions are reviewed independently (that is, referees do not see the other reviews), so reviews can be in conflict in some aspect. Look at the entirety of the reviews and address most, if not all, of the concerns. In the cover letter accompanying your revision, answer each question and respond to each suggestion of the reviewers.

A manuscript returned for revision may have its title changed but its list of authors and the order of their names should be the same.

Get published

If your manuscript is relevant, valid, original, ethical, clear, significant, and follows the prescribed format, then it is likely to be accepted for publication in the PERJ.

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for volumes 2019 and 2020

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Lalaine F. Yanilla Aquino, Ph.D.
and some anonymous referees

These referees include those who reviewed submissions that were declined or that were returned for revision and are still being revised. Referees listed here will no longer be listed in future issues unless they serve as referees again later.

Identified needs of international students in a Philippine university: Bases for the development of a multicultural guidance manual

Merle C. Torres^{1*}

Structured abstract

Background: The University of Perpetual Help System DALTA (UPHSD), Las Piñas campus needs to identify and address the needs of their many enrolled international students.

Purpose: Provide quality guidance services to UPHSD international students through a comprehensive, customized guidance program.

Participants: A random sample of 398 UPHSD international undergraduate students from Asia, Africa, Australia, and North America answered a questionnaire. Of these, 20 were purposively selected and given a group interview.

Research design: Mixed methods research design

Data collection and analysis: The questionnaire was a researcher-made instrument on the identified needs of UPHSD international students. Its validity was computed through the reliability coefficient and Cronbach's alpha test. The analysis and interpretation of socio-demographic data utilized frequencies, percentages, weighted means, and ranking. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for significant differences in the needs of the various nationalities. The Tukey honestly significant difference method was used in conjunction with ANOVA (post-hoc analysis) to find which of these nationalities were significantly different from each other.

Findings: Personal needs (improvement of personality, maintaining good health, and work after graduation) ranked first. There is a significant difference between the needs of the African and the Asian groups in terms of family, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. Africans and Australians with North Americans significantly differ in their academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. A significant difference exists between the family, academic, coping mechanism, and social support needs of the Asian and the Australian with North American groups. Asians, Africans, and Australians with North Americans significantly differ in their needs in terms of family, academic, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. The group interview revealed the following themes: perceived quality education in UPHSD, equality in learning, career development, self-worth development, social support, and discrimination.

Conclusions and recommendations: The results of this study will be used in the development of a custom-made multicultural guidance manual that contains substantial programs that will address the academic needs, career needs, personal and social needs, and responsive services needs of international students. There should be a follow-up study to measure the effectiveness of the guidance curriculum.

Keywords

multicultural guidance manual, guidance services, international students' needs

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Introduction

Multiculturalism in schools creates a significant change in the Philippine educational setting that greatly affects the teaching and learning environment. This brings challenges to school administrators, teachers, and students both local and foreign. There is a need for the different departments of the academe to be ready with policies and guidelines that appropriately address the needs of

foreign students. The learning environment needs to be ready to deliver quality services to multicultural students.

The admission of international students oftentimes becomes a crucial problem which remains unaddressed because of a lack of an effective school guidance program for both local and international students. This is very vital for international students because they naturally will be encountering personal problems in dealing

with a different cultural environment. This poses collective challenges to guidance counselors, teachers, and school administrators. The guidance counselors must be vigilant enough to determine how well they can help international students cope with cultural problems that they may encounter in the future.

The review of literature in multicultural education as pointed out by Banks (Chin, 2013) gives a strong basis in planning and programming the education of foreign students. Sarino (2012) proved that foreign students like to study in the Philippines to further develop their talents and potentials toward their chosen careers. Gaerlan et al. (2011) and Sicat (2011) concluded in their study that most international students preferred to study in the Philippines due to the proximity of the countries, low cost of tertiary education compared to others, and well-established communities.

Furthermore, Hwang et al. (2014) showed a low rate in the utilization of guidance services by international students in different colleges and universities in the US. However, Hayes et al. (2011) showed that counseling is the service most utilized by international students to address their psychosocial distress caused by their having less family support and a history of previous psychological problems. Similarly, Murray et al. (2016) revealed that counseling services are an effective intervention to manage the problems of international students. Meilman (2016) pointed out the pressures of the guidance staff on providing more counseling and psychiatric services and their limitations as service providers in handling the problems of international students.

The foreign studies of Ellis-Bosold and Thornton-Orr (2013), Maundeni et al. (2010), Samouei et al. (2013), Sultana and Smith (2011), Tas (2013), and Wa-Mbaleka and Joseph (2013) investigated the needs of college international students in adapting to the culture of the country they are studying in; especially addressing the language barrier that deters their adjustments and academic activities.

Gysbers (Good et al., 1994) believed that the availability of a comprehensive guidance program is important to the development of the students. The needs assessments conducted by Dela Cruz (2013) and Dela Paz and Torres (2014) showed that students believe that higher learning institutions need to improve their guidance services and update their multicultural guidance programs.

While there are studies identifying the needs of international students, there does not yet seem to be one focusing on using these as the bases for creating a multicultural guidance manual embedding programs to address their needs.

Statement of the problem

This study aims to answer these research questions:

1. What are the needs of international students in terms of personal, family, career, social, cultural, academic, academic support, safety, extra-curricular, coping mechanism, and social support needs?
2. Are there significant differences in the needs of the student-respondents when grouped according to their nationalities?
3. What programs should be integrated into the multicultural guidance manual that will address these identified needs?

Theoretical framework

This study is intended to identify the needs of the student-respondents that will be the bases for the development of a multicultural guidance manual embedding programs that will address the identified needs of international students. This study is anchored on the acculturation theory of Berry (Kuo, 2014) on types of adaptation adjustment like behavioral shift, psychopathology, and acculturative stress. The behavioral shift to acculturative stress is the necessary adaptation process by anyone to overcome the stress and discomfort in their adjustment to the new way of life. A healthy adaptation will facilitate comfort, and new learning to adapt to the proper way of life will eventually result in becoming mature and responsible students even far away from their homeland.

The W-curve transition model of Gullahorn (Howell, 2014) determines the types of adjustments: the feeling of excitement to enter the new place, accommodation and warm welcome provided to the individual which gives a feeling of satisfaction and comfort to the new environment, the development of comfort through transitional skills and confidence in adjusting to the new culture, mental isolation when a person has not yet integrated the new values and customs and may have the mind-set of going home to feel close to old friends, values, etc., and the acceptance of integration and the state of being connected to a new educational culture and environment.

All the above-mentioned theories are put together in this study to design a theoretical concept and the variables pertaining to the subject of this study. The respondents' demographic profile in terms of age, gender, nationality, and length of stay in the university serves as a basis for the respondents' background in this study. The researcher assumes that these respondent data are relevant variables that may lead to the different needs in the areas of personal, family, career, social, cultural, academic, academic support, safety, extra-curricular, coping mechanism, and social support needs. The availability of a comprehensive guidance program that addresses all the needs of the student-respondents will create an impact on the adjustment and career development of the students that lead to self-development and a balanced student life.

Table 1. Summary of reliability coefficient and Cronbach's alpha results for the questionnaire

Need areas	Items	Reliability coefficient	Interpretation on reliability	Cronbach's alpha	Interpretation on reliability
Personal needs	11	0.75	High	0.65	Acceptable
Family needs	8	0.90	Very high	0.68	Acceptable
Career needs	6	0.80	High	0.75	High
Social needs	7	0.82	High	0.66	Acceptable
Cultural needs	3	0.70	High	0.38	Low
Academic needs	9	0.63	Moderate	0.63	Acceptable
Academic support needs	5	0.66	Moderate	0.67	Acceptable
Safety needs	6	0.84	High	0.60	Acceptable
Extra-curricular needs	5	0.67	Moderate	0.66	Acceptable
Coping mechanism needs	10	0.82	High	0.73	Acceptable
Social support needs	8	0.91	Very high	0.86	Very high

Materials and methods

Study sample and setting

The respondents in this study were international undergraduate students enrolled at the University of Perpetual Help System DALTA (UPHSD), Las Piñas campus during the 2015–2016 school year.

Of the 1,341 students from Asia, Africa, Australia, Europe, and North America, 398 were randomly selected and answered a survey-questionnaire. From these 398 respondents, 20 were purposively chosen and given an in-depth interview.

Of the 398 respondents, more than half (52.3%) belonged to the 19–21 age range; a third (33.9%) belonged to the 16–18 age range; 10.6% belonged to the 22–24 age range and 3.3% were above 25 years old. Two-thirds (65.8%) of the respondents were male while a third (34.2%) were female. A majority (79.1%) of the respondents were Asians: 302 Indians, 2 Jordanians, 5 Koreans, 1 Malaysian, 1 Nepalese, 2 Saudi Arabians, and 2 Syrians. Only 18.8% of the respondents were African, coming from varied ethnicities: 8 Eritrean, 1 Liberian, 57 Nigerian, 8 Sudanese, and 1 Chadian. Six or 1.5% of the respondents were Australians from Papua New Guinea, while only 1.0% or 4 were North Americans from the United States of America. More than half of the respondents (52.3%) or 208 have been in the university for one year. More than a quarter of them (28.4%) or 113 have stayed in the university for six to eleven months. About a tenth (12.3%) of them or 49 have stayed in the university for one year, while 4.8% of them or 19 have been in the university for three years. About 2.3% or 9 of them have been in the university for two years.

The respondents were mostly Asians, followed by Africans, Australians, and North Americans. Most have studied at the university for a year and some for three years. This implied that the respondents preferred to study in the Philippines to finish their chosen careers.

Data collection

A validated and reliable self-constructed questionnaire on identified needs was floated to the respondents of this study. Retrieval of the distributed questionnaires was done within 2 to 3 days. When the accomplished questionnaires were returned, an individual and a focus group interview were conducted with 20 respondents for the validation of their answers for analysis interpretation.

Measurement instrument

The researcher used a self-constructed questionnaire on the identified needs of the international students at UPHSD. It has three parts. Part I has items about the respondent's demographic profile such as age, gender, nationality, and length of stay in the university. Part II has items that cover the identified needs of the respondent in the areas of personal, family, career, social, cultural, academic, academic support, safety, extra-curricular, coping mechanism, and social support needs. Part III has questions pertaining to the needs of the respondent in relation to guidance services provided to them.

The questionnaire underwent several phases of item analysis and validation to procure its reliability and validity. The instrument was evaluated and validated by experts in guidance and counseling as well as by the Academic Dean. The item analysis and table of specifications were used to determine if the items were consistent and reliable to be used as instrument materials. The test-retest reliability was measured by pilot testing the questionnaire with a one-week gap. About 30 respondents participated in both the test and the retest of the questionnaire. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the reliability coefficient of the items. Pearson's correlation coefficient results measured *very high reliability* on family and social support needs, *high reliability* in personal, career, social, cultural, and safety needs, and *moderate reliability* on academic, academic support, and extra-curricular needs. Also, Cronbach's alpha test

of reliability was applied, and the results showed *very high reliability* on social support needs, *high reliability* on career needs, *acceptable* on personal, family, social, academic, academic support, safety, extra-curricular, and coping mechanism needs, and *low reliability* on cultural needs.

Table 1 presents the summary of the reliability coefficient and Cronbach's alpha results.

Ethics statement

Permission to conduct this study was sought by the researcher from the Office of the School Director. The approved permission was submitted to the Director of the Guidance Center, to the Director of the Office of International Affairs, and to the Deans of Colleges where the student-respondents were enrolled. The School Director had no recommendation to the researcher to submit the paper for board review by the institutional research and development. No written consent to the respondents was issued since voluntary participation was made.

Statistical analysis

The study employed the following statistical treatments in the analysis and interpretation of data: frequency and percentage distribution (to describe the socio-demographic variables of the respondents), weighted mean (to determine the average responses of the different options provided in the various parts of the survey questionnaire used), ranking (to rank the needs of the respondents), one-factor *F* test or one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) (to test the significant difference among three or more means obtained from independent samples) and the Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD) method which was used in conjunction with the ANOVA (post-hoc analysis) to determine which groups are significantly different from each other. The latter compares all possible pairs of means and is based on a student-range distribution (*q*). An online calculator was used to determine the HSD values.

Results and discussions

Identified needs of the student-respondents

The needs were identified using a 7-point level of agreement Likert scale. Table 2 shows a summary of the needs of the student-respondents.

Their personal needs ranked first with an overall weighted mean of 4.95 interpreted as *agree*. The top personal needs were improvement of personality, maintaining good health, and work after graduation. These findings are validated by Sicat (2011), who found that Timorese, Nepalese, and Indians could hardly intermingle with other students because of their odors. Regardless of their nationality, the respondents expressed their need to maintain good health as revealed in the documentary

Table 2. Summary of the student-respondents' needs

Need areas	Weighted mean	Verbal description	Rank
Personal needs	4.95	Agree	1st
Academic needs	4.90	Agree	2nd
Academic support needs	4.88	Agree	3rd
Safety needs	4.86	Agree	4th
Family needs	4.85	Agree	5th
Extra-curricular needs	4.82	Agree	6th
Career needs	4.75	Agree	7th
Social needs	4.73	Agree	8th
Coping mechanism needs	4.71	Agree	9th
Social support needs	4.68	Agree	10th
Cultural needs	4.66	Agree	11th

analysis from the University Clinic. This implies immediate attention to address this need to improve themselves and develop further.

The second in rank is academic needs (*WM* = 4.90, *agree*): rules and regulations in the college and the entire university, overcoming fear in taking tests, and engaging in group work with classmates.

This was followed by academic support needs (*WM* = 4.88, *agree*), some of which were: the ability to give feedback to teachers about the difficulty in understanding the lessons, the effectiveness of teachers in delivering the lessons, and assistance from professors. This implies that these international students are aware of their academic standing, especially their difficulties with academic tasks and responsibilities. They felt that they had the need to enhance their student skills and competencies to perform well in their academics. This result is validated by Ellis-Bosold and Thornton-Orr (2013), Maundeni et al. (2010), Samouei et al. (2013), Sultana and Smith (2011), Tas (2013), and Wa-Mbaleka and Joseph (2013), who found that college international students have difficulty in adapting to the culture of the country they are studying in; especially in addressing the language barrier and in adjusting to performing their academic activities.

Safety needs ranked fourth. The top safety needs were safety in the dorm/boarding house, safety with the neighbor, and knowing how to contact emergency services for help. Family needs ranked fifth, extra-curricular needs ranked sixth, and career needs ranked seventh. These results are similar to those of Dela Paz and Torres (2014) who found high needs in career development for UPHSD local and international students. Social needs ranked eighth, coping mechanism needs ranked ninth, and social support needs ranked 10th. Ranked 11th is cultural needs (*WM* = 4.66, *agree*): the opportunity to showcase their own culture and traditions, participate in Filipino celebration of customs and traditions, and enjoy a variety of Filipino foods.

Table 3. *F*-values for significant differences in the needs of the various nationalities

Needs	Computed <i>F</i> -value	<i>df</i>	α	Critical <i>F</i> -value	Decision on H_0	Interpretation
Personal	2.787	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Family	8.125	2, 395	.05	3.019	Rejected	Significant
Career	0.436	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Social	1.574	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Cultural	1.646	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Academic	5.997	2, 395	.05	3.019	Rejected	Significant
Academic support	4.923	2, 395	.05	3.019	Rejected	Significant
Safety	2.797	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Extra-curricular	0.194	2, 395	.05	3.019	Not rejected	Not significant
Coping mechanism	5.251	2, 395	.05	3.019	Rejected	Significant
Social support	3.314	2, 395	.05	3.019	Rejected	Significant

Differences in the needs of the student-respondents when grouped according to their nationalities

The null hypothesis is that there are no significant differences in the needs of the student-respondents when grouped according to their nationalities. Table 3 presents the *F*-values for significant differences in the needs of the various nationalities.

The personal, career, social, cultural, safety, and extra-curricular needs of the student-respondents do not significantly differ when grouped according to their nationalities ('Asian,' 'African,' 'Australian and North American'). This is probably because these needs are the basic needs of human beings as pointed out in Maslow's theory. These physiological and social needs of the student-respondents have to be attended to and fulfilled for their survival and satisfaction in their lives as students.

These findings are validated by Sicut (2011) who found that Timorese, Nepalese, and Indians could hardly intermingle with other students because of their odor. Tas (2013) found that language is the most pressing barrier to the adjustment process. Moreover, he found that financial difficulties, a feeling of loss when they move into a new culture, stress of learning new skills, and other cultural impacts like stereotypes about international students' culture, low self-esteem, culture shock, and the new educational system are also barriers to the adjustment process. Likewise, Samouei et al. (2013) found that difficult situations experienced by international students in a foreign country could intensify their other problems and may have harmful effects on their potential function. They suggested that consulting centers should employ experts familiar with international students' problems and capable of communicating well with international students.

The family, academic, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs of the student-respondents significantly differ when grouped according to their nationalities. This may be because of the differences in their cultural background and personal

lifestyle. The Asian and the African respondents show dependency on their families in terms of financial support, academic, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. They rely heavily on their parents for these concerns. However, Australians and North Americans are independent-minded, whereby they are self-sufficient to manage their difficulties.

These findings are validated by Sultana and Smith (2011) who found that the availability of scholarships was the highest recruiter of Eastern Kentucky University's (EKU) international students. ECU was comparatively better than the students' home universities. Dissatisfaction was found with on-campus housing, transfer of credits, academic advising discrimination, and racism. The results of the findings of Maundeni et al. (2010), on the adjustment needs, were ameliorated by available opportunities such as the presence of supportive people, availability of services, and academic facilities. In addition, challenges such as language issues, lack of social support networks, financial problems, and role strain made it difficult for students to adapt. On the other hand, the results of the study conducted by Wa-Mbaleka and Joseph (2013) revealed that the participants were more comfortable making friends with people of similar faith or persons from their geographic region.

In order to determine which group means ('Asian,' 'African,' 'Australian and North American') significantly differ from each other for the family, academic, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs, the Tukey HSD method of post-hoc test was used. Table 4 presents the results, where a significant difference between the needs of the groups occurs when the mean difference is greater than the HSD value.

There is a significant difference between the needs of the African and the Asian groups in terms of family, academic, academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. This is probably due to the differences in the geographical locations of the respondents. Their cultures and values differ in terms of these needs.

Table 4. Tukey HSD method of post-hoc test used to identify where the nationalities are significantly different

Needs	Nationality	Weighted mean	Mean difference	HSD value	Interpretation
Family	African	3.8886	0.5735	0.1614	Significant between African & Asian
	Asian	4.4621	0.0448		Not significant between African & Aus/NAm
	Aus/NAm	3.8438	0.6183		Significant between Asian & Aus/NAm
Academic	African	4.2207	0.4536	0.1513	Significant between African & Asian
	Asian	4.6743	0.1096		Not significant between African & Aus/NAm
	Aus/NAm	4.1111	0.5632		Significant between Asian & Aus/NAm
Academic support	African	3.9247	0.5191	0.1806	Significant between African & Asian
	Asian	4.4438	0.6253		Significant between African & Aus/NAm
	Aus/NAm	4.5500	0.1062		Not significant between Asian & Aus/NAm
Coping mechanism	African	3.7021	0.4563	0.1654	Significant between African & Asian
	Asian	4.1584	0.1771		Significant between African & Aus/NAm
	Aus/NAm	3.5250	0.6334		Significant between Asian & Aus/NAm
Social support	African	3.7383	0.2190	0.1811	Significant between African & Asian
	Asian	3.9574	0.8564		Significant between African & Aus/NAm
	Aus/NAm	2.8819	1.0754		Significant between Asian & Aus/NAm

The way of life in terms of these needs are different between Asians and Africans. These findings are validated by Bai (2016) who found that international students from the Middle East had a significantly higher level of acculturative stress than students from other areas.

Africans and Australians with North Americans significantly differ in their academic support, coping mechanism, and social support needs. This is probably due to the differences in the personality development of the Africans, Australians, and North Americans as nurtured by their cultures. These findings are validated by Ellis-Bosold and Thornton-Orr (2013), Maundeni et al. (2010), Samouei et al. (2013), Sultana and Smith (2011), Tas (2013), and Wa-Mbaleka and Joseph (2013) who found out the needs of college international students are the following: adapting to the culture of the country they are studying, and addressing the language barrier that deters their adjustments and academic needs.

A significant difference exists between the family, academic, coping mechanism, and social support needs of the Asian and the Australian with North American groups. The Asian and the Australian with North American respondents differ in the way they manifest their needs probably because of their differences in their adjustment pertaining to their needs in family, academic, coping mechanism, and social support needs. This can be based on the acculturation theory of John Berry (Kuo, 2014). The adaptation adjustment of the respondents which are the behavioral shift, psychopathology, and acculturative stress may result in differences in the adjustment of the respondents. Similarly, the W-curve transition model of Gullahorn (Howell, 2014) stages of adjustments from honeymoon, culture shock, initial adjust-

ment, mental isolation, acceptance integration, and connectedness are the respondents' adjustment process in a new educational culture and environment. The outcome of the adjustment of the respondents may influence their needs and activities.

Themes revealed in the interviews

The qualitative data gathered from the analysis of the narrative interview of the individual and group of respondents revealed six significant themes that expressed the needs of the student-respondents.

The first theme was *perceived quality education in UPHSD*. The majority of the respondents said that in UPHSD there is quality education. A North American respondent said that "some of my memories at UPHSD involved the professors that I had, that really were passionate about their course subject and genuinely cared about the welfare of their students." (Donald, North American). "It is an International University and a Medical University. Recognized by Malaysia Medical Council. Credibility is important for me." (Nes, Malaysian).

The second theme was *equality in learning*. All respondents believed that education in UPHSD exercises equality in learning opportunities provided by their teachers. A Nigerian said that they are "always happy when my lecturer asks me to explain something. I am always happy in group work. My Dean's welcoming heart is so great and also most of the lecturers." An Indian respondent said "The thing that impressed me about this University is that it is culturally viable. The university celebrates all the festivals of different religions."

The third theme focuses on *career development* which the respondents believed would be competent

in their profession. The teacher's use of modern technology in the instruction shows that the learning opportunities provided by the teachers assure the respondents of their career development. Ayer, an Indian student, said "Loyalty is a two-way street; if I am expecting it from you, then you are getting it from me. In India, I would have had to wait another year to get admission to med school. However, Perpetual provided me with this wonderful opportunity when I needed it the most. I shall never forget that I would in turn like to reciprocate by working really hard and gaining a stellar reputation for UPHSD among major schools throughout the world by cracking my course. I am a proud Perpetualite!"

The fourth theme was *self-worth development*. The foreign students believed that their education would cause them to develop their personalities in the areas of communication skills, self-care, socialization, and learning different values of the local students. Their studies will help them improve their personality that fits into their course. A Nigerian national stated, "These are the things that impress most are (1) the activities of the student week, (2) the pilgrimages we participated in, (3) the visit to Sol Y Viento, and (4) some good instructors that were devoted to our learning abilities."

The fifth theme focuses on *social support* whereby the respondents believed that the support of their friends and teachers enabled them to survive their challenges being in a foreign land. They find encouragement to overcome the difficulties in their studies to enable them to survive in their career journey. A national from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia said "The people here are hospitable. They are super nice and accommodating. I got to meet other Filipino friends and spent time with them. They are not rude and very friendly. I once got lost with what the professor was teaching but the Filipino student helped me understand. As far as bad experiences, I haven't had yet." A Chadian student-respondent said "The staff and the faculty are kind and helpful. There are a lot of foreigners from different countries who attested to this."

The sixth theme is *discrimination* which the foreign students find that they are being discriminated against and rejected because of their smell and color. The respondents felt hurt and rejected. An Indian respondent said, "Discrimination towards Indians by covering their nose and making faces." A Papuan New Guinean stated, "I strongly disagree with the way students react to me or another foreign student by hiding their nose away when they see us passing or about to pass; it really hurts me sometimes."

Overall, both quantitative and qualitative results revealed the similarities and differences in the needs of Asians, Africans, Australians, and North Americans. The development of a multicultural guidance manual can address the needs of the respondents and yield their

holistic development.

Development of a multicultural guidance manual

The University Guidance Center of UPHSD will design a comprehensive multicultural guidance manual for multicultural students to address the identified needs of international students as categorized according to academic needs, career needs, personal and social needs, and responsive services needs. The manual contains the following guidance curriculum:

Academic Needs is a curriculum that addresses the needs pertaining to school policies and study life. *Assimilation Activities* were designed to give awareness of the school policies from admissions to their academic requirements. *Institutional Orientation* is one of the activities to help them adapt to the new learning environment. Another program was *Breaking the Language Barrier* to help international students improve their competency in the English language both in oral and in communication skills. The *Study Habit* program aims to develop the skills and strategies of international students.

A career development program can address the needs of international students through the following: (a) *Career Portfolio* is a program to develop the career path of international students; the multicultural guidance counselor may use the academic records of international students for conducting career counseling; and (b) *Cell System* is a program to assist international students in enhancing their social skills; this can be facilitated through the creation of organizations for international students to maximize their potential through engaging in social interaction.

The personal and social needs of international students can be addressed through the following programs: (a) *Enculturation* is a program designed to assist international students to become flexible and adaptive in their new learning environment, (b) *Cultural Awareness* helps international students become sensitive to the cultural diversities around the university, (c) *Cultural Soiree* is a program that aims to gather all international students to showcase their traditional identity, (d) *The Sempai Kohai System* is set to create a system of providing assistance to new international students who will enter the university, (e) *Cultural Trips* are designed to acquaint the student with the prominent places in the university and historical places in the country, and (f) *Cultural Encounter* aims to give balanced exposure between academic and non-academic activities for international students.

The responsive services needs of international students are addressed through the following: (a) *Suicide Prevention* aims to give vital information on how to prevent and manage the ideation of committing suicide in the future, and (b) *Bullying/Cyberbullying* provides significant information to international students on how to protect themselves from bullying problems.

The programs in the multicultural guidance manual will be implemented by the multicultural guidance counselor through seminars, symposiums, counseling, group dynamics, and information services. The evaluation will be done at the end of the school year to determine the effectiveness of the programs.

Conclusions and recommendations

The quantitative and qualitative data obtained in this study will be used in the development of a custom-made multicultural guidance manual that contains substantial programs will address the needs of international students. There should be a follow-up study to measure the effectiveness of the guidance curriculum.

The following recommendations to UPHSD are also made: (a) provide competent guidance counselors the number of which is proportional to the population of the international students using an ASCA ratio of 1:250 to attend to the needs of the international students with knowledge, skills, and competencies aligned to the practice of multicultural counseling; (b) develop relevant developmental programs for the retention policies for wellness and admissions requirements of health and psychological fitness to ensure the wellbeing of the international students every school year; and (c) conduct a comprehensive orientation for the students service providers like teachers, administrators, non-teaching personnel, and students services employees to establish rapport with the international students.

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Implementation of internationalization practices vis-à-vis school culture of quality

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Structured abstract

Background: The clear-eyed consciousness and collaboration of the entire school and community members are absolutely significant for the successful integration and implementation of internationalization practices essential for realizing a culture of quality.

Purpose: The study aims to investigate in depth and analyze how the execution of internationalization practices impacts the attainment of a school's culture of quality.

Setting: Three performing autonomous universities or colleges in the National Capital Region were purposively selected.

Participants: A sample of 147 third-year college students, faculty, and administrators were chosen from the three selected higher education institutions (HEIs) using convenience sampling.

Research design: Quantitative-inferential research method

Data collection and analysis: Data were drawn from a Likert scale survey that was statistically validated ($\alpha = .945$), and prepared and gathered online through Google Forms. Data analysis was carried out using means, analyses of variance, Pearson correlation coefficients, and multiple linear regressions.

Findings: The HEIs implemented their internationalization practices successfully, and significant differences exist in how they execute home-based initiatives ($F(2,146) = 3.109, p = .048$) and cross-border efforts ($F(2,146) = 3.658, p = .028$). Culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning, and leadership and management are remarkably high. Internationalization practices and culture of quality were significantly correlated ($r = .532, r = .559, r = .405, r = .471; p < .001$) resulting in significant impact. Internationalization practices predict the attainment of culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning (home-based: $2.305 + .382x$, cross-border: $2.775 + .246x$), and leadership and management (home-based: $2.180 + .421x$, cross-border: $2.607 + .299x$).

Recommendations: Based on the findings' implications, to successfully implement the internationalization of education and attain a school culture of quality, universities and colleges should (a) strengthen their ties and activities with cultural and ethnic groups and establishing organizations related to international and local perspectives; (b) invest in an offshore presence of the institution in other countries, strengthen research collaboration, and improve clear program articulation of internationalization perspectives and practices through twinning programs, academic franchising, and other means; (c) conduct benchmarking; and (d) redesign the research study to consider universities outside the Philippines.

Keywords

home-based, cross-border, internationalization practices, culture of quality, autonomous universities and colleges, NCR, Philippines

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Introduction

Engagement in globalization of higher education is often regarded as one of the greatest achievements of the global educational system (Robiños & Alcazaren, 2023). Internationalization, rather than just adding the international dimension into an existing institutional framework, was clearly highlighted as a critical means of showcasing growing global knowledge and learning networks (de

Wit, 2020; Lumby & Foskett, 2015; Songkao & Yeong, 2016; Szyszlo, 2016). It is a dynamic process that involves all members of the community, including students, staff, administrators, and other stakeholders. Internationalization of higher education provides institutions with a fantastic opportunity to boost educational effectiveness, continual improvement, and quality (Jibeen & Khan, 2015).

The Philippine government supports the initiatives of internationalizing education (Commission on Higher Education, 2016). The country's internationalization initiative points in the right direction and provides opportunities for higher education institutions (HEIs) to fulfill their goals and objectives. As previously noted, the Philippines' and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) HEIs' internationalization is increasing and improving year after year (Madula, 2018). Figures of international tertiary graduates, local and global collaborations, international graduate education institutions, Centers of Excellence and Progress Eminence, cumulative scholars, ASEAN ranking, and research publications all contributed to this development (Milla, 2019). However, with this pronounced impetus, there is certainly a need to establish profoundly the influence of internationalization to school culture of quality.

Internationalization of education must be taken seriously as a result of emerging global economic trends and global interdependence (Szyzlo, 2016; Vaught, 2015). In order for such dedication to be well understood and appreciated, the influence of internationalization practices must be considered in order to meet an institution's mission (Xinqi et al., 2018). To avoid a potential institutional dilemma, this effort must include the implementation of initiatives and efforts based on the proper paradigm's impact on organizational culture. This provides yet another incentive to investigate the impact of internationalization procedures in greater depth.

What is critical to internationalization is the kind of culture it generates. International institutions are expected to achieve excellence (Cinches et al., 2016). However, in contradiction, some forms of internationalization are unlikely to lead to improvements in HEI's quality (Jibeen & Khan, 2015). Nevertheless, internationalization is significant to schools' shared vision and culture among and across individuals and academic leaders in an institution (Kane et al., 2016). As indirectly revealed by Kottmann et al. (2016), sharing the school's values and commitment towards quality is one of the impacts of the internationalization effort.

The definition of HEIs that have established a culture of quality differs depending on how important the university considers it to be and the system in which it operates (Moodley, 2019). In general, culture of quality is defined in all educational settings by a progressive and holistic approach to continuous improvement, quality assurance, and the institution's national and international ranking (Moodley, 2019; Robson & Wihlborg, 2019; Warter, 2019). Though institutional quality assurance and internationalization activities are not solely responsible for the university's culture of quality and prestige, they do play a significant role (Stafford & Taylor, 2016). Still, most perceptions of culture of quality have been drawn to different features of quality assurance in dif-

ferent colleges and universities. Given the importance of a complex and collaborative focus, culture of quality must be well-defined and thoroughly studied to provide a clearer viewpoint and processes. The research focuses on framing school culture of quality exactly to teaching and learning, as well as leadership and administration, despite a paucity of literature. The study is anchored to three assimilated frameworks: the Commission on Higher Education's (CHED) (2012) policy-standard to enhance quality assurance in Philippine higher education, The Inspectorate's (2016) framework on quality for primary schools, and Schoen and Teddlie's (2008) dimension of school culture. Extent of engagement of HEIs in meaningful learning activities including transnational initiatives is normally associated to the worth of instruction and learning experiences, and leadership and management (Aerden, 2017; Egekvist et al., 2017; Mukhwana et al., 2017; The Inspectorate, 2016).

The use of a variety of teaching methods promotes high-quality learning, and hence good teaching promotes a meaningful learning culture. Meanwhile, good management and leadership are evaluated because they make a difference (Baporikar, 2015; Javed, 2015; Lasrado, 2015) in refining the heart, soul, quality, and primary goal of education, the instruction and the learning process. Within any institution, leadership and management have become vital and required for quality and innovation (Lasrado, 2015; Mukhwana et al., 2017). The growth and progress of an efficient and effective strategy that allows the institution to accomplish its aims and improve the quality of services and education it provides is sustained by school culture of quality (Markowitsch, 2018).

Only a few studies have found a direct link between a school's culture of quality and the implementation of international initiatives. According to de Wit (2015) and Moodley (2019), evaluating the impact of internationalization techniques on school culture of quality among autonomous universities will assist new and promising HEIs in innovating and achieving excellence while meeting international standards. Autonomous institutions display extraordinary excellence through their quality audit system and program outcomes, demonstrating excellent performance in line with their mission (Margaret & Kavitha, 2018). Promoting and fostering a culture of quality will necessitate a more in-depth contextual examination of how one perceives and understands the school's culture of quality.

The study objectives are: (a) identify the level of implementation of internationalization home-based and cross-border strategies; (b) identify the extent of culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning, leadership and management; (c) determine if significant differences and associations occur between the implementation of internationalization and the school culture of quality; and (d) explore the impact of implementing internationaliza-

tion practices on universities and colleges' perceived culture of quality.

Methodology

A quantitative-inferential research design was used in the study to assess the amount to which international practices have been implemented, as well as the institution's culture of quality, associations, and influence. The population consisted of third-year college students, faculty, and administrators from three performing HEIs in the National Capital Region (NCR). At the time of the study, third-year college students had taken the additional two years of senior high school and were thus expected to have substantial experiences in terms of internationalization and quality assurance in an institution. Some inclusion criteria were: (a) is enrolled or employed in one of the three selected autonomous HEIs for 3 or more years; (b) is 18 years old or older; (c) understands English and Filipino; and (d) is willing to participate.

A sample of 147 respondents was selected using convenience sampling with the sample size obtained using the Raosoft sample size calculator with 5% margin of error and 95% confidence level. (The COVID-19 pandemic made it necessary to use convenience sampling.) The study was conducted in Ateneo de Manila University, Southville International School and Colleges, and the University of Perpetual Help System DALTA Las Piñas Campus. These institutions are established for about 30 years, are ISO 9001 certified, have reputable niche programs for internationalization, and were granted by CHED an autonomous status for the last decade. Participating schools provided approval of the disclosure of their institution's name and the conduct of the study through their Research and Development Center, Office of Academic Affairs, or School Director's Office.

Upon approval and endorsement from CHED and the Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines, a researcher-made survey questionnaire was developed and administered using Google Forms. Its items on internationalization practices (home-based and cross-border) and culture of quality (in teaching and learning, and in leadership and management) were scored using a 4-point level of agreement Likert scale. The tool was evaluated using face and content validity, and had an SPSS version 24 reliability analysis result of Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.945$. Revisions were made in accordance with Cronbach's α results and corrections, suggestions, and recommendations given.

Through the survey instrument, participants gave their consent and were informed of their right to participate, the rationale of the study, the anonymity approach, their right to refuse to answer the survey questionnaire, and their right to withdraw their responses. A research ethics board's approval of the conduct of the study was

Table 1. Implementation of internationalization practices

	Mean	Description
Home-based	3.26	Successfully implemented
Cross-border	3.16	Generally implemented

Table 2. Level of culture of quality

	Mean	Description
Teaching and learning	3.55	Very high culture of quality
Leadership and management	3.55	Very high culture of quality

secured.

The study utilized means, analyses of variance (ANOVAs), Pearson correlation coefficients, and multiple linear regressions to provide sufficient and substantial interpretation and analysis. Multiple linear regression was used to see the strengths of the relationships between the internationalization practices (home-based and cross-border) and the culture of quality (teaching and learning, and leadership and management).

Results and discussions

Extent of implementation of internationalization practices and level of culture of quality

Table 1 shows the HEIs' extent of implementation of internationalization practices.

The participants considered the following home-based strategies as well-implemented: accreditation and evaluation for quality assurance and internationalization, provision of international substance and scopes in the curriculum, learning outcomes, resources, and teaching pedagogies, integration of intercultural materials and online platforms, the establishment of strong linkages and international research partnerships, and the conduct of international conferences and workshops with expatriates.

The majority of cross-border efforts focused on establishing international perspectives through conferences, professional development trainings, and partnerships involving travel or delegation of learners, faculty, and researchers to foreign countries, implementation of clear policies on studying or interning abroad, and provision for student, faculty, and researcher mobility.

These findings suggest that CHED (2016) Memorandum Order no. 55, series of 2016 is highly practiced and integrated by the selected performing autonomous institutions. Academic institutions with exemplary internationalization strategies work to improve quality assurance and accreditation, provide international content, integrate hybrid learning arrangements, build strong networks, and host intercultural campus events, conferences, research collaborations, mobility programs, and

Table 3. One-way ANOVA tests of significant differences

	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value (2-tailed)
HEIs' extent of implementation		
Home-based initiatives	3.109	.048*
Cross-border efforts	3.658	.028*
HEIs' level of culture of quality		
Teaching and learning	0.183	.833
Leadership and management	0.842	.433

* $p < .05$

other activities that include inviting and hosting international facilitators and resource speakers. These practices and strategies were recognized as important for an academic institution's success in internationalization (Egekvist et al., 2017; Madula, 2018; Stafford & Taylor, 2016).

Table 2 shows the HEIs' level of culture of quality.

The very high level of culture of quality in teaching and learning indicates that learners achieve with satisfaction the intended learning outcomes, make meaningful experiences and authentic opportunities, demonstrate essential competencies and values, and reflect on their own progress which help them develop their sense of responsibility. Furthermore, faculty highly manifest mastery and expertise, and are consistently engaged in continuing professional progress to improve the teaching and learning experience. Teachers select relevant learning targets that are contextualized to diverse learners' needs and styles, and give quality assessments to present the complete representation of learning realizations and necessities for improvement (da Costa & Araújo, 2018; Kane et al., 2016; Mikhaylov & Mikhaylova, 2018).

The expression of a very high culture of quality in leadership and management posited that academic leaders and managers actively uphold a positive culture of excellence, collaboration, and innovation to enable learners to become successful and to help the institution in realizing its quality purposes and objectives. Academic leaders establish clear principles and authentic commitment to inclusive education, gender equality, non-academic activities, and opportunities for holistic development. They clearly enunciated in policies the institution's core values and equity and justice for all, and they highly practice and encourage a sense of accountability (Baporikar, 2015; Lasrado, 2015).

Significant differences

Table 3 compares the HEIs' extent of implementation of internationalization practices and the HEIs' level of culture of quality.

When respondents were grouped according to their

Table 4. Pearson *r* results on significant associations

	Pearson <i>r</i>	<i>p</i> -value (2-tailed)
Home-based initiatives and teaching and learning	.532	< .001*
Home-based initiatives and leadership and management	.559	< .001*
Cross-border efforts and teaching and learning	.405	< .001*
Cross-border efforts and leadership and management	.471	< .001*

$n = 147$, * $p < .05$

institutional affiliation, there were significant differences in their extent of implementation of internationalization practices for both home-based initiatives and cross-border efforts. Internationalization practices on the HEIs differ in their motives and understanding, and approaches in observing the delivery of processes (Cinches et al., 2016). Higher institutions used varied rationales to internationalize the school community and differ in set priorities and institutional resources. There are broader, varied, and complex approaches in terms of internationalization. Differences noted are linked to the creation of international linkages, faculty development support, exchange program policies, and research engagements (Egekvist et al., 2017; Ziyatdinova et al., 2016).

On the other hand, there were no significant differences in the level of culture of quality for both teaching and learning, and leadership and management when respondents were clustered according to their institutional affiliation.

Significant associations

Table 4 shows that there were positive and significant associations between the extent of implementation of internationalization home-based initiatives and the level of culture of quality the selected autonomous HEIs have in terms of teaching and learning ($r = .532$, $p < .001$) and leadership and management ($r = .559$, $p < .001$). This finding is identical to that of Kirk et al. (2018) and Yeboah (2015), stating that internationalization of education such as designing a suitable curriculum, aligning the instruction and assessment, and empowering faculty and students enables the delivery of quality teaching and learning engagements. For Vaught (2015), leadership and management, if handled effectively, can help in the promotion of internationalization efforts. Transformation and some change of processes such as internationalizing education is definitely associated with the organization's culture. Knowing the current situation on how academic leaders handle change and quality assurance is helpful in crafting and improving school

practices.

Table 4 also shows that the execution of cross-border internationalization efforts and the level of culture of quality of the selected institutions in terms of teaching and learning ($r = .405, p < .001$) and leadership and management ($r = .471, p < .001$) were significantly associated. A high level of culture of quality is reflected by effective and highly engaged academic staff, instructional leaders, and institutional leaders. Relevant managerial vision and productivity highly affects culture of quality (Kottmann et al., 2016).

Successful execution of internationalization practices of higher education, may it be home-based efforts or cross-border initiatives, is linked to the establishment of substantial and pronounced culture of quality principles, perspectives, and approaches on teaching and learning, and leadership and management (Kirk et al., 2018). A university's journey from domestic to transnational reveals significant association indicating success in realizing internationalization rationale. Related to this attainment are efforts and practices linked to instruction, provision of meaningful learning experience, and leadership and management set to internationalizing higher education Alanazi, 2016; Kirk et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2016).

Perceived impact: Multiple linear regression test of impact

A linear regression was calculated to predict culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning based on the extent of implementation of home-based initiatives ($b = .532, t(146) = 13.776, p < .001$). A significant regression comparison was found ($F(1,145) = 57.340, p < .001$), with $r^2 = .283$. Respondents projected that the culture of quality in teaching and learning is equal to $2.305 + .382x$ when home-based initiatives are assessed in terms of the extent of implementation. That is, for every one-unit increase in the extent of implementation of home-based initiatives, the culture of quality in teaching and learning improves by 0.382 units.

This suggests that change of home-based initiatives such as adherence to quality assurance mechanism, provision of international dimensions and curriculum to the teaching and learning process, establishment of linkages and networks, and other important campus-based practices can create change of quality in teaching and learning delivery.

A computed linear regression shows that culture of quality in terms of leadership and management is predicted by the extent of implementation of home-based initiatives ($b = .559, t(146) = 12.690, p < .001$). A significant regression equation was found ($F(1,145) = 65.930, p < .001$), with $r^2 = .313$. Respondents projected that the culture of quality in leadership and management is equal to $2.180 + .421x$ when home-based initiatives are

measured in terms of the extent of implementation. That is, for every one-unit increase in the extent of implementation of home-based initiatives, the culture of quality in leadership and management improves by 0.421 units.

This suggests that the successful observance to accreditation and quality assurance organizations, the effective integration of an international curriculum to a school system, clear provision of policies relative to study abroad and platforms in conducting international classes, the formation of strong partnerships, linkages and networks, and all other vital campus-based practices can hone and foresee academic leaders and managers that are effective, productive, and dynamic.

A computed linear regression shows that culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning is predicted by the extent of implementation of cross-border efforts ($b = .405, t(146) = 18.641, p < .001$). A significant regression equation was found ($F(1,145) = 28.515, p < .001$), with $r^2 = .164$. Respondents projected that the culture of quality in teaching and learning is equal to $2.775 + .246x$ when cross-border efforts are measured in terms of the extent of implementation. That is, for every one-unit increase in the extent of implementation of cross-border efforts, the culture of quality in teaching and learning improves by 0.246 units.

This suggests that an increase of the establishment of a clear policy program on student mobility and the conduct of international seminars, conferences, professional development programs, international practicums, and all types of mobility can also increase the successful delivery of school culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning where students and teachers show high engagement, have a sense of accountability, value the attainment of life-long learning, and promote high impact on learning.

A computed linear regression shows that culture of quality in terms of leadership and management is predicted by the extent of implementation of cross-border efforts ($b = .471, t(146) = 17.309, p < .001$). A significant regression equation was found ($F(1,145) = 41.291, p < .001$), with $r^2 = .222$. Respondents projected that the culture of quality in leadership and management is equal to $2.607 + .299x$ when cross-border efforts are measured in terms of the extent of implementation. That is, for every one-unit increase in the extent of implementation of cross-border efforts, the culture of quality in leadership and management improves by 0.299 units.

This suggests that change of implementation on cross-border activities can influence change in how academic leaders and managers help in the realization of school culture of excellence. If there is a successful delivery of cross-border internationalization practices, then academic leaders and managers are expected to embody right attitudes and competencies that can help them in the successful delivery of their functions and

responsibilities.

Some globally active academic institutions have autonomous status and have been doing well in institutional rankings, substantially extending their influences towards excellence and a culture of superiority. Internationalization efforts and initiatives enhance and deepen curriculum implementations, influencing a school's progress towards excellent teaching and assessments, and the establishment of meaningful, collaborative, and authentic learning, research and innovation, and institutional alliances (Higgins-D'Alessandro & Sadh, 1998; Szyzlo, 2016).

Sustainable internationalization processes establish solid leadership and management and global ranking from linkages and international organizations. Successful change in an organization establishing quality is a vital indicator that academic leaders and managers are effective and actively working as team players with all the stakeholders and partners. Culture of quality and leadership work hand-in-hand towards sustainability and reform (Gul et al., 2019; Ziyatdinova et al., 2016). Nevertheless, seeing the dynamic effect and assistance the internationalization practices can deliver to attain school culture of quality, leaders and managers must remain vigilant for undesirable consequences on the school community and national development (Knight, 2008). One of the best effects of internationalization in education is the attainment of prestigious status as well as the opportunity to promote excellent education.

Conclusions

The selected performing HEIs successfully observed and implemented home-based internationalization procedures. The findings emphasized important measures such as robust assessment of a school's mechanism through quality assurance, internationalization of school culture, integration of transnational viewpoints and approaches to learning processes, and the creation of strong linkages and networks. Cross-border strategies, on the other hand, were perceived to be basically implemented despite successful execution of programs and activities with international perspectives, provision given to administrators, faculty, and learners to join international research conventions, other countries on-the-job training platform, and student leadership and professional enhancement programs and courses. Performing independent universities and colleges in NCR implement internationalization efforts and programs in diverse ways. There are differences in terms of delivery, the level of engagement between school and community members, the resources available, and the methodologies and policies that are implemented.

In teaching and learning, as well as leadership and management, performing autonomous universities and

colleges clearly demonstrate a strong culture of quality. The responders strongly emphasized and acknowledged all features of students, professors, academic leaders, and managers. In terms of teaching and learning, a culture of quality indicates that students practice and meet the school's cognitive, psychomotor, and values requirements. Likewise, the manifestation of deep understanding on the relevance of what they are learning to adapt and modify their behavior, be accountable, and recognize their self-worth and their colleagues. Faculty, on the other hand, clearly exhibit knowledge, dedication to professional development, and loyalty through participation in the creation of meaningful learning experiences. Furthermore, academic leaders in universities with a strong culture of excellence actively promote the school's goals and objectives, establish and maintain a healthy learning environment, promote holistic development among students, ensure the greatest possible positive impact of learning approaches, and ensure that all stakeholders imbibe the institution's core values through collective accountability, commitment, creativity and innovation, and competence. The perceived level of culture of quality in teaching and learning, and in leadership and management among the self-governing universities do not differ significantly.

The execution of practices on internationalizing education are positively associated with culture of quality in terms of teaching and learning, and leadership and management as conveyed by the learners, faculty, and administrators of the performing autonomous HEIs in NCR. Internationalization can forecast and empower school culture of quality. CHED (2016) Memorandum Order no. 55, series of 2016 can be of great help to institutions in framing their internationalization strategies, as the structure clearly suggests enrichment on quality assurance and innovation, mobility and market access, and international linkages and networks.

Recommendations

Shifting of directions towards constructive changes and practicing continuous improvement are important. The maneuvers to get to the promising destination of culture of quality depends on how well orchestrated every dimension the school has, and how everyone functions accordingly. The following recommendations are made.

Universities and colleges should strengthen their ties and activities with cultural and ethnic groups in order to effectively and successfully adopt home-based internationalization techniques. This necessitates the involvement of fellows from local cultural and ethnic groups in teaching and learning activities, research, non-academic activities, internships, immersion programs, and placement. Academic institutions are recommended to establish organizations related with those in other nations

and having internationalization initiatives.

Focusing on the three least evaluated cross-border practices for internationalizing education, academic institutions should consider investing in a campus or offshore presence of the university in other countries, strengthening research collaboration by sending scholars to partner industries in other states, and improving clear program articulation of internationalization perspectives and practices through twinning programs, academic franchising, and other means. This involves ensuring that HEIs in other countries meet the same criteria and norms in order to facilitate joint degrees or certificate programs.

Benchmarking among HEIs should be strengthened and enforced. This will undoubtedly boost the school's productivity and effectiveness in promoting internationalization viewpoints and practices, as well as in creating a culture of quality at the school, and, more importantly, in lowering costs through critical findings. Benchmarking provides for better operations and the delivery of high-quality teaching and learning experiences. This can also help with internationalization activities, such as strengthening links and networks, collaboration, and innovation.

In redesigning the research study, it is highly recommended that future research include the two top-ranked HEIs in the Philippines according to international rankings to be able to capture their best perspectives, strategies, and practices on internationalization of higher education vis-à-vis culture of quality and established trademark. It can also consider the involvement of topmost international schools in neighboring countries like the University of Tokyo (Japan), National University of Singapore, Keio University (Japan), Tsinghua University (People's Republic of China), and the University of Hong Kong. With their absolute university reputation and high criteria in the international academic arena, learning from them will allow a further in-depth investigation of best strategies and assurance in reaching a culture of excellence.

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Entrepreneurial leadership and entrepreneurial orientation: A framework for entrepreneurially oriented higher education institutions

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Structured abstract

Background: The role of entrepreneurial leadership (EL) and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in organizations is becoming critical in this dynamic environment; however, there are still limited studies on the relationship between EL and EO and their relevance in the academic context.

Purpose: This study aims to determine the relationship between EL and EO within the context of Catholic higher education, specifically, the Philippine North Society of the Divine Word (PHN-SVD) schools.

Participants: The participants were 156 faculty members and non-teaching personnel of the three PHN-SVD schools in the second semester of school year 2021–2022.

Research design: Grounded on the positivist philosophy, this study used a descriptive-correlational research design.

Data collection and analysis: Data was gathered using a questionnaire for EL and EO. The EL questionnaire is an 18-item survey and the EO survey covers the five EO dimensions: autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness. The data was treated quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics. Weighted means and Pearson *r* values at a .05 level of significance were used. To substantiate the analysis and discussion, observations and informal interviews were included.

Findings: The extent of EL and of EO of PHN-SVD schools were high. EL and EO had a strong positive and significant relationship. EL was strongly correlated with EO along autonomy, innovativeness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness; along proactiveness, it was moderately correlated. EL was also positively and significantly correlated with each EO dimension. A framework for entrepreneurially oriented higher education institutions, specifically the PHN-SVD schools, was conceptualized as the output of the study. EL directly influences the entrepreneurial behaviors of the organization toward entrepreneurial outcomes.

Recommendations: School leaders are challenged to behave and think entrepreneurially while embracing EL and EO in PHN-SVD schools as social institutions for them to survive and serve society through their mission of educational apostolate.

Keywords

entrepreneurial leadership, entrepreneurial behavior, entrepreneurial outcomes, competitive advantage, sustainability

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Introduction

Research shows that entrepreneurial leadership (EL) fosters an entrepreneurial environment where ideas may grow and competitive benefits can be gained (Farrukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020; Malik et al., 2020; Naumann, 2017), and motivates people to accomplish their company goals (Bagheri & Lope Pihie, 2013). As such, entrepreneurial leaders find better ways to use resources and abundant opportunities by reducing complexity, cap-

italizing on uncertainties, embracing learning, and recognizing opportunities (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Naumann, 2017). However, EL and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) have not been taken into so much account in the context of the academe (Selvaraja & Lope Pihie, 2017; Thornberry, 2006).

In this dynamic environment with growing uncertainty and competitive pressure, EL, introduced by McGrath and MacMillan in 2000, is a type of leadership required.

As explained by Kovačević et al. (2020) and P. Miller et al. (2019), EL addresses complex, social, and environmental concerns. Leaders are committed to action and value creation in the organization as creative innovators (Roundy et al., 2017; Stolze, 2020; Suyudi et al., 2020; Urban & Govender, 2017). He et al. (2017) perceived these leaders as visionaries in the ever-changing world who motivate employees toward the achievement of specific outcomes. Stolze (2020) also claimed that leaders with an entrepreneurial attitude are better able to spot opportunities, define a vision, and mobilize key resource holders. Entrepreneurial leaders are motivated and encouraged to influence and guide followers and pursue entrepreneurial opportunity-oriented behavior, face uncertainty, take risks (Mokhber et al., 2016) and show a willingness to take responsibility for the future (Renko et al., 2015). Saad et al. (2020) found that entrepreneurial leaders in the academic context have the potential for innovation, as workplace innovation and creativity are becoming increasingly important in research between the university and its external environment. Empirical studies in EL have increased at the macro-level because the characteristics of entrepreneurship are often considered a more suited purview of business administration (Ariyani et al., 2021; Ghazali et al., 2020; Roundy et al., 2017; Yemini et al., 2015).

Despite much research in this area, the role of EL in the academic context has yet to be examined. School administrators are left at the forefront of finding ways to survival and sustainability and are also expected to act and behave entrepreneurially in a turbulent environment (Chandra & Mathur, 2021; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Douglass, 2018; Fantauzzi et al., 2019; Jackson, 2015; Mamabolo, 2020). The determinants of an organization's efficiency, success, and long-term survival have shown that EL can inform others about its benefits. Against this backdrop, there have been studies focusing on EL alongside skills training and firm performance, but few have focused on its impact and application in the organization (Chandra & Mathur, 2021; Douglass, 2018; Fantauzzi et al., 2019; Ghafar, 2020) and EL has not been taken so much in the context of the academe (Selvaraja & Lope Pihie, 2017; Thornberry, 2006).

The significance of EL in addressing crises and challenges in organizational settings has a few studies (Ariyani et al., 2021; Bagheri & Lope Pihie, 2013; Esmer & Dayi, 2017; Newman et al., 2018; Saad et al., 2020; Virglerova et al., 2020) and there is still limited research on its impact on school practices (Fantauzzi et al., 2019; Kovačević et al., 2020; P. Miller et al., 2019; Nadelson et al., 2018; Winarno, 2016; Yemini et al., 2015). Institutional leaders are greatly challenged to design and implement programs that can contribute to school sustainability. Successful organizations stem from effective leadership skills and ways to adapt to the challenges

they face (Ghafar, 2020; Ratten & Usmanij, 2021). As mentioned by Chandra and Mathur (2021), having skills and knowledge in higher educational institutions is an advantage in this competitive society. Similarly, EO is increasingly recognized as a crucial factor in the success of organizations, yet its application in academic settings remains underexplored. While substantial research has focused on EO in business contexts, its influence on educational institutions, particularly in terms of leadership and organizational effectiveness, has not been adequately addressed. The limited literature on EL and EO in the academic sphere highlights a significant gap, especially within Catholic educational institutions. This study aims to explore this gap by examining the relationship between EL and EO in the Society of the Divine Word (SVD) colleges, seeking to understand how these concepts can enhance academic leadership, sustainability, and institutional success.

Given the strong influence of innovation and globalization, the plight of Catholic schools including SVD schools in their primary purpose on evangelization, the Catholic identity and mission of education of these schools may have been affected, if not altered, in the present-day context (Bual & Madrigal, 2018). Also, heightened by the COVID-19 pandemic, a number of private schools have been into closure, school programs were frozen if not closed, the decline in enrolment was felt due to unemployment of parents and government free tuition fees in public schools including state universities and colleges, and migration of teachers to government schools have been evident considering alluring government benefits and salaries which private Catholic schools cannot compete with. These are just some of the realities that Philippine North Society of the Divine Word (PHN-SVD) schools struggle with which may be attributed to a lack of entrepreneurial behaviors and orientation as these schools by nature are missionary schools that primarily focus on evangelization. In spite of these, SVD schools desire to continue and remain committed to their educational apostolate in providing quality education. Such a challenging situation prompts schools to be more adaptive, resilient, and innovative to survive and thrive in the dynamic environment yet keeping the core of Catholic education. This context of Catholic schools calls for a distinct kind of leadership that appropriately responds to the challenges and copes with the demands of the fast-changing environment.

Driven by all these creative disruptions and in the age of uncertainty, to be on board, institutions should be forward-thinking—be entrepreneurial (Steenkamp, 2020). Social institutions like higher education institutions face business challenges like any other industry in the economy. According to Farrukh et al. (2019), to survive, universities need to be more entrepreneurial and adaptive to cope with the increasing competition and the adop-

tion of an entrepreneurial strategy requires EL. To fill in this gap, school management and administration should lead, prepare, and orient the teachers as front liners of the system with an entrepreneurial mindset and eventually have EL embedded in the school community (Ariyani et al., 2021; Mustofa & Muafi, 2021; Newman et al., 2018). The EL model of Thornberry (2006) is believed to be the most suited model in the educational setting (Selvaraja & Lope Pihie, 2017). The concept of entrepreneurship in the academic context had been taken by various scholars focusing on developing school leaders' skills to direct organizational changes and collaborative agreements with their stakeholders (Ghazali et al., 2020). Similarly, Etzkowitz and Zhou (2017) and Guerrero et al. (2020) supported entrepreneurship as a framework for colleges and universities to help create entrepreneurial pathways in competitive and fluctuating environments leading to the creation of entrepreneurial universities.

Likewise, Jackson (2015) mentioned that school leaders must find avenues and opportunities for creative solutions to address educational issues. Organizations like schools look forward to their success and sustainability in the future. The practice of EL facilitates school effectiveness and the ability to project strong entrepreneurial activity in the educational landscape helps attain sustainability. This confirms the findings of van Jaarsveld (2020) that combining strong leadership with an EL style promotes successful school management and the survival of schools.

Truly, the tight competition in the market today has affected the academic landscape. This greatly challenges the leaders or administrators of higher education institutions to acquire entrepreneurial skills, think and behave entrepreneurially, and encourage entrepreneurial behaviors and orientation in coping with the needs of the dynamic and competitive environment to sustain and survive. It is the objective of this paper to determine the extent of this new kind of leadership through entrepreneurial behaviors of leaders towards embracing and promoting EO of educational institutions. EO views entrepreneurial behaviors and manifestation in the organization from a managerial and organizational perspective and the concept of EO can be traced from Mintzberg (1973) and D. Miller's (1983) theory on strategic decision-making which explicates that managers must be in active pursuit for new opportunities even in uncertainties. Researchers have argued that EO has three dimensions that are important to managers and leaders: innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Covin & Slevin, 1991). However, from these theories came dominant models by Covin and Slevin (1991), Lumpkin and Dess (1996), and D. Miller (1983) such as autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness.

The study of EO in the academic setting has piqued

the curiosity of school leaders and policymakers. There is diversified empirical literature on EO grounded in Mintzberg (1973) and D. Miller (1983). Although it is clear that strategic action in the academic context differs from that in firms and other organizations, as Lumpkin and Dess (1996) argue, the basic elements that make up the concept, such as autonomy, proactiveness, innovativeness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness continue to characterize as a strategic action in the academic context. To foster and encourage entrepreneurial behavior and activities in the organization, the support of managers or leaders is needed by providing the necessary tangible and intangible resources to employees, thus, leadership behavior can be considered an essential factor in increasing the EO of employees, which will improve creativity and provide crucial economic input to the organizations (Karaca et al., 2021). Moustaghfir et al. (2020) confirm that corporate entrepreneurialism translated into value activities contributes to shaping organizational attitudes, behaviors, and cultural determinants that are, in turn, conducive to better innovativeness, risk propensity, and initiative-taking. Akbari et al. (2021) and Renko et al. (2015) also show that EL has a significant and positive impact on the innovative behaviors of the organization. Thus, a manager's leadership style can play a vital role in nurturing EO in the organization (Farukh et al., 2019). Entrepreneurially oriented organizations are characterized by autonomy, creativity, and innovativeness in the organizations that contribute to school management and survival (van Jaarsveld, 2020). Studies also have explored the association between EL and EO as an opportunity to collaborate with schools' stakeholders (Ghazali et al., 2020) and as an important factor for entrepreneurial activities in non-profit contexts adjusted to the social mission of organizations in different contexts (Salahuddin, 2016).

EL is linked with innovative behavior (Akbari et al., 2021; Bagheri & Lope Pihie, 2013; Lope Pihie, Asimiran, & Bagheri, 2014; Newman et al., 2018), opportunity recognition and exploitation (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Renko et al., 2015), organizational performance (Crocchi, 2016; van Jaarsveld, 2020), survival (Malik et al., 2020; van Jaarsveld, 2020), and sustainability (Alghamdi, 2020; Diehl, 2016; Esmer & Dayi, 2017; Ghafar, 2020; Lope Pihie, Asimiran, & Bagheri, 2014). EL has a significant and positive impact on innovative behaviors of the organization (Renko et al., 2015; Sarwoko, 2020) which promotes autonomy, proactiveness, innovative ideas and initiatives, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness.

From the studies presented, EL is indirectly and directly linked with EO which leads to the performance of organizations. It is believed that when leaders are entrepreneurial, they influence organizations to become entrepreneurially oriented, which makes schools more capable of responding to the needs of society, and more

responsive as vehicles in radiating their mission in society. As schools, like the SVD schools, are considered social institutions, they play a great role in economic development and in society. The social dimension of the school shows that it can exist only within the social environment and is indeed an organ of society (Drucker & Maciariello, 2008). With its social position, schools are prompted to be accountable to society and expected to be managed well by leaders to serve the “best-balanced interests” of all the stakeholders. However, running an organization in an era of change and uncertainty, beset by constant changes and challenges brought by the disruptive environment, critically requires the right kind of leadership that lead the organizations to be proactive in embracing and exploring these technological breakthroughs for competitive advantage.

The idea of EL and EO may sound odd in the context of Catholic schools. As Taylor (2016) and Metaprofiling (2013) explicate, missionaries are great entrepreneurs, and they are more passionate and strategic, making business that makes sense. This was affirmed by John Dorr expounding that missionaries are driven by passion, think strategically, go for the marathon, focus on their customers and value statement, are mentors or coaches of teams, are obsessed with making a contribution while recognizing the importance of money, and are fundamentally driven by the desire to make meaning.

Various scholars identified the concept of entrepreneurship in the academic context to focus on developing school leaders' skills to direct organizational changes and collaborative agreements with their stakeholders (Ghazali et al., 2020), leading beyond a classroom lesson, and performing merchandising strategies (Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Douglass, 2018; Fantauzzi et al., 2019; Saad et al., 2020; Stolze, 2020). Furthermore, school leaders are prompt to contribute to school sustainability, and to portray significant entrepreneurial activity in the educational environment supports effective school performance, management, and survival (van Jaarsveld, 2020). Due to globalization, rivalry among organizations and enterprises rises, prompting organizations to instill an entrepreneurial attitude, which can also be seen in institutions, to improve performance and productivity (Shah & Ahmad, 2019). Like EL, an individual's EO is equally important as a critical element in business advantage, growth, and success (Isichei et al., 2020; Moustaghfir et al., 2020; Sabahi & Parast, 2020). Being entrepreneurially oriented substantially impacts an organization's success in discovering and executing new ideas and improving performance (Linton & Kask, 2017; Virglerova et al., 2020).

While significant empirical studies on EL and EO have focused on business and organizational settings (Ariyani et al., 2021; Bagheri & Lope Pihie, 2013; Esmer & Dayi, 2017; Ghafar, 2020; Newman et al., 2018; Thornberry,

2006), there is a noticeable gap in the literature regarding their application in the academic environment. Specifically, the interplay between EL and EO in universities, and its influence on academic activities, remains underexplored (Bergmann et al., 2018; Bual & Madrigal, 2018; Elayyan, 2021; Guerrero et al., 2020; Iyer, 2016). Despite the growing interest in these concepts within business organizations (Cai et al., 2019; He et al., 2017; Jeffers-Sample et al., 2018; Mokhber et al., 2016), few studies have examined how EO can shape academic leadership and organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, direct relationships between EL and EO constructs remain largely unexplored (Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Douglass, 2018; Fantauzzi et al., 2019; Farrukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020).

With the literature's limitations on EL and EO in the academic context, this research aims to address these gaps by investigating the relationship between EL and EO within the context of Catholic higher education, specifically within the SVD institutions. By bridging this gap, the study underscores the role of EO in enhancing academic leadership, operational sustainability, and educational effectiveness in SVD colleges. Grounded in St. Arnold Janssen's vision for education as integral to missionary work, this study highlights the importance of compassionate, proactive, and service-oriented leadership. As the sustainability of a Catholic school must be ensured (Pope Benedict XVI), it is crucial to ensure operational vitality, sustainability, and continuous improvement; it effectively and efficiently directs its resources in the spirit of stewardship (Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines and PPH Educational Foundation, 2016). Ultimately, this study contributes to understanding how EL and EO can be integrated into academic settings to foster overall school effectiveness and organizational success towards survival and sustainability.

Statement of the problem

Considering the research gap, the study aimed to explore the relationship between EL and EO in the context of PHN-SVD schools. In response, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the extent of EL in PHN-SVD schools?
2. What is the extent of EO in PHN-SVD schools?
3. Is there a significant relationship between EL and EO in PHN-SVD schools?
4. Is there a significant relationship between EL and each EO dimension in PHN-SVD schools?

Theoretical framework

EL exists at the heart of entrepreneurial leaders. This study is based on the Thornberry (2006) framework of EL in the academic context. Covin and Slevin (1991) and Gupta et al. (2004) support entrepreneurial skills and EL style which embraces communicating a vision that identifies opportunities while taking a risk, innovating, seizing

opportunities, and managing change. This study also considers autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness (Covin & Slevin, 1991; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; D. Miller, 1983; Thornberry, 2006).

EL is a type of leadership required to survive in the face of turbulence and uncertainties. With the adoption and encouragement of entrepreneurial behaviors, educational institutions can pursue value creation, respond to changing environmental opportunities and challenges, and achieve organizational performance within the context of the institution. As social institutions, schools are better able to remain, if not be more, responsive to serve such a purpose in society if they embrace EL and EO.

Furthermore, this study is based on the functionalist theory of education. As envisioned by Durkheim, society as an organism is composed of social institutions designed to serve its purpose. Functionalism is a theoretical perspective that social structures like schools fulfill the social system (Gómez-Diago, 2020). Connected to Weber's social and economic theory, the social organization is the functioning view of the social institutions. Entrepreneurial leaders take the role of shaping social and economic opportunities (Greenberg et al., 2011).

Conceptual framework

Aiming for the survival and sustainability of PHN-SVD schools, a distinct kind of leadership is imperative to ensure that these schools as social institutions continue to serve society and continue their missions as they remain steadfast as instruments of evangelization and as witnesses to the Word. To this end, EL, in particular, can play a crucial role in determining the organization's success. Leading entrepreneurially can potentially contribute to providing an entrepreneurially oriented institution.

The concepts, theories, and studies of EL and EO are essential in schools, serving as vehicles for transmitting knowledge and creating economic and social value. They need to be responsive, relevant, and innovative to meet the ever-changing needs of their stakeholders in society (Tolosa & Ibarra, 2018). Hence, an analysis of EL and EO for the PHN-SVD schools was done to emerge a framework for the entrepreneurially oriented higher education institutions, specifically the PHN-SVD schools, which was conceptualized as the output of the study. The application of EL and EO was not within the scope of the study, but it paved the way for its application in the future.

Method

This study used quantitative research methods, specifically, descriptive-correlational research to determine the relationship between EL and EO of PHN-SVD schools and the relationship between EL and each EO construct.

As defined by Creswell (2012), quantitative research as a work enables researchers to identify attributes and study relationships between two or more variables. The descriptive approach is the design suitable for the study since it describes the EL and the EO of the PHN-SVD schools. Descriptive research describes conditions in the organization (Gall et al., 2007) or explains a particular phenomenon (Babbie, 2010).

The respondents were the faculty members and non-teaching personnel of the three PHN-SVD schools (referred to here as schools X, Y, and Z) who have served these schools for at least three years. This was to make sure they had enough experience and understanding of the school's culture, leadership, and operations, which are important for studying the relationship between EL and EO. Total enumeration was attempted in the study; the PHN-SVD schools had 108 faculty members and 65 non-teaching staff, resulting in 173 employees as intended respondents.

A two-part questionnaire was the primary tool for gathering the data. Its items used a 4-point Likert extent scale. The first part consists of EL scale items based on the model developed by Thornberry (2006). It includes an 18-item survey adopted from the work of Lope Pihie, Bagheri, and Asimiran (2014) which was analyzed using the structural equation modeling software IBM SPSS Amos 20. The goodness-of-fit indices were higher than 0.90, with the composite reliability indices greater than the 0.7 threshold, which confirmed the reliability of the constructs; the average variance extracted was higher than the 0.5 thresholds, indicating a high convergent validity of the study constructs (Selvaraja & Lope Pihie, 2017).

The second part consists of items about the five dimensions of EO: autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness. The five-dimensional EO construct (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Lumpkin et al., 2009) was adopted from Zhang et al. (2014) and consists of 18 items that were slightly modified to capture the context of the academic setting. The reliability and validity analysis of the instrument indicated that it exhibited good psychometric properties. The discriminant validity was evidenced by the value of factor loadings (all .05), the average variances extracted were all above 0.5, Cronbach's α measured the reliability above 0.7, composite reliabilities were all above 0.8, and the overall Cronbach's α was 0.713.

The study was carried out following the recommendations and ethical standards of the Saint Louis University-Research Ethics Committee with protocol number SLU-REC-SS 2022-011. Ethical issues such as the dignity and well-being of the respondents, their consent, and data confidentiality such as assigning pseudonyms to the names of schools to protect the identity of the respondents and schools were considered.

Table 1. Extent of EL of PHN-SVD schools

EL behaviors		Over-all	DE
1	Motivates us to think of innovative ways to beat the competition	3.09	HE
2	Effectively proposes new educational ideas to upper management	3.14	HE
3	Tells us where we stand vis-à-vis the competition	3.00	HE
4	Makes sure that we have the right team of people to capture these new opportunities successfully	3.10	HE
5	Displays enthusiasm for learning new skills	3.19	HE
6	Quickly takes a different direction when results aren't being achieved	3.04	HE
7	Motivates school staff to think about doing their work in new and interesting ways	3.11	HE
8	Allots time to helping school staff find ways to improve our school performance like conducting conferences, coaching and mentoring sessions, etc.	3.07	HE
9	Quickly utilizes different approaches to overcoming obstacles when the initial one doesn't work	2.95	HE
10	Demonstrates an entrepreneurial orientation at work	2.99	HE
11	Analyzes workflow, resources, processes, and procedures to see how we can do our work better, faster, and with a better impact on students' achievements	3.08	HE
12	Expects us to identify and solve cross-school problems and issues constructively	3.06	HE
13	Willingly listens to suggestions from others about how to do things differently	3.01	HE
14	Supports us in fighting for changes that will improve how the school works	2.99	HE
15	Keeps the school informed and updated on new educational trends and methods to improve students' learning and achievement	3.15	HE
16	Actively encourages school improvement suggestions throughout the school	3.07	HE
17	Takes action to implement many of these suggestions	3.03	HE
18	Keeps the school focused on its core strategy and supports new educational initiatives	3.15	HE
Mean		3.07	HE

For the face-to-face conduct of the study (whenever possible), the researcher personally delivered and asked permission from the college presidents to float the questionnaires at a scheduled time and day, observing health protocols. The online administration of the study was done through Google Forms. A default setting in the Google Form was changed to safeguard the anonymity of the respondents. Forty-eight respondents answered the printed forms while 108 respondents completed the questionnaires through Google Forms. However, 17 respondents failed to respond after exhausting all efforts to follow up their participation, hence only the actual respondents were included in the final analysis.

The researcher, being part of the administration, avoided influencing the conduct of the study. The informed consent form was explained to the respondents before the survey to ensure the confidentiality of their responses. To safeguard anonymity, the respondents were not required to write their names and were allowed to use pseudonyms.

Data analysis was done quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics. Weighted means and Pearson *r* values at a .05 level of significance were used. To substantiate the analysis and discussion, qualitative feedback (observations and informal interviews) were included.

Results and discussions

The descriptive equivalents (DE) used for data analysis and interpretation were 3.25–4.00 very high extent (VHE), 2.50–3.24 high extent (HE), 1.75–2.49 low extent (LE), and 1.00–1.74 very low extent (VLE).

Extent of EL in PHN-SVD schools

The EL of PHN-SVD schools was found to be of a high extent as shown in Table 1.

The PHN-SVD school leaders demonstrated EL behaviors to a high extent as highlighted in their enthusiasm for learning new skills, keeping the school on track with educational demands and trends, and keeping the school focused on core strategies and supporting educational initiatives. The results show that PHN-SVD school leaders practice EL, a type of leadership that is imperative in an environment challenged by change and innovation (Steenkamp, 2020), and competition and uncertainties (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000).

Considering the dynamic environment in which the schools operate, leading schools nowadays require new perspectives, insights, and more innovative and creative strategies. With this desire to learn, the PHN-SVD school leaders themselves serve as models of professional competence and affirm that they need to be equipped with professional expertise and with newer expectations

of the creative and innovative skills to cope with the demands of the present time. At present, school leaders need to embrace technological transformations and digital culture, which enable them to create, invent, and manage a learning environment that provides opportunities (Congregation for Catholic Education, 2022). In the light of the findings of the study, the school leaders are encouraged to participate in learning opportunities to upgrade their expertise through graduate studies, training, seminars/webinars, benchmarking, research engagements, linkages, and partnerships. They attend board and corporation meetings and interschool strategic planning, where they are guided and informed about the SVD thrusts and strategic direction. These are manifestations that the school leaders possess a growth mindset. This further implies that in their quest for learning, they have the drive to bring change and impact to the organization, which eventually contributes to the economic development of the society, as emphasized in the idea that school leaders as entrepreneurial leaders embrace learning and recognize opportunities (Kuratko, 2007; McGrath & MacMillan, 2000) and productive possibilities (Naumann, 2017). If school leaders are competent, they can manage and run the schools effectively. Thus, they are in a better position to serve the society.

Of the three schools, School Y was found to have the highest extent of EL (high extent). The leadership behaviors of school leaders in this school, which were rated to be of very high extent, are exhibited in keeping the school informed and updated, keeping the school focused on its core strategy and supporting educational initiatives, and motivating school staff to think about doing their work in new and exciting ways. School Y is the most entrepreneurial among the three schools, as revealed in the results. Former and incumbent school leaders in School Y have been assigned as directors, presidents, and provincial superiors of SVD Northern Province. Their leadership and management abilities were honed with a wide range of exposure and experience in certain positions. They participate in SVD corporation and board meetings of schools, thus allowing them to see the situation and are given ideas on how to better run, manage, and sustain school operations. Thus, their behavior impacts the entire organization.

Other factors that make School Y entrepreneurial are their passion for keeping the school on track through its educational initiatives like conducting research convergence among the PHN-SVD schools. The school also assists other SVD schools in the north in putting up technology-related facilities. School Y observes a centralized system of operation and set up in terms of its governance, contributing to a more focused and directed core strategy and initiatives like ensuring vertical articulation. School leaders do not micromanage; instead, they provide a system where staff are motivated to think

Table 2. Extent of EO in PHN-SVD schools

EO dimension	Over-all	DE
Autonomy	3.00	HE
Innovativeness	2.90	HE
Proactiveness	2.86	HE
Risk-taking	2.82	HE
Competitive aggressiveness	2.89	HE

about doing their work in new and exciting ways by trusting and respecting their area of expertise. Having entrepreneurial school leaders can invest in the right people, technology and facilities, prioritize, strategize and envision the direction of the school towards the attainment of school goals. The result suggests that for the schools to survive amidst the rapid changes and complexities, PHN-SVD school leaders have to be more entrepreneurial and embed EL, which brings significant changes to the school community. They have to be better equipped with entrepreneurial skills and thinking, thinking and behaving entrepreneurially to manage and lead schools in the dynamic and competitive environment and thus serve society better inherent in the SVD vision-mission. As school leaders, they are expected to take significant roles in the entrepreneurial ecosystems hence, they are challenged to be more innovative and resilient amidst the changes in the educational landscape. The findings also confirm the study of Spesia (2016), explaining that one fundamental role of a private Catholic college is to act as an entrepreneur, which is central to building ideas to bring the institution into a competitive college or institution and allows flexibility by creating an innovative and entrepreneurial atmosphere where ideas can flourish and create competitive advantages (Farrukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020; Naumann, 2017).

Extent of EO in PHN-SVD schools

The PHN-SVD schools are entrepreneurially oriented along autonomy, innovativeness, pro-activeness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness as presented in Table 2.

Autonomy

In terms of autonomy, the result depicts that PHN-SVD schools have the freedom and flexibility to develop and enact entrepreneurial initiatives. These schools can work independently and decide what organizational opportunities to pursue. Supporting the efforts of individuals or teams to work autonomously was found to be of a high extent in PHN-SVD schools. These schools conduct their institutional or strategic plans based on their context, provide opportunities for employees' professional and career growth, decide on schools' strategic directions and priorities, delegate tasks, have flexibility in instructional design and promote academic freedom.

The schools are free to do their tasks as exemplified in their organizational structure. Each unit is given authority and discretion to decide matters within their level and control.

It further denotes that PHN-SVD schools do not subscribe to micromanagement but instead promote organizational functions, thus contributing to workplace creativity and innovativeness. Since PHN-SVD schools are small organizations, autonomy is evident. It affirms the belief of Gore's "the power of small teams" designed to create environments where autonomous behavior stimulates entrepreneurial outcomes (Lumpkin et al., 2009). The result also affirms that autonomous individuals, operating outside their usual work routines and practices to stimulate entrepreneurial development and growth, represent an essential source of creativity and initiative in many organizational settings (Burgelman & Sayles, 1986, as cited in Lumpkin et al., 2009). A manifestation of entrepreneurially oriented organizations characterized by autonomy is equally essential, contributing to school management and survival (van Jaarsveld, 2020).

Innovativeness

The school's innovativeness also reflects the capacity of the PHN-SVD schools to explore new educational opportunities, the tendency to take action and exploit the opportunity, and the changes that implemented innovations in the school performances. The innovativeness of PHN-SVD schools is evident in decision making; maximizing educational opportunities; building linkages for collaboration and partnerships; embracing technology-related concerns and applications; promoting innovative initiatives, programs, and activities; integrating innovative instructional strategies; and introducing innovative systems and processes as reflected in the results. Without innovation, PHN-SVD schools will be outdated and left behind in various aspects. These schools will no longer be relevant and responsive to the needs of society. As cited in Mokher et al. (2016) and Fernandez and Shaw (2020), innovation is inevitable for organizational development in a competitive world. This finding corroborates the work of Cleverley-Thompson (2016) on the role of academic deans as entrepreneurial leaders in schools contribute to school innovativeness. Of the three schools, School X was found to have the lowest extent of EO along innovativeness. This implies that school leaders of School X need to courageously explore and discover more innovative ideas and possibilities for improved school performance.

The findings of this study also suggest that PHN-SVD school leaders have to be more entrepreneurial by considering creative and innovative ideas that lead to enormous possibilities in the organization. With the openness to innovative and creative ideas, PHN-SVD schools are more capable in playing their role in the transmission of knowledge ensuring that the needs and demands

of the clientele at this present time are addressed responsibly and appropriately. As pointed out in the UN 2030 Global Goals for Sustainable Development, higher education institutions need to become more innovative, flexible, and adaptive to cope with the challenges and opportunities facing school managers and educational institutions (SDG Knowledge Hub, 2016). In addition, with the disruptions in the increasingly competitive school environment, schools as a catalyst for changes need to be more technologically literate and savvy and, at the same time, innovative to hurdle significant challenges (Alghamdi, 2020; Ariyani et al., 2021; Bandaranaike et al., 2020; Cai et al., 2019).

Proactiveness

The EO of PHN-SVD schools along proactiveness is also rated of high extent, which shows that these schools have a forward-looking perspective. It depicts that these schools can seek out and capture new opportunities that may or may not be relevant to current school operations. This finding also implies that schools can deal with challenges and opportunities, both internal and external, leading to organizational effectiveness. The finding further shows that these schools use proactive measures and approaches, such as learning to handle and control situations instead of waiting for the problem to arise. They have foresight and anticipate problems that will happen in the future.

Risk-taking

The results revealed that the PHN-SVD schools are entrepreneurially oriented to a high extent in terms of risk-taking. These schools are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial activities, which are uncertain as these schools observe EL as revealed in the earlier findings. In an entrepreneurial environment, one better way to use resources and abundant opportunities is by capitalizing on uncertainties (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Naumann, 2017). Risk-taking is one of the sustainable behavioral patterns (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011, as cited in Bartkoski and Shahzad, 2017) and one of the defining attributes of entrepreneurial organizations like schools (Covin & Slevin, 1991). PHN-SVD schools embark on risk-taking behaviors by allotting valuable resources into projects or potentially worthwhile ventures and embarking on unknown opportunities. This EO dimension was highlighted in these schools, particularly in hiring, investing in technology and facilities, and intense professional development despite schools' limited resources and without any assurance that people in the organization will stay.

The finding is consistent with the earlier result involving autonomy since autonomy is allowed in the organization, thus making them risk takers in exploiting potential yet uncertain opportunities. People are given avenues where they generate new ideas and are challenged to think outside of the box in their respective units. This

also denotes that schools provide spaces where employees explore possibilities of creating new successful strategies and are encouraged to explore new ideas that work in the organization to help improve school management and governance, financial capability, instruction, student engagement in the classroom, and employee performance. Furthermore, this shows that these schools are willing to take risks, absorb uncertainty, and take responsibility for the future.

For PHN-SVD schools to move forward and see improvements, learning or trying new things is a bold decision to observe consistently. Organizations like PHN-SVD schools have to reinvest in themselves and change in perspective to thrive in the global environment. Moreover, the findings suggest that to thrive in this era, it is necessary for organizations like PHN-SVD schools to be dynamic, aggressive, creative, innovative, and risk-taking to exploit every opportunity that comes along the way. However, school leaders should have perceptual acuity and discernment in decision making, particularly for risky undertakings. The findings also affirm and challenge the fundamental role leaders in these schools play in the effective management of schools to achieve quality Catholic education and ensure operational vitality in responding to their evangelical mission (Bual & Madrigal, 2018). Given today's climate of rapidly shifting economic forces, prolific technology, demographic fluctuation, and social change, as Rusk and Forbes-Simpson (2016) pointed out, leaders must be entrepreneurial to identify and solve complex, multi-faceted problems. Taking into account the dynamic profile of Catholic schools, risk-taking cannot be avoided as this entrepreneurially oriented behavior is a must in this environment at the present time for survival and sustainability.

Competitive aggressiveness

The EO of PHN-SVD schools along competitive aggressiveness is of a high extent. To remain responsive and relevant to their mission in bringing Christ to its stakeholders vis-à-vis embracing and adopting a more "entrepreneurial" approach in the context of Catholic schools, the schools play a significant role in preparing students for a lifetime career, enabling and transforming every learner to become productive members of the society to find meaningful work (Iyer, 2016). Furthermore, Catholic universities and institutions train and equip students to address more significant societal problems like poverty and social injustices. In this study, the three schools continue to foster competitive aggressiveness in their ability to innovate in their activities in line with school operations, local needs, and expectations by exerting efforts to improve their position to thrive in a competitive environment. The schools' investment and initiativeness in technology to meet the demands of the digital age and prioritize the development of the human resources contribute to the delivery of quality Catholic

education and the brand identity of Catholic schools. Other factors that contribute to the unique identity make these schools position themselves competitively even in this contemporary time.

From the results, these schools continue to seek improvement in their position to define or overcome a threat in a competitive environment and use unconventional or creative and innovative strategies to challenge competitors. To be at par with the standards of other schools, these schools subject themselves to external accreditation, engage in international benchmarking and membership to local and international professional organizations, and build linkages to exploit opportunities, capitalizing on the delivery of quality services, and strengthening community extension programs. Committed to the mission of educational apostolate to provide quality education, PHN-SVD schools as Catholic learning institutions continue to embrace new and creative ideas to improve services particularly in the delivery of instruction by adapting innovative pedagogical strategies and approaches, conducting classroom-based and in-campus research as bases to improving teaching and student services, and conducting assessment and evaluation of performance, activities and services. Also, these schools invest in technological development to cope with the demand in the digital environment. The proliferation of technology as one of the greatest achievements of the human mind and its application to life challenge schools to position themselves better to remain competitive. Through these avenues, PHN-SVD schools have a better edge in positioning themselves in this competitive environment and contribute to the knowledge economy by producing quality graduates.

The findings suggest that the respondents appreciate the schools' effort on the significance of a solid response to competition. The global market affects social institutions like schools, private universities, and Catholic schools in organizations where the sky is no longer the limit. Considering other schools in the locality implies that the school must continuously improve its position and relevance to the community. Because of the competitive nature of organizations, many scholars have advocated for a competitive, aggressive attitude in academic settings if they are to survive and thrive in the sector (Iyer, 2016). Similarly, the school's aggressiveness, which reflects leaders' EL behaviors, is needed to overcome the competition in the academic context (Farukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020; Malik et al., 2020; Naumann, 2017).

While it is true that these are mission schools, the idea of competitive aggressiveness may sound odd as this is in the purview of business, however, these schools need to behave entrepreneurially to survive and remain responsive and relevant to serve society better. As Taylor (2016) explicates, missionaries are great entrepreneurs;

Table 3. Correlation between extent of EL and extent of EO

Correlates	Correlation coefficient	<i>p</i> -value
EL, overall EO	0.77	.00*

**p* < .05

as such, they are more passionate and strategic. The founder and CEO of Amazon, Jeff Bezos, also believes that missionaries making better products for missionaries is not all about business but a business that makes sense (Metaprofiling, 2013). Likewise, venture capitalist John Doerr expounded that missionaries are driven by passion, think strategically, focus on their customers and value statement, are mentors and coaches of teams, are obsessed with contributing while recognizing the importance of money, and are fundamentally driven by the desire to make meaning (Johnston, 2005).

The results further highlight the leadership characteristic of SVD leadership centered on the leader as animator, collaborator, and administrator where its threefold-characteristic caters to living the SVD mission of educational apostolate but also strengthening the management of its community to better function as pathfinders, problem solvers, or risk-takers.

Relationship between EL and EO in PHN-SVD schools

The correlation between the extent of EL and extent of EO is presented in Table 3.

The extent of EL and the extent of EO had a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.77$). The two variables were significantly correlated ($p < .05$). This signifies that the extent of EO depends on the extent of EL, and that the higher the extent of EL, the higher the extent of EO. This was reflected consistently in the earlier findings as the school with the highest extent of EL had the highest extent of EO across dimensions. This finding corroborates that of Moustaghfir et al. (2020), which confirms that organizational entrepreneurialism translated into value activities contributes to shaping organizational attitudes, behaviors, and cultural determinants that are conducive to better innovativeness risk propensity and initiative-taking. Likewise, Akbari et al. (2021) showed how leadership style significantly impacts an organization's innovation behaviors. Thus, a manager's leadership style can play a vital role in nurturing EO in the organization (Farrukh et al., 2019). Ghazali et al. (2020) and Salahuddin (2016) also explored the association between EL and EO and identified that one EL practice that school principals should possess is being unafraid to take risks to improve interconnectivity. Similarly, Renko et al.'s (2015) study shows that EL is positively related to creativity—promoting leadership and EO, and such a relationship is significant. These studies show that EL is indirectly and directly linked with EO.

Table 4. Correlation between extent of EL and extent of EO dimensions

Correlates of EO	Correlation coefficient	<i>p</i> -value
Autonomy	0.76	.00*
Innovativeness	0.71	.00*
Proactiveness	0.69	.00*
Risk-taking	0.70	.00*
Competitive aggressiveness	0.74	.00*
EL	0.77	.00*

**p* < .05

The result further implies that EL is needed to provide an environment that encourages entrepreneurial behaviors for organizations. Entrepreneurial leaders influence schools to become entrepreneurially oriented, making these schools more capable of responding to the needs of society. This further suggests that for schools to survive in the dynamic and increasingly competitive environment, school leaders play a significant role in influencing and inspiring entrepreneurial behaviors in the organization. The result affirms the work of Sani et al. (2018), which emphasizes the role of EL in encouraging followers in organizations to engage in entrepreneurial, creative activities. Similarly, Erić Nielsen et al. (2019) show that when top management promotes the entrepreneur's strategic vision, employees will have more courage, guidance, and moral legitimacy to do business. Moreover, the advantages of EL in schools like the mobilization of employees towards value creation (Gupta et al., 2004), competitive benefits (Farrukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020; Malik et al., 2020; Naumann, 2017), promotion of team members' attainment of organizational goals (Renko et al., 2015), organizational innovation (Akbari et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2020), improved performance and productivity (Linton & Kask, 2017; Shah & Ahmad, 2019; Tsetim et al., 2020; Virglerova et al., 2020), and creativity toward long-term survival and sustainability (Alghamdi, 2020; Diehl, 2016; Fernandez & Shaw, 2020; Ghafar, 2020; Lope Pihie, Asimiran, & Bagheri, 2014; Malik et al., 2020; van Jaarsveld, 2020) are imperative in this evolving and challenging environment.

Relationship between EL and each EO dimension in PHN-SVD schools

Table 4 shows the relationships between EL and each EO dimension—autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness.

The extent of EL was positively correlated with each EO dimension. The correlation was strong in these EO dimensions, as revealed in the computed correlation values, except for the dimension on proactiveness which was moderately correlated. The correlation between EL

and each EO dimension was significant ($p < .05$). It means that if the extent of EL is high, it results in high EO behaviors, which were evident in the earlier findings. The results indicate that EL influences these entrepreneurially oriented behaviors in schools. Many studies show that EL is linked with these EO behaviors in organizations.

The finding on autonomy corroborates that of Bilal et al. (2021) that EL inculcates an organizational climate by providing autonomy that enhances autonomous motivation among employees and their involvement in opportunities exploration and utilization.

The result also shows that innovativeness as an EO dimension was positively associated with EL and the relationship was significant. Malik et al. (2020) reveals that EL encourages change and innovation, and Bagheri and Lope Pihie (2013) link EL with a strong and favorable association with inventive employee behavior. EL has a significant and positive relationship with the innovative behavior of employees (Newman et al., 2018; Renko et al., 2015; Sarwoko, 2020) and is positively linked with organizational innovation, which is greatly needed in a dynamic environment (Akbari et al., 2021; Kim & Lee, 2020). EL is a key predictor (Hughes et al., 2018; Rae, 2017) of organizational innovation. The result further implies that when school leaders are entrepreneurially oriented, schools are more innovative in their systems and processes; change and innovations are allowed in the school environment; novel ideas, programs, and projects are introduced; and opportunities are explored and recognized.

The EO dimension on proactiveness was positively linked with EL. This affirms that the EL behavior of managers is linked with employees' proactive behavior (Bilal et al., 2021). The result further signifies that organizational proactiveness depends on how the managers or school leaders display this entrepreneurial behavior in the workplace.

Risk-taking was found to be positively and significantly correlated with EL. This affirms that its ownership and governance influence the organization's openness to risk (Alshut, 2014). This implies that leadership is crucial in making organizations embark and engage in risk-taking endeavors.

Competitive aggressiveness was also positively and significantly correlated with EL. This means that the aggressiveness of the school to beat the competition in the environment reflects the EL behaviors of leaders. Through EL, rivalry among organizations prompts organizations to instill an entrepreneurial attitude to improve performance and productivity (Shah & Ahmad, 2019). EL fosters an entrepreneurial environment where ideas may grow, and competitive benefits can be gained (Farrukh et al., 2019; Gross, 2020; Malik et al., 2020; Naumann, 2017).

The findings affirm that EL plays a vital role in nurturing EO in the organization (Farrukh et al., 2019). Entrepreneurially oriented organizations are characterized by autonomy, creativity and innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness. These entrepreneurial behaviors contribute to organizational survival and sustainability, improved performance, and success, making schools more responsive to the needs of society. Embracing EL and EO in the academic context is an entrepreneurial decision that makes these schools survive and succeed as social institutions, thus making them capable of remaining, if not being more, relevant and responsive to serve society better through the mission-driven educational apostolate.

Framework

In light of the findings of the study, it can be gleaned that EL in the academic context plays an essential role in providing an entrepreneurial environment characterized by autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness. There are two characteristics fundamental to SVD leadership.

First, it is anchored on the kind of leadership where members work and function to achieve the goals of the organization, making it both a religious community and a human community. As a human community, the leaders' task is to administer human duties centered on day-to-day affairs, managing the organization's money or finances, or coordinating different activities in the organization.

Second, SVD leadership is three-fold: an SVD leader is a spiritual animator, a coordinator, and an administrator. As a spiritual animator, the leader adheres to living the missionary commitment of the Society; as a coordinator, they function as a collaborator and communicator to fulfill the mission entrusted to them; and as an administrator, they exhibit the role of the leader ensuring the stakeholder's needs are attended to. In this sense, SVD leadership provides a vision towards a practice of coordinated and organized members for the achievement of the goals of the community exhibiting specific roles as pathfinders, implementers, or problem solvers.

Findings of the current study depicted the various characteristics fundamental not only to the SVD mission but also to SVD leadership in the community as it envisions its role to help society move forward with the vision of providing quality service to its stakeholders. Thus, the EL of school leaders directly influences the PHN-SVD schools to become entrepreneurial, characterized by autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness. Conversely, these schools' EO reflects the school leaders' EL behaviors. Moreover, organizations like schools operate in a competitive and technological environment, and responding to the challenges of today's environment requires EL. As organiza-



Figure 1. Framework for PHN-SVD schools

tions evolve with time, EL behaviors enable organizations to behave entrepreneurially to survive amidst the challenges and frontier missions—reaching out to all levels, sectors, and situations of society.

Hence, the framework in Figure 1, which serves as the output of the study, emphasizes the relationship between EL and EO and the significance of these concepts in the PHN-SVD context in terms of survival and sustainability and making the SVD continue its legacy and a living witness to the Word. The result is a point of continuity and enhancement of the SVD vision-mission of these schools characterized by the hallmarks of SVD to remain relevant in the educational apostolate at this contemporary time.

Conclusions and recommendations

EL provides a vital avenue for influencing organizations to become entrepreneurially oriented which in turn leads to achieving entrepreneurial outcomes. PHN-SVD school leaders practice entrepreneurial behaviors in leading and managing these schools. As entrepreneurial leaders, they show enthusiasm for learning new skills as running and leading missionary schools at this contemporary time requires EL behaviors for them to continue their evangelical mission of educational apostolate. PHN-SVD schools are entrepreneurially oriented: autonomous, innovative, proactive, risk taking, and competitively aggressive. These EO dimensions are imperative for PHN-SVD schools to survive in these competitive and uncertain times. School Y provides the environment where EO is

evident across all dimensions. As risk-taking has the lowest extent of all EO dimensions particularly in School X, it is high time for PHN-SVD schools to embrace risks in every venture or undertaking for them to explore more enormous possibilities in leading and managing schools.

Providing entrepreneurially oriented PHN-SVD schools is strongly dependent on the EL of school leaders. EL is needed to provide an environment that encourages PHN-SVD schools to behave entrepreneurially in terms of autonomy, innovativeness, proactiveness, risk taking, and competitive aggressiveness. For the survival and sustainability of PHN-SVD schools and to cope with the challenges of the present time, the role of EL and EO in these schools which promotes entrepreneurial outcomes is significant.

Like other organizations, PHN-SVD schools need to be responsive and relevant in the society. School leaders are educational leaders who have a clear vision of the strategic direction of these mission schools serving the stakeholders in the entrepreneurial environment while keeping grounded on the Catholic identity and evangelical mission of SVD schools.

The study's findings have important managerial implications as a contribution to the entrepreneurial practice in terms of leadership and management. The study enriches the understanding of the relationship between EL and EO in the academic context of PHN-SVD schools as a novel contribution to the body of knowledge. It allows a greater understanding of the concept of EL that is becoming a global necessity, and a better understanding of the elements that comprise it. This also offers a point of reflection for PHN-SVD school leaders of the 21st century to understand that schools operate in the entrepreneurial ecosystem and need to evolve with time to remain relevant and responsive. Since EL is usually in the purview of business, it should be given greater emphasis and attention in other organizations like schools. The application of EL and EO may be unusual in the academic setting, particularly in Catholic schools. However, school leaders are more challenged to utilize these concepts and become more entrepreneurial to keep these schools survive. Ensuring the sustainability of PHN-SVD schools amidst all challenges and keeping the core and fundamentals of Catholic education evident and felt in society is an entrepreneurial action.

The study is limited to the PHN-SVD schools which may not adequately represent the full diversity of perspectives across similar higher education institutions. Future research could address this limitation by using a larger and more diverse sample to enhance the applicability and generalizability of the findings across different contexts and institutional settings. Other factors or variables like organizational performance linked to EL and EO that would enrich the understanding and application of these concepts in the academic context of Catholic

educational institutions need to be further explored and be considered as pointers for future research.

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Developing an internal quality assurance model: The case of two Philippine private universities

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Structured abstract

Background: The implementation of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Quality Assurance Framework (AQAF) subsequently brought about directives from the Commission on Higher Education of the Philippines to establish internal quality assurance (IQA) systems in higher education institutions (HEIs). With this, the ten AQAF principles on IQA are expected to guide the IQA systems of HEIs.

Purpose: Examine the institutional profile of the participating Lasallian institutions and the extent to which they have implemented the AQAF IQA principles; identify the strengths, weaknesses, threats, and opportunities of their IQA systems; and, drawing from their best practices, propose an IQA model.

Participants: The participants for the survey and interviews were administrators from two Lasallian HEIs that were selected based on a set of criteria.

Research design: The study used a mixed methods approach particularly the multi-case study methodology and descriptive statistics.

Data collection and analysis: Desk research, a quantitative survey, and qualitative interviews were done to collect data. The IQA systems of the participating institutions were studied using the AQAF IQA principles as the paradigm. SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis was also done.

Findings: Findings showed that the participating institutions have established IQA systems influenced by their operational and organizational culture, and they have advanced levels of implementation of the ten AQAF principles. The SWOT analysis further showed that their autonomy, top management support and leadership, stakeholder participation and involvement, functional IQA structures and processes, and IQA instruments such as monitoring and evaluation tools, all play important roles in their IQA systems implementation. From the findings, an IQA model for Lasallian HEIs was formulated.

Recommendations: Results of the study can be used to inform the status of the IQA systems of the participating institutions, other Lasallian HEIs, and even other HEIs in the country. These can serve as useful inputs for another round of planning and implementation that should involve going back to the Lasallian guiding principles as foundation and going back to the institution's mission and vision.

Keywords

ASEAN quality assurance framework, quality assurance, quality development, quality assurance model, higher education

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Introduction

Higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide are expanding and becoming increasingly diverse. With this growth comes the need to ensure the quality of educational programs and services, addressing concerns of accountability, competitiveness, and reputation (Groen, 2017; Kis, 2005; Martin & Emeran, 2017). Over the past two decades, 'quality' and 'quality assurance' have become key concepts in the education sector (Vettori, 2012).

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

integration, fully implemented in 2015, further emphasized the need to harmonize higher education quality standards to create a common space and establish a zone of trust (Fahmi, 2016). This common space focuses on shared, collaborative frameworks that promote the harmonization and integration of higher education systems across member countries. The increasing cross-border mobility of students, professionals, and services further underscores the importance of maintaining globally recognized quality standards. In response, the ASEAN Quality Assurance Framework (AQAF) was implemented to support these objectives.

Background

The AQAF consists of four interrelated quadrants. The first is external quality assurance (EQA) agencies that help HEIs maintain the quality of their academic programs and services. EQA refers to the process by which an external body evaluates an educational institution, program, or system to ensure that it meets predefined quality standards. It is typically conducted by accrediting agencies, regulatory bodies, or quality assurance organizations to maintain and enhance educational quality, accountability, and continuous improvement. The second is the EQA processes referring to the systems and standards utilized by EQA bodies to support their functions. The third is internal quality assurance (IQA) which establishes that the responsibility for quality rests on the HEIs themselves. The last one is the national qualification framework, a structured system that classifies and standardizes qualifications based on learning outcomes, competency levels, and pathways for education, training, and employment. The Philippine Qualifications Reference Framework provides a common reference for recognizing and comparing qualifications across different education and training systems (ASEAN Quality Assurance Network, 2016). In addition, the AQAF established ten general principles for each quadrant to guide implementation in the ASEAN member states.

This paper focuses on the third quadrant—the IQA in HEIs referring to the systems, processes, and mechanisms initiated and implemented by the educational institution itself to ensure and enhance the quality of its academic programs, governance, and support services. IQA consequently supports EQA undertakings and also serves as the backbone for the attainment of qualifications required by national qualifications frameworks (Elken & Stensaker, 2018; Martin & Emeran, 2017).

As the AQAF implementation eventually resonated in quality assurance initiatives in every ASEAN member state, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) issued CHED Memorandum Order 46 series of 2012, otherwise known as Policy Standard to Enhance Quality Assurance (QA) in Philippine Higher Education Through an Outcomes-Based and Typology-Based QA. Among other things, CMO 46 contains requirements for horizontal and vertical typologies, renewed focus on quality assurance including accreditation and international certification of programs, and the need for HEIs to establish their IQA systems to support the teaching-learning processes (Commission on Higher Education, 2012). Commission on Higher Education (2017) also initiated the Institutional Sustainability Assessment among HEIs, a measure that involves components of the quality process such as planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating of initiatives and eventually looks at outputs and outcomes of HEI functions and processes. On the other hand, EQA requirements eventually included cri-

teria on IQA as can be seen in the instruments of the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU) and the ASEAN University-Quality Assurance (AUN-QA) which figure prominently in the EQA directions of Philippine HEIs.

Quality assurance in Philippine HEIs is a multi-layered system designed to uphold and enhance academic standards, institutional governance, and student learning outcomes. It is governed by both regulatory and voluntary mechanisms, with CHED overseeing policies and program compliance through its Outcomes-Based QA framework. Additionally, HEIs undergo program and institutional accreditation with EQA bodies like PAASCU. These accrediting bodies assess institutions based on faculty qualifications, curriculum relevance, research productivity, student services, and institutional sustainability.

Beyond national accreditation, Philippine HEIs also engage in international quality assurance initiatives, such as assessments with AUN-QA and global accreditation agencies, to benchmark against international standards. Many institutions integrate IQA mechanisms, including program reviews, continuous improvement plans, and faculty development programs. However, challenges remain, such as resource constraints, uneven QA implementation across regions, and balancing regulatory compliance with institutional innovation.

With recent developments in quality assurance, HEIs have increasingly focused on establishing and strengthening their IQA systems, though these efforts remain largely influenced by EQA requirements. This trend is reflected in the limited QA studies in the Philippines, which have primarily examined CHED regulations as a QA framework, the benefits of accreditation and certification, program review, and the role of accrediting agencies (Dotong & Laguador, 2015; Ruiz & Junio-Sabio, 2012; Sipacio, 2015). Florida and Quinto (2015), on the other hand, analyzed the quality standards used by Times Higher Education rankings to determine why Philippine HEIs lag behind. More recently, Villaroman (2024) proposed a QA framework for a Philippine university, emphasizing commitment, accountability, progress and improvement, and excellence. Miranda and Reyes-Chua (2021) discussed best QA practices among selected Philippine HEIs using the Malcolm Baldrige framework highlighting the crucial roles of quality managers, faculty, and staff. However, no local study has yet examined IQA as focused on the quality initiatives of HEIs alone or on IQA principles within the context of the AQAF, independent of EQA requirements.

The above claim is supported by the findings of the study of Niedermeier and Pohlenz (2016), commissioned by the European Union Support to Higher Education in the ASEAN Region (EU SHARE) program, that assessed the state of QA in ASEAN HEIs. Their research exam-

ined existing QA policies, frameworks, and practices across ASEAN member states, identified key challenges in implementing and harmonizing QA systems, and assessed the institutional and regional needs for enhancing quality assurance mechanisms (SHARE, 2017). The study showed that many stakeholders, particularly those working in QA agencies and HEIs, are not aware of regional initiatives and their implications at institutional level (Niedermeier & Pohlenz, 2016). As a response, this study aims to provide HEIs with a platform to assess the status of their IQA systems in relation to the AQAF principles. Given that fostering a shared understanding of QA processes in the region is a core objective of the AQAF, this study seeks to contribute to that goal by offering insights that support alignment.

Statement of the problem

General: The study aims to develop an IQA model for Lasallian HEIs in the Philippines which is aligned with the AQAF IQA principles.

Specifically, this study aims to address the following questions:

1. What is the institutional profile of the two participating institutions in terms of:
 - a. IQA structures
 - b. IQA programs
 - c. IQA resources
 - d. Accreditation profile
2. What are the levels of implementation of the IQA systems of the two Lasallian HEIs vis-à-vis the ten AQAF IQA principles, to wit:
 - a. The institution has a primary responsibility for quality.
 - b. Quality assurance promotes the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability.
 - c. Quality assurance is a participatory and cooperative process across all levels incorporating involvement of academic staff, students, and other stakeholders.
 - d. A quality culture underpins all institutional activities including teaching, learning, research, services, and management.
 - e. A structured and functional IQA system with clearly defined responsibilities is established.
 - f. The quality system is promulgated and supported by the top management to ensure effective implementation and sustainability.
 - g. Sufficient resources for establishing and maintaining an effective quality system within the institution should be provided.
 - h. The institution should have formal mechanisms for approval, periodic review, and monitoring of programs and awards.
 - i. Quality is regularly monitored and reviewed for purposes of continuous improvement at all levels.
 - j. Relevant and current information about the institution, its programs, achievements, and quality processes is accessible to the public.
3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the IQA systems of the participating institutions? What are their opportunities and threats?
4. What key points can be derived from the results of specific objectives 1 to 3 which can serve as bases for developing the proposed IQA model for Lasallian HEIs?

It is the assumption of this study that HEIs in the country may learn from the case of Lasallian HEIs. Quality assurance is deeply embedded in the organizational culture of Lasallian HEIs as it is inherent in their entire educational mission. The Principles of Lasallian Education in the Philippines contained in the *Guiding Principles of the Philippine Lasallian Family* (2003) emphasized “commitment to excellence to be of greater service to God and the country.” These principles, a result of years of reflection on Lasallian identity and mission, guide the whole teaching and learning processes, research endeavors, and community engagements of all Lasallian institutions in the country. This document summed up the guiding principles by stating that Lasallian educators “aspire to create educational works of quality that will be signs of God’s Kingdom and instruments of salvation” (*Guiding Principles of the Philippine Lasallian Family*, 2003).

Finally, this research responds to the EU SHARE report on the AQAF that indicated the need for HEIs of ASEAN member states to understand better their roles and the implications of the AQAF on the HEI level (Batesman & Dyson, 2018). Ultimately, it is hoped that a deeper understanding of HEIs’ roles in aligning with the AQAF will lead to greater clarity on quality assurance processes and mechanisms. This, in turn, will help ensure that academic program qualifications are comparable with those of HEIs across the ASEAN region. After all, the overarching goal is to enhance the comparability of qualifications and promote the mobility of students, professionals, and services within ASEAN and beyond.

Methods

This study employed a mixed-methods approach, integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the IQA systems of the participating HEIs in relation to the AQAF. The study utilized a combination of descriptive-analytic multi-case study methodology, SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis, document analysis, surveys, and semi-structured interviews to provide a comprehensive assessment of IQA implementation.

Research design

For the qualitative component, a descriptive-analytic multi-case study methodology was used to present institutional profiles and assess the level of implementation of the ten AQAF IQA principles. The interlevel dynamics approach of Coghlan and Rashford (2006) was applied to examine the interplay between different levels of IQA implementation. A SWOT analysis was conducted to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the IQA systems in the participating institutions.

For the quantitative component, descriptive statistics were utilized to assess the level of IQA implementation based on the ten AQAF IQA principles. Inferential statistics were not employed, as IQA is a targeted, management-driven undertaking rather than a standard function of all members of the academic community. Additionally, inferential statistical analysis was beyond the scope and objectives of this study.

Data collection began with a survey administered to all target administrator respondents, with items based on the AQAF IQA principles. Following the survey, document analysis was conducted, focusing on strategic and operational plans, academic program review and enhancement, stakeholder involvement, resource allocation, and the utilization of evaluation data, among other key areas. Next, interviews were carried out to further clarify survey findings and validate insights from document analysis. Interviewees were selected based on their key roles in IQA implementation, ensuring alignment with the AQAF principles. For instance, college deans and department chairs were chosen as they oversee program development, review, and continuous improvement.

Participants of the study

The study involved two Lasallian HEIs in the Philippines, anonymized as University A and University B to comply with data privacy requirements. These institutions were selected based on three criteria: (a) their autonomous and university status as recognized by CHED, (b) their institutional accreditation granted by an accrediting agency or an equivalent status such as the Institutional Quality Assurance Monitoring and Evaluation (IQuAME) or the Institutional Sustainability Assessment (ISA), and (c) their overall quality assurance profile, particularly their engagement in QA processes. It was determined that these two institutions represent the diversity of Lasallian HEIs based on their profiles and geographical locations—one representing the Lasallian HEIs in Luzon, and the other representing those in the Visayas and Mindanao regions. Lasallian HEIs without autonomous status or an adequate program accreditation profile were not considered for participation in the study.

Participants for the survey and interviews included

college deans, department chairs, selected directors engaged in formulating plans and implementing programs, vice chancellors, and the Brother Presidents of the institutions. The survey was administered to HEI administrators, as they are the key planners and implementers of IQA systems. Interviews were conducted with purposefully selected administrators to ensure representation across different management and operational levels.

Research instruments

Three data collection methods were employed: document analysis, a survey questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews. Institutional QA documents from the Quality Assurance Offices of the participating institutions were analyzed, with additional documents requested online due to pandemic-related restrictions during data collection.

The survey questionnaire consisted of 40 items, developed based on the AQAF IQA principles as outlined in the EU SHARE Guidelines for Institutional Assessments (ASEAN Quality Assurance Network, n.d.). Each principle had three to six items, depending on its scope and components. The items used this 5-point Likert scale: 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-slightly agree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree.

The survey underwent expert validation by three statisticians and two quality assurance experts, resulting in refinements in item construction and scale descriptors. A pilot test was conducted with ten administrators from University A to ensure clarity and readability, leading to minor revisions in wording.

For the qualitative component, semi-structured interview questions were developed based on the EU SHARE Guidelines. These guidelines were used when the AQAF was pilot tested in assessing the IQA systems of institutions in the ASEAN region. Each interviewee received a tailored set of questions depending on their administrative role in IQA planning, implementation, and monitoring. The interviews covered various aspects of IQA, including policies, plans, strategies, quality management systems, resource allocation, stakeholder involvement, organizational structures, and the functions and responsibilities of QA staff.

Informed consent and ethical considerations

The study adhered to ethical research guidelines, ensuring informed consent and data confidentiality. Survey respondents provided consent through the Google survey form introduction, while interview participants gave consent via individual emails before scheduling. Ethics approval was secured from the Ethics Review Offices of the participating institutions. Anonymity was maintained by removing identifying information from transcripts and reports. Interviews were conducted via an online platform, and video recordings and survey data were sched-

uled for deletion three months after completion of the study, in line with institutional policies.

Data analysis and interpretation

For the quantitative analysis, survey responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics, particularly frequency count, mean, and standard deviation. The Level of Implementation Model of Bateman and Coles (2017) was applied to classify IQA implementation into five levels: 1-emerging, 2-entry, 3-intermediate, 4-advanced, and 5-mature.

For the qualitative analysis, content analysis (Merriam, 1998) was used to examine institutional profiles, interview transcripts, and documents. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed through coding to identify emerging themes (Creswell, 2014). Data were categorized based on the research questions and conceptual framework, with more detailed codes developed as necessary. To ensure accuracy and credibility, a member-checking process was conducted by presenting coding results to interviewees for validation.

The IQA model for Lasallian HEIs was developed drawing from the outcomes of the case studies of the participating institutions. The model development was informed by the works of Ehlers on quality literacy (Ehlers, 2007) and participative model for quality development (Ehlers, 2009), and the concepts of 'quality work' of Elken and Stensaker (2018) and 'quality practice' of Mårtensson et al. (2014).

To further refine the study's findings, the proposed IQA model was presented to three vice chancellors, three QA personnel, two deans, and two directors from the participating institutions. Additionally, the model was reviewed by two EQA experts, whose feedback led to refinements in certain components before finalization.

Results and discussion

Institutional profile of participating institutions

The profile of the participating institutions is discussed here based on their IQA structures, IQA programs, IQA resources, and accreditation profile.

Both University A and University B have established IQA systems that are anchored on their own operation and organizational culture. Both have IQA units that operate under the Office of the University President, and work hand in hand with the strategic management team of the institution. The director of the QA unit sits in all decision-making councils of the institution, a set-up which shows that the QA unit gets to participate in policy review and formulation which aims to further improve processes and services. For their IQA programs, both universities are heavily engaged in self-assessment activities mainly to prepare for accreditation visits. For this, University A's QA unit takes charge of planning, monitoring, and

coordination with all university units especially with the academics division. In University B, QA programs are largely handled by the leadership of the academic affairs division and coordinated with the QA unit.

Both universities have initial attempts at establishing information management systems to support QA programs. Efficient systems have yet to be put in place so that storage, retrieval, and reports generation can be possible. Capacity-building programs are also part of QA programs in which the QA unit of University A has already made a head start considering that the unit was established earlier than that of University B. The latter relies on external training programs for its academic leaders with QA functions.

Furthermore, it was observed that the established councils and committees, with clearly defined roles and responsibilities, facilitate discussions on IQA priorities for the academic community at both University A and University B. Additionally, both institutions have implemented IQA processes and instruments to monitor and evaluate IQA practices and activities. These processes are marked by stakeholder participation and engagement, though to varying degrees. To support the implementation of IQA programs, human, financial, and material resources are allocated based on priorities. While certain resources, such as IT infrastructure, require improvement, both institutions effectively leverage available resources to achieve the most productive outcomes possible.

Both participating institutions are maintaining their autonomous and university statuses with CHED and the level 4 accreditation status of their core programs with PAASCU. Several other graduate and undergraduate programs have achieved different levels of accreditation status.

Overall implementation of the ten IQA principles

Tables 1 and 2 present the summaries of the implementation of the ten IQA principles by the participating institutions. With data on mean, standard deviation, rank, and verbal interpretation, these tables also bring attention to the strengths and weaknesses of the institutions' IQA systems.

Ranked number 1 and the only IQA principle that was assessed to be in a mature level of implementation is the item "The institution has a primary responsibility for quality." The determination of the institution in this area is reflected in the manner by which quality initiatives have been integrated in the goals, structures, policies, and processes of the institution. This is aligned with the findings of Manatos et al. (2018) that successful integration of quality management systems requires alignment with the university's strategic goals and objectives. The study suggests that universities should ensure that their quality management practices support teaching, learning,

Table 1. Summary of University A's level of implementation of the ten IQA principles

IQA Principle		Mean	SD	Rank	Verbal interpretation
1	The institution has a primary responsibility for quality.	4.54	0.7019	1	Mature
2	Quality assurance promotes the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability.	4.29	0.7408	3	Advanced
3	Quality assurance is a participatory and cooperative process across all levels incorporating involvement of academic staff, students, and other stakeholders.	4.14	0.8239	9	Advanced
4	A quality culture underpins all institutional activities including teaching, learning, research, services, and management.	4.18	0.7565	6	Advanced
5	A structured and functional IQA system with clearly defined responsibilities is established.	3.98	0.7930	10	Advanced
6	The quality system is promulgated and supported by the top management to ensure effective implementation and sustainability.	4.28	0.7493	4	Advanced
7	Sufficient resources for establishing and maintaining an effective quality system within the institution should be provided.	4.14	0.7441	8	Advanced
8	The institution should have formal mechanisms for approval, periodic review, and monitoring of programs and awards.	4.22	0.7872	5	Advanced
9	Quality is regularly monitored and reviewed for purposes of continuous improvement at all levels.	4.34	0.7613	2	Advanced
10	Relevant and current information about the institution, its programs, achievements, and quality processes is accessible to the public.	4.16	0.7951	7	Advanced
Overall		4.23	0.1483		Advanced

research, and extension activities.

Ranked number 2 is the IQA principle "Quality is regularly monitored and reviewed for purposes of continuous improvement at all levels." Generally, review and monitoring were driven by regulatory and accreditation requirements but this has also brought forth internal processes that drive continuous improvement in teaching and learning, research, engagement, student support, and facilities. This is supported by Elken and Stensaker (2018) who promote a reflective practice of meaningful monitoring and continuous improvement that is carried out by actors in the different levels of operation. They argue that these processes should not be driven by external standards, but by commitment to excellence and idealism.

In rank number 3 is the IQA principle "Quality assurance promotes the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability." University A is autonomous and therefore enjoys a degree of autonomy, meaning it is not strictly regulated by CHED. This autonomy has empowered the institution to innovate its programs in response to emerging developments, better preparing graduates for the workforce. At the same time, accountability is ensured through the implementation of QA policies and processes, which safeguard the quality of teaching, research, and community extension activities. Additionally, regional and national development needs are carefully considered when planning

and implementing programs and services, ensuring that the institution's offerings remain relevant and impactful. This concept is reinforced by Vettori et al. (2017) who explain the impact of IQA processes and mechanisms on employability, management effectiveness, teaching and learning, and on the overall quality culture of the institution.

On the other hand, the succeeding narrative will focus on the three IQA principles that obtained the lowest ratings from the respondents. Ranked the lowest at number 10 in implementation was the IQA principle "A structured and functional IQA system with clearly defined responsibilities is established." Although there was a strong coordination between the IQA unit and other departments within the institution, a prevailing belief persisted that any matter related to QA should be handled by the IQA unit. Despite the IQA unit's continuous efforts to emphasize that QA is a shared responsibility, management tended to assign all QA duties to the IQA unit. Additionally, the training and development programs on QA have been insufficient, with opportunities largely reserved for key administrators. Furthermore, the IQA manual has not been effectively communicated to the relevant stakeholders.

Ranked number 9 in the implementation is the IQA principle that says "Quality assurance is a participatory and cooperative process across all levels incorporating involvement of academic staff, students, and other

Table 2. Summary of University B's level of implementation of the ten IQA principles

IQA Principle		Mean	SD	Rank	Verbal interpretation
1	The institution has a primary responsibility for quality.	4.38	0.6835	1	Advanced
2	Quality assurance promotes the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability.	4.37	0.6004	2	Advanced
3	Quality assurance is a participatory and cooperative process across all levels incorporating involvement of academic staff, students, and other stakeholders.	4.24	0.6356	4	Advanced
4	A quality culture underpins all institutional activities including teaching, learning, research, services, and management.	4.16	0.6410	6	Advanced
5	A structured and functional IQA system with clearly defined responsibilities is established.	3.83	0.6863	9	Advanced
6	The quality system is promulgated and supported by the top management to ensure effective implementation and sustainability.	4.21	0.6730	5	Advanced
7	Sufficient resources for establishing and maintaining an effective quality system within the institution should be provided.	3.95	0.6729	8	Advanced
8	The institution should have formal mechanisms for approval, periodic review, and monitoring of programs and awards.	4.33	0.7080	3	Advanced
9	Quality is regularly monitored and reviewed for purposes of continuous improvement at all levels.	4.07	0.7264	7	Advanced
10	Relevant and current information about the institution, its programs, achievements, and quality processes is accessible to the public.	3.64	0.8598	10	Advanced
Overall		4.12	0.6097		Advanced

stakeholders." Data showed that quality assurance was not integrated in the planning processes and there were concerns with the implementation of colleges and departments of action plans to address recommendations of accrediting agencies. The IQA unit coordinates closely with the vice chancellors and with the Brother President mostly through the Executive Council. Though it holds a general assembly at times and manages ad hoc committees, there is apparently a communication and implementation gap in the middle management level. Groen (2017) emphasized the importance of engaging internal stakeholders in the planning, implementation, and monitoring of QA processes to ensure collective participation. This involvement ultimately makes enhancement efforts meaningful, rather than merely driven by external accountability requirements.

Ranked number 8 is the IQA principle that says "Sufficient resources for establishing and maintaining an effective quality system within the institution should be provided." Resources in this regard refer to human, financial, and material resources for QA systems. The IQA unit is admittedly understaffed with only the director, two coordinators, and an office associate. It should be noted that the director and the coordinators are full-time faculty members who have been given teaching deloading and they still therefore have teaching responsibilities and committee work in their respective academic departments. The director teaches one class

while the coordinators teach three to four classes every semester. Budget for training and development is also limited and so the strategy is for one or two people to attend external training sessions and then conduct echo seminars/workshops among colleagues. Also, IT infrastructure to support the current data management system is not adequate. Warehousing is a current concern because the IQA unit doesn't have its own server. Maintenance and updating of the information management system likewise call for the collaborative efforts of all account users.

Overall, University A showed an advanced level of implementation of the ten AQAF IQA principles.

Table 2 shows the summary of the level of implementation of the ten IQA principles by University B. This part of the narrative focuses on the principles that landed on top three and the other three that landed at the bottom, and explains the implementation details of such.

The IQA principle that yielded the highest level of implementation is "The institution has a primary responsibility for quality." The university's more than four decades of accreditation history shows its earnestness to adhere to quality standards and to get the confirmation of its external peers on the quality direction that it is taking. The institution has also implemented internal quality mechanisms like monitoring and evaluation tools and regular quality dialogues in order to support this goal. University B's quality initiatives are led by its academics head.

This has made teaching-learning excellence the focus of the quality efforts of the institution. The quality of teaching and learning was extensively explored by Elken and Stensaker (2018) and Mårtensson et al. (2014), who emphasized the significance of the day-to-day activities and practices of all actors in HEIs. They highlighted how even the details and impacts of teaching-learning processes collectively contribute to the overall quality of the institution. These authors stress the importance of the roles played by academics, focusing on how they understand and interpret quality policies and processes, the dynamic conflicts that arise, and the reflection and sense-making that occur as part of the ongoing quality improvement process.

Ranked number 2 is the IQA principle “Quality assurance promotes the balance between institutional autonomy and public accountability.” University B is an autonomous institution and it also underwent Institutional Sustainability Assessment by CHED recently. This autonomy is balanced by its internal quality processes that ensure that the quality of its educational provision is carefully monitored and evaluated. Along this line, Dill (2000) has extensive work focusing on academic accountability called academic audit meant to ensure the quality of student learning through QA processes implemented by higher institutions themselves. The main goal of academic audits, centered around capacity building, is to drive institutional reform and organizational development, which are also influenced by public accountability. Dill’s framework emphasizes building the capacities of program managers and university administrators to plan, implement, and monitor initiatives aimed at ensuring academic standards and fostering institutional academic reforms for continuous improvement.

The IQA principle “The institution should have formal mechanisms for approval, periodic review, and monitoring of programs and awards” ranks third. The academic division of University B has implemented robust measures to regularly review and monitor its academic programs. This process includes representatives from various stakeholders, including alumni and industry sectors, to drive continuous improvement efforts. These internal processes play a crucial role in regularly assessing the university’s performance and have a significant impact on the quality of its academic programs (Martin & Emeran, 2017).

The three IQA principles whose implementations were rated the lowest are now presented. At rank 10 is the IQA principle “Relevant and current information about the institution, its programs, achievements, and quality processes is accessible to the public.” This is attributed to the lack of sufficient information available on the university website pertaining to the university’s achievements in accreditation and on its quality processes. In this age when everybody goes to online platforms to get informa-

tion, the respondents understand the importance of the university website as a vehicle of information to enhance the institution’s reputation of quality. There were other information media, however, like publications, reports and announcements that have featured the University B’s successes in accreditation.

Ranked as number 9 is the IQA principle “A structured and functional IQA system with clearly defined responsibilities is established.” Interviews and university documents showed lack of coordination and interaction between the academics division and the Quality Assurance Office. There was no evidence of information dissemination for updates and consultative processes regarding IQA. The deans and chairs were also looking for an encompassing quality manual—both on academic programs as well as processes that should guide them. The importance of integration of quality assurance processes cannot be overemphasized. Integrative approaches in the overall management framework that cut across different organizational levels and actors play a significant role in the success of HEIs (Manatos et al., 2018). The current efforts of the academics and research division may well be complemented by the supporting units outside of this division and also by the IQA unit, understanding that they all create a common product, that is their educational provision, for one common client.

At rank number 8 is the IQA principle “Sufficient resources for establishing and maintaining an effective quality system within the institution should be provided.” Resources needed here refer to human, financial, and material resources. The IQA unit is relatively new and is understaffed though it is augmented by various executive committees composed mainly of program managers of the academic affairs team. Budget for QA comes from different sources and QA programs which have not been included in allocations are still given financial support despite financial challenges being encountered at the moment. Also, information management systems that can better facilitate data collection, analysis, and reports generation need to be considered in future planning.

Results of the SWOT analysis

Tables 3 and 4 present the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the IQA systems of the participating institutions.

Opportunities for University A and University B

The global network of Lasallian HEIs offers numerous opportunities for enhancing QA. This network fosters close collaboration with key stakeholders, particularly alumni and industry partners. Additionally, EQA activities, such as accreditation processes and AUN-QA assessments, provide valuable opportunities for continuous QA development. Moreover, their active involvement in QA associations, which regularly organize conferences and

Table 3. Summary of University A's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
• Well-established IQA unit • Established structures and processes in all levels of management • Open constant communication among stakeholders in different units • Use of IQA instruments in monitoring and evaluation • Top management support • Institution's autonomy	• Lack of integration of QA systems • Implementation problems due to lack of proper criteria in selecting administrators • Lack of systematic planning processes in the institutional level • Gap in data analysis and utilization • Lack of integrated information management systems • Limited resources for the IQA system	• Network of Lasallian higher education institutions in the world as a resource • Collaboration with stakeholders • Accreditation activities as driver of continuing improvement • QA associations in the region and in the world as partners • Changing landscape of the HEI environment that compels change and innovation	• Externally-driven QA initiatives and the constantly changing requirements of regulatory and accrediting agencies • Availability of human and material resources does not necessarily align with the expanding roles and responsibilities • Managerialism • Data Privacy Law • Changing landscape of the HEI environment that requires new ways of looking at QA and university performance

Table 4. Summary of University B's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
• Strong feedback mechanism • Use of IQA monitoring and evaluation instruments • Established structures and processes in all management levels • Top management support • Strong academic leadership • Institution's autonomy	• Weak institutionalization of the IQA system • Lack of adequate human and material resources in the IQA unit • Lack of integrated information management systems • QA direction is largely accreditation-driven • Lack of integration of IQA systems • Information on the university's QA programs and milestones are not accessible to the public	• Network of Lasallian higher education institutions in the world as a resource • Collaboration with stakeholders • Accreditation activities that drive continuous quality improvement • QA associations in the region and in the world as partners and resource • Changing landscape of the HEI environment that compels change and innovation	• Externally-driven QA initiatives and the constantly changing requirements of regulatory and accrediting agencies • Availability of human and material resources does not necessarily align with the expanding roles and responsibilities • Managerialism • Data Privacy Law • Changing landscape of the HEI environment that requires new ways of looking at QA and university performance

training sessions, further contributes to the enhancement of QA practices. The growing emphasis on quality assurance in HEIs, coupled with the challenges posed by an evolving academic landscape, presents further opportunities. These dynamic circumstances often lead to disruptions that compel HEI leaders to rethink their leadership approaches, embrace emerging technologies, engage in meaningful dialogue, and innovate in their programs and services.

Threats to University A and University B

The externally-driven QA initiatives and the ever-changing requirements and standards of regulatory and accrediting agencies pose a threat. Without a systematic data management that is assisted by an integrated management system where data warehousing enables generating data from different sources, this is a tiring and repetitive task that will wear out people and hamper their more important activities like teaching, learning, and research. The institutions' practices also show that with the expansion of QA initiatives over the years,

the availability of human and material resources does not necessarily align with the expanding roles and responsibilities. This is clearly a threat to continuity and sustainability and deserves careful attention. Managerialism also looms as a threat. Managerialism is a set of management processes and instruments implemented in a university that aims to ensure efficiency by means of control. This management approach makes quality assurance activities an imposition, and in the end just develops compliance and not a quality culture (Deetz, 1992 as cited by Davis, 2017). Yet another area of concern is the recent imposition of the Data Privacy Law that has strict provisions on collecting, handling, and storing personal information, especially sensitive personal information. Finally, the changing landscape of the HEI environment that requires new ways of looking at quality assurance and university performance is both an opportunity and a threat. With the autonomy of the participating institutions also comes the responsibility for efficient self-management and sustainability.

Key results that informed the IQA model development

1. QA frameworks at the international (e.g., ABET, AACSB) and regional (e.g., ASEAN) levels, along with national regulations (e.g., CHED) and accreditation standards (e.g., PAASCU) were key drivers shaping the environment of the participating institutions.
2. The study revealed that the identity and character of Lasallian institutions served as the foundation for all initiatives. The Lasallian identity and values remained central, guiding and grounding all processes and systems.
3. Shared values and goals serve as key drivers of IQA, shaping the understanding and commitment to QA programs. These values are fundamental, as they guide and influence organizational practices. Elken and Stensaker (2018) emphasize the importance of shared values, noting that their successful implementation requires strong leadership and collaboration among members of the organization.
4. Distributed leadership (Bolden et al., 2009) is important in QA systems implementation. It was clearly shown in the study that the support of top management was crucial in IQA systems implementation. This was further complemented by the significant efforts of the middle managers, and the cooperation and involvement of all personnel of the institution.
5. Quality literacy or competencies (Ehlers, 2007) are necessary in IQA implementation. Leaders who were knowledgeable in QA management and processes, had experiences in QA program implementation, and possessed the ability to find new ways of doing things were instrumental in the QA achievements of the participating institutions. Berry (1998) has further emphasized the importance of leadership factors and training requirements to support the development of quality management systems.
6. QA structures, processes, and resources were material to make IQA systems work. Units and persons in charge, their roles and responsibilities, and the resources available for them should be clearly defined.
7. Organizational culture plays a crucial role in the successful implementation of QA systems. While structural and managerial components are essential, they alone are not sufficient (Ehlers, 2009, 2010; Elken & Stensaker, 2018; Mårtensson et al., 2014). The daily quality activities of various actors across different organizational levels are integral to shaping the quality culture within institutions.
8. Feedback is indispensable as shown in the study's results. Gathering feedback, analyzing them, and utilizing them to inform quality improvement practices figured significantly in the whole IQA system design.
9. Continuous quality improvement is key. "The idea of quality improvement is the cornerstone of what the university is about when it talks of advancing knowledge" (Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2004, p. 276). The study showed that the needs of stakeholders change, organizations and structures evolve, and the education landscape continuously changes.

Development process of the IQA model

The proposed IQA model was formulated after analyzing the results of the survey including the qualitative comments, interviews, and document analysis. The transcribed texts of the interviews and the qualitative content of the survey were carefully studied and were assigned themes to draw up good IQA practices of the participating institutions. Initial analysis yielded the components of the model and their relationships and connections. Consequently, the emerging themes and components were revised and enriched after further discussions through email exchanges and face-to-face discussions with some administrator respondents. Further revisions took place as a result of the presentation of the model to the representatives of the participating institutions and an extensive critique by QA practitioners. To determine if the model components devised were supported by sound QA concepts and principles, the researcher had to delve into more QA literature and studies that eventually resulted in the finetuning of the model. Considered as important inputs as well were the conceptual studies and old documents pertaining to the history of Lasallian education in the country and in the world.

As a result of the foregoing process, the proposed IQA model was hugely informed by several QA principles and proponents such as Ehlers' participative model for quality development (Ehlers, 2009) and his quality literacy concept (Ehlers, 2007). Quality literacy, according to Ehlers, includes quality knowledge, quality experience,

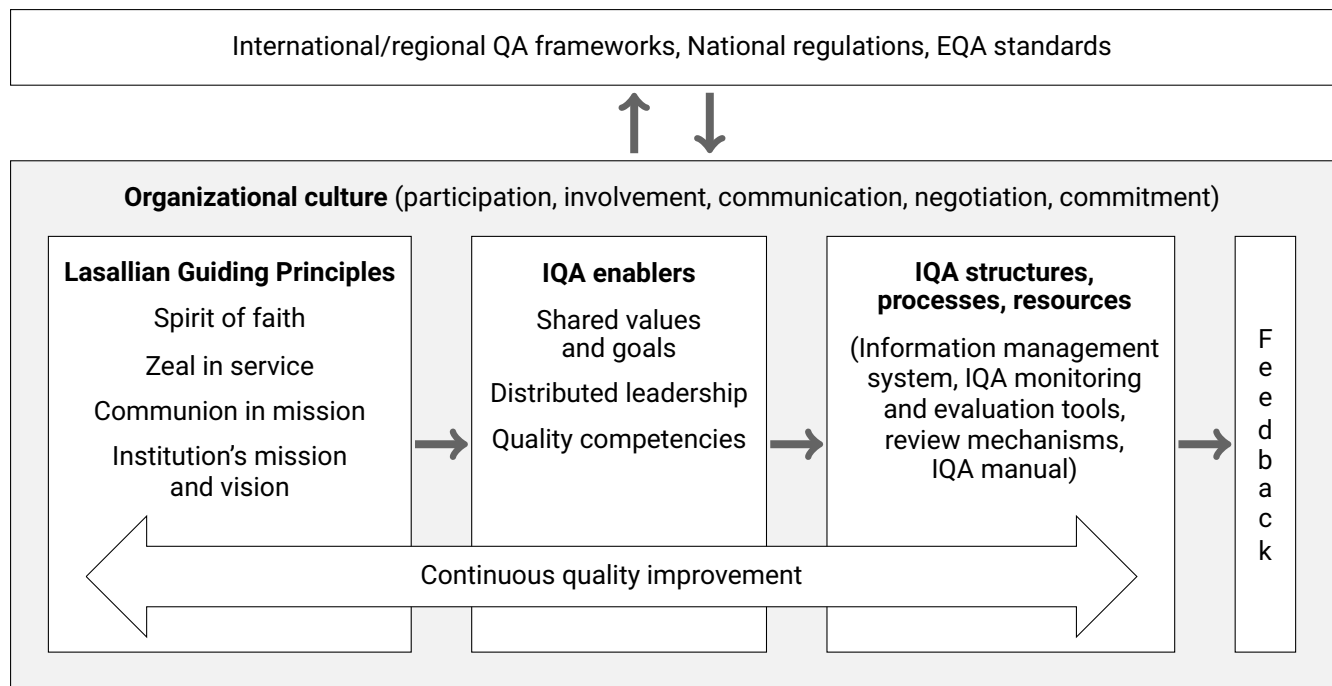


Figure 1. Proposed IQA model for HEIs

quality innovation, and quality analysis (analytic and reflexive). His participative model involves negotiation, participation, and co-production among actors. Also influential are the concepts of 'quality work' of Elken and Stensaker (2018) and 'quality practice' of Mårtensson et al. (2014) which highlight the day-to-day activities and practices of all actors in HEIs, even the details and impacts of teaching-learning processes, that altogether comprise significantly the overall quality of the institution. Finally, the proposed model was also influenced by the integrated quality management systems of Berry (1998), Kettunen and Kantola (2009), and Manatos et al. (2018) which extensively explained the management systems, processes, and structures, and the power of technology platforms and information management systems in order to complement the QA framework of institutions.

The IQA model and its implementation in HEIs

The proposed IQA model, shown in Figure 1, presents the link between IQA and EQA, the factors that enable an IQA system to be efficiently implemented, the processes and resources that are necessary in the implementation phase, the element of feedback, and the role of organizational culture. It also emphasizes the need for continuous quality improvement.

The proposed model shows that QA frameworks, national regulations, and EQA standards are external to the organization but they shape the quality standards by which programs and HEIs are measured especially with the harmonization of QA processes in higher education in the ASEAN region. They are essential parts of

the landscape and the Lasallian HEIs interact with and respond to them.

These external standards are adapted in consideration of the unique context of the institution. In so doing, the mission-vision of the institution is always central to this context. In addition, the Lasallian identity and character serve as the foundation of the whole IQA system development. All other components are determined based on these non-negotiable guiding principles—spirit of faith, zeal in service, and communion in mission. The *Guiding Principles of the Philippine Lasallian Family* (2009) explain that these three values "are fundamental to the Lasallian identity ... and provide a paradigm for living the Lasallian story today" (p. 5).

The IQA enablers comprised of shared values and goals, distributed leadership, and quality competencies provide the inspiration, empowerment, and direction of the whole IQA system. Shared values should be established at the beginning with the participation of the stakeholders so that they own and believe in the shared values and goals of the IQA program. These will then be the basis of their decision-making and prioritization. It should be noted that communication and negotiation processes figure prominently in this phase. In the end, members of the organization should identify themselves with these values and goals and embrace them as their own. Distributed leadership is characterized by the combined top-down management efforts and the bottom-up involvement of the people on the ground. This leadership inspires commitment, initiates dialogues and con-

sultations, and spearheads decision-making processes. Quality competencies are empowering because they encompass the skills, knowledge, and attitudes essential for effectively and efficiently managing an IQA system. These competencies include the ability of HEI planners and implementers to develop quality strategies and tools tailored to their specific educational contexts, based on established QA concepts and principles. They also involve the capacity to analyze various quality development objectives and the differing perspectives of stakeholders, make necessary adjustments to IQA systems, and even innovate beyond existing information to create their own development programs. These competencies do not emerge naturally or overnight. They require intentional development through capacity-building programs, and resources must be allocated to support the achievement of this goal.

On the other hand, IQA structures, resources, and processes serve to translate goals and aspirations into tangible mechanisms that enable the implementation of IQA programs in the everyday operations of the academic community. These mechanisms may include establishing QA units or committees within colleges, utilizing IQA monitoring and evaluation tools such as student satisfaction surveys, or conducting focus group discussions to assess courses, among others. Martin and Emeran (2017) emphasized how all these IQA initiatives of an institution impact the quality of its programs and services. These initiatives are the result of shared values and are driven by distributed leadership and competencies within the organization. Ultimately, the feedback gathered from stakeholders should be systematically analyzed and used to inform the next cycle of quality improvement activities.

However, having the structural elements, processes, and expertise to implement and manage an IQA system does not guarantee the desired outcomes or impact. The system is not straightforward, as the organization in which it operates is dynamic and alive, with various actors and implementers who have different motivations for both individual and collective commitment. These actors also communicate and negotiate in diverse ways, and the overall sensemaking process is inherently fluid. Cultural factors inevitably play a significant role. As Ehlers (2009, 2010), Harvey and Stensaker (2008), and Vettori (2012) noted, QA and culture are deeply intertwined. Lasallian HEI quality managers must understand all these elements and strike a balance to ensure that the institution remains true to the Lasallian mission of teaching and learning excellence, research excellence, and responsive community engagement. This balance ensures that the institution meets the needs of its stakeholders through educational offerings that bear the hallmark of Lasallian quality. Moreover, the entire IQA system is a continuous process, as stakeholder needs evolve, the ed-

ucation landscape changes, and standards are regularly evaluated and revised. As a learning organization, continuous quality improvement is integral to the institution's daily operations.

Conclusion

Based on the study's findings, it is clear that an HEI can adopt various approaches to implementing the general AQAF principles for IQA, depending on its mission, vision, goals, and unique context. In this regard, the proposed IQA model presented in this paper is applicable to both Lasallian HEIs and other HEIs. It can serve as a framework for formulating and designing their IQA systems. The elements of the model are not prescriptive; instead, they can be tailored with specific details agreed upon by stakeholders, ensuring alignment with the institution's unique context.

The implementation of IQA systems in the Lasallian HEIs studied revealed that their design, dynamics, and execution are deeply rooted in the institution's character, identity, and mission/vision. These elements serve as the central context for the system. Organizational culture also plays a critical role. The dynamics of communication, negotiation, and sensemaking within the organization are influenced by factors such as trust, confidence in leadership, power struggles, cooperation, and interrelationships across various levels of the institution (Coghlan & Rashford, 2006; Ehlers, 2009; Harvey & Stensaker, 2008). The study also highlighted that key factors in the successful implementation of IQA systems include top management support and leadership, adequate resource allocation, institutional autonomy, stakeholder participation and involvement, functional IQA structures and processes (such as quality dialogues and feedback mechanisms), and the use of IQA instruments like monitoring and evaluation tools.

The results also indicated a complementarity between EQA, such as accreditation, and IQA, referred to as the EQA-IQA link. Accreditation-driven quality systems are eventually supported by IQA systems that help implement QA programs and ensure the sustainability of QA efforts. External standards influence the internal adaptation of the HEI. Additionally, IQA systems are characterized by Deming's quality cycle of Plan-Do-Check-Act. Since it is a cycle, it is continuous and does not end with a single component. Continuous quality improvement, therefore, becomes a natural process that HEIs should embrace, considering the opportunities available to them and the threats that may impact sustainability and effectiveness. Along with this, the continuous empowerment of individuals through training and development programs is crucial (Dill, 2000). As roles and responsibilities expand, it is important to align human and material resources accordingly.

Recommendations

This paper, while acknowledging its merits and limitations, offers the following recommendations:

1. *Informed decision-making for participating institutions.* The findings of this study can be used to inform the participating institutions about the status of their IQA systems. Additionally, this research may serve as a guide for other HEIs in evaluating their own IQA systems against the AQAF principles.
2. *Integration of quality assurance and strategic management.* Quality assurance and strategic management in HEIs should be integrated within institutional planning processes to prevent fragmented implementation. Stakeholder involvement is crucial to ensure a cohesive and effective approach.
3. *Capacity building for institutional research.* Participating institutions may consider developing capacity for institutional research to assess QA policies and practices. This will facilitate continuous quality improvement and provide an empirical basis for enhancing quality or improving practices (Newton, 2012).
4. *Adequate resource allocation for IQA systems.* Resource allocation is essential for establishing a robust and functional IQA system and should be prioritized by HEIs. The evolving nature of the EQA-IQA tandem requires continuity and sustainability. QA units should be sufficiently staffed, capacity-building programs should be implemented, and information management systems should be established with the necessary IT infrastructure and support. Over time, these investments will reduce manual work, save personnel hours, and improve the efficiency of data retrieval and report preparation.
5. *Developing quality competencies among IQA implementers.* Building quality competencies, particularly among planners and implementers of the IQA system, is key to success or failure for HEIs. Investment in development programs and resource allocation for these programs will yield long-term benefits. Additionally, institutions may explore partnerships and networks to support this effort.
6. *Investigating the impact of EQA.* Further research should be conducted on the impact of EQA, specifically accreditation, as the IQA programs of the participating institutions are primarily driven by EQA. The effects of accreditation on teaching and learning processes are worth examining, given the considerable time and resources invested in these initiatives over the years.
7. *Studying the microcultures of teaching-learning groups.* A deeper investigation into the microcultures of teaching and learning groups within universities could provide valuable insights into how QA efforts

directly impact teaching and learning processes. Understanding how academics perceive and engage with QA initiatives will help refine these efforts.

8. *Exploring the role of leadership in quality development.* An interesting offshoot of this research could be the exploration of the role of leadership in driving quality development within HEIs. Understanding how leadership influences QA implementation can provide a clearer framework for enhancing quality management in higher education.

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Extension framework: A guide for program design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation for private Catholic HEIs in Davao City

Roby V. Pagong^{1*}

Structured abstract

Background: Extension is a core function of private higher education institutions (HEIs) alongside research and instruction, serving as a vital link to local communities. However, some HEIs lack systematic mechanisms to design, implement, monitor, and evaluate these programs, which often results in fragmented or unsustainable initiatives.

Purpose: The study aimed to identify the mechanisms and goals of HEIs regarding extension programs and to develop a comprehensive framework to guide the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of these activities for private HEIs.

Setting: The research focused on private Catholic HEIs in Davao City, Philippines, specifically those that are members of the Davao Association of Catholic Schools.

Participants: The study involved 13 key individuals: seven interviewees (six extension heads and one research and planning officer) and six focus group discussion (FGD) participants, including representatives from extension units, former students, and an experienced teacher.

Research design: The study employed a qualitative research approach through content analysis to develop an extension framework from systematically gathered data.

Data collection and analysis: Primary data were collected through semi-structured interviews and FGDs, while secondary data were gathered from Commission on Higher Education (CHED) memorandums and institutional documents. The researcher utilized document analysis, thematic content analysis, and framework analysis (coding both priori and emergent issues) to synthesize the information.

Findings: The participating HEIs select partner communities based on community needs, HEI acceptability, and the institution's capability to address those needs. Meanwhile, program design is influenced by external stakeholders, such as CHED and accrediting bodies, and internal factors, including the institution's vision, mission, and goals, Catholic identity, and academic course offerings. The proposed framework consists of three phases: (1) planning (needs assessment and design), (2) implementation (delivery and monitoring), and (3) turnover (evaluation and sustainability). Sustainability was identified as a major challenge, often due to a "one-shot" approach to activities or administrative bureaucracy.

Recommendations: The study recommends the adoption of a three-phase framework that integrates research components—assessment, monitoring, and evaluation—at every stage to ensure program sustainability. The ultimate measure of an extension program's success is the felt impact on the community and the ability of the partner community to take full ownership and sustain the initiative independently.

Keywords

Extension services, community engagement, outreach program, community extension, capacity building

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Introduction

Extension is one of the three critical functions of private HEIs, along with research and instruction. Fletcher (2006) said it is a prime university link to local communities. The Commission on Higher Education (CHED, 2010)

defined it as communicating and transferring knowledge and technology to specific sectors and target clientele. Dilao and Maghamil (2011) mentioned that part of the mandate of an educational system is to reach out to educationally deprived communities to provide meaningful

reality to their membership in a national society.

Although several higher education institutions (HEIs) have systems for implementing extension activities, some HEIs encounter challenges. Among these is the lack of support from the school administration. Madriaga (2015) found out that some HEIs do not have an extension office and identified the following reasons for such: most HEIs started as primary education institutions, most HEIs focused on instruction, administrators gave little attention to extension in the past, and institutionalization of extension came after CHED required a functional extension program. It was also the least prioritized (Mojares, 2015). Mojares (2015) added that the lack of support from the administration influenced the direction and the lack of extension programs and identified weak support for extension programs and organizational culture, structure, and policies. A poor organization which leads to poor coordination also causes the failure of extension activity (Rubio et al., 2016), which can be attributed to the lack of personnel (Mojares, 2015). A pool of skilled personnel serving various specialized extension programs is necessary (Madriaga, 2015).

Another pressing concern in extension activities is insufficient financial resources (Swanson et al., 1997). Budget and funds are some of the issues in implementing extension activities (Madriaga, 2015; Rubio et al., 2016). These are needed in addressing the needs of partner communities. Some of the most common beneficiaries of outreach activities are children and urban and rural poor community members (Mojares, 2015). Implementing an extension program has challenges like finding a suitable schedule (Mojares, 2015) and ensuring attendance of participants in the activities (Rubio et al., 2016).

In the Philippines, HEIs recognize the contributions of extension not only to its partner communities but to the institution as well. This is evident in the recommendations made by different accrediting bodies when visiting private HEIs. Accreditors investigate their extension programs and outreach activities. Common problems encountered as shared by the schools interviewed in this paper are the mechanism of implementing extension and ensuring its sustainability as insufficient personnel, budget, and community commitment constrain them.

Statement of the problem

This paper aims to discuss the problems encountered and present a framework that can aid in designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating different extension activities of private HEIs. Mainly, the study aims to answer these research questions.

1. What mechanisms do HEIs that are members of the Davao Association of Catholic Schools (DACS) have in place for selecting partner communities and for the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation

of their extension programs?

2. What goals do the DACS-member HEIs have in designing and implementing extension programs?
3. What framework can be developed to guide DACS-member HEIs in the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of their extension programs?

Methods

The study used a qualitative research approach as it aims to provide insights into the problem or help develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative research (Wyse, 2011). Specifically, this study employed grounded theory design through content analysis of information and documents acquired by the researcher. The grounded theory design is an inductive method (Neuman, 2007) that focuses on developing a theory grounded on the data in the field (Gabales, 2015; Neuman, 2007). The approach attempts to develop a theory from systematically gathered and analyzed data (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The researcher gathered relevant information from different participating HEIs with established extension units to design an extension framework. The study mainly considered private HEIs in Davao City that are DACS members; eight of these participated in the study. The data collected allowed the researcher to discover similar approaches used by the different HEIs to develop the extension framework.

Primary data was collected from different key informants and participants of a focus group discussion (FGD). Secondary data was from CHED memorandum orders (CMO) and documents provided by participating institutions.

The researcher used purposive, non-random sampling to ensure that participating individuals in the study are knowledgeable about extension and are involved in the extension initiatives of their respective HEIs to share meaningful insights. Data was collected through interviews and FGD. Interviewers framed questions spontaneously, probed for information, and took notes, which were elaborated on later (USAID Center for Development Information and Evaluation, 1996). An FGD is an excellent way to gather people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest. The group of participants was guided by a moderator or group facilitator, who introduced the topics for discussion and helped the group participate in a lively and natural discussion amongst themselves (ODI Global, 2009).

There were seven interviewees: six extension heads and one research and planning officer. The interviewees were selected for their first-hand knowledge of extension. There were six FGD participants, composed of one extension head, a few representatives from different extension units, former students, and a teacher experienced in community extension. Groenewald (2004)

indicated that two to ten participants are sufficient to achieve saturation of the study participants.

Ethical considerations were made in gathering the information needed for this study. The researcher sought the permission of the different HEIs before doing the interview and conducting the FGD. The interviewer and the facilitators also gave an overview of the study before the interview and the FGD. It was explained that the interviews and the discussion can be stopped at any time. The interviewees and the participants signed informed consent forms. The researcher used codes in results and discussion to maintain the anonymity of the interviewees and participants. The interviewees were presented as Interviewee 1 to Interviewee 7, while the FGD participants were identified as Participant 1 to Participant 6.

Among the documents given to the researcher were memorandums of agreement (MOA), memorandums of understanding, survey questionnaires, evaluation sheets, office structures, linkages, visions of the community extension services, general objectives, balances scorecard summative evaluations, institutional program evaluation instruments, customer satisfaction forms, project evaluation reports, strategic plans, school community extension programs, and implementation plans. Only the researcher had direct access to all recordings and files given. The recordings were deleted a year after the university accepted her dissertation. The files were also kept by the researcher and were shredded at around the same time the recordings were deleted.

The researcher used documents, thematic content, and framework analysis to make sense of the information collected. The documents' motivation, intent, and purpose were analyzed within a particular historical context (Australian National University, 2016). The researcher reviewed the documents after analyzing the results of the interviews and the FGD. Similarities were noted and used to support the sharing between the key informants and the FGD participants.

Thematic content analysis is a technique for gathering and analyzing text content. The content refers to words, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes, or any message that can be communicated. The text is anything written, visual, or spoken that serves as a medium for communication (Neuman, 2007). The interviews, discussions, and documents were analyzed. The researcher identified common patterns of ideas and practices and carefully noted them. The researcher also did framework analysis by transcribing and reading the generated information, and identifying a thematic framework by coding both priori and emergent issues (Nigatu, 2009). To develop the extension framework, the researcher referred to the different concepts and themes that emerged. The framework was designed by establishing the relationships between these concepts.

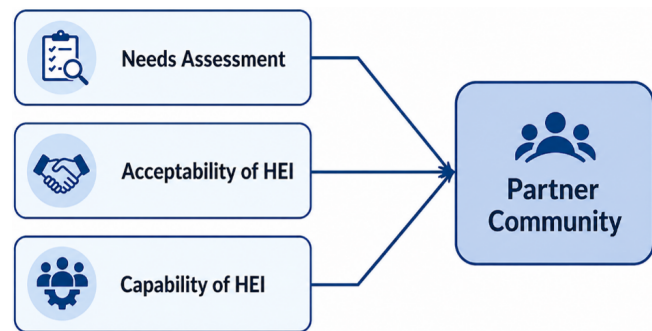


Figure 1. Choosing a partner community

Results and discussion

Existing mechanisms for designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating extension programs

There were observed similarities in how the participating private HEIs choose their partner communities and design, implement, monitor, and evaluate their extension programs.

Choosing a partner community

Partner communities are essential stakeholders of community extension. No programs and activities will be implemented without them. In selecting a partner community, the HEI considers the community's needs, the HEI's acceptability to the community, and the capability of the HEI to address the community's needs. Figure 1 shows this.

It was noted that the extension unit conducts a needs assessment. This allows the key informants to see if they have suitable programs or if they have the capacity to develop a program that will address the community's needs, supporting the claims of Dilao and Maghamil (2011) that a needs assessment is necessary to identify appropriate programs for the partner clientele. Mojares (2015) also argued that the goal of extension is to help people recognize their own problems and work out their solutions through education.

The next consideration is the HEI acceptability. Although the extension unit has identified the community's needs, they cannot just enter the community and present their programs. The community needs to welcome them and their programs. The key informants reiterate that they encourage the community to participate, ensuring sustainability. This is vital since participatory approaches involve a mechanism for consultation (Buenviaje, 2006) and that consultation only takes place when there is acceptance on the part of the community.

Finally, there is the HEI capability. This includes the resources and expertise or knowledge that the institutions possess. According to the key informants, they cannot address all the community's needs. They sometimes refuse a community because the skills and knowledge

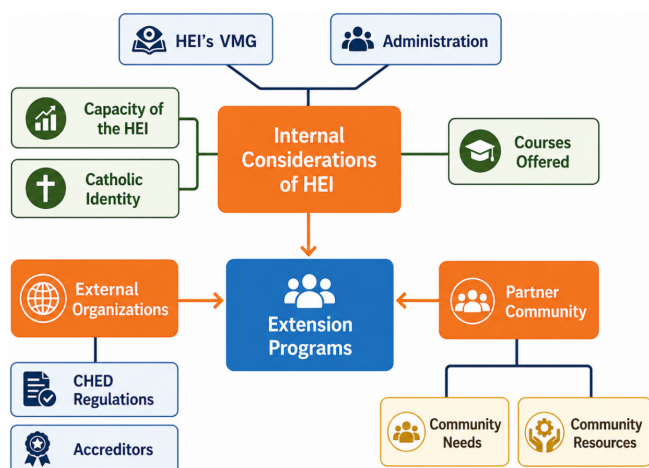


Figure 2. Factors considered in designing extension programs

of the HEI do not match the identified community needs and/or resources are insufficient.

Designing and implementing extension programs

Three considerations were identified in designing and implementing extension programs: the external stakeholders, the institution, and the partner community (Pagong, 2023). External stakeholders include CHED and accrediting bodies. Internally, the institution aligns extension initiatives with its Catholic identity, its capacity to deliver services, its vision, mission, and goals (VMG), its administrative priorities, and its program offerings. Partner communities are also central; extension programs are designed based on their identified needs, available resources, and level of commitment. Figure 2 shows this.

External stakeholders. CHED is a consideration because it regulates the HEIs. CHED (2010, CMO no. 8) provides five components of extension programs: (1) training programs, (2) technical assistance and advisory services, (3) communication/information services, (4) community outreach activities, and (5) technology transfer and utilization. CHED (2012, CMO no. 46) provides expectations for the schools' outreach activities depending on their typology. Table 1 summarizes the typology and the expected terms of engagement.

Only one school in this study, School 3, is categorized as a university; the other seven HEIs classified themselves as professional institutions. As professional institutions, the HEIs must be involved in social development experiences that allow them to develop the service orientation of their profession. This is evident in how the HEIs help their partner communities. School 3, on the other hand, applied new knowledge to address specific social development problems. They developed technology that would respond to the immediate needs

Table 1. Typology and expected terms of community engagement

Typology	Terms of community engagement
Professional institution	Outreach programs involving all students in social-development oriented experiences that allow them to develop the service orientation in their profession.
Colleges	Outreach programs involving students in social-development oriented experiences that allow them to contextualize their knowledge within actual social and human experiences.
Universities	Outreach activities that allow the students, faculty, and research staff to apply the new knowledge they generate to address specific social development problems, broadly defined.

of families hit by calamities for three days. During the FGD, the representative from School 3 also confirmed that they conduct research before designing a program to ensure that they address the community needs.

The schools also consider the accreditors. The interviews with the key informants reveal that they value the inputs and recommendations of the accreditors. Educational institutions undergo accreditation for quality assurance. The informants shared that accreditors often require proper documentation of the extension and outreach activities.

Institutional considerations. The HEIs also have internal considerations: their Catholic identity, their capacity, their VMG, their administration, and their academic programs or courses offered.

Catholic identity emerged as an important consideration. Since the participating HEIs are Catholic schools, they also emphasize value formation and ensuring that their mission as Catholic institutions is carried out. This includes the active involvement of the school in various parish activities and the emphasis on the character building of the students through community extension. Interviewee 7 stated that Catholic institutions do not focus only on theories but also on building morals and values. This was supported by Interviewee 4, who said that education is not solely for literacy but also for value formation. It was further reiterated during the FGD. One participant shared that evangelization is part of their outreach activities—educating the community about the Catholic faith. It was also evident in the document provided by School 6, which includes the moral and spiritual aspects of the seven components of their extension unit, and adds that part of their mission is to address the communities' need for lay evangelizers.

Part of their internal consideration is their capacity. The key informants shared that after the needs assessment, the school needs to assess whether the institution can address the needs identified. Interviewee 3 shared that School 3 can only do so much. They do their best by identifying the needs and prioritizing those they can effectively address. Similarly, Interviewee 2 mentioned that they have refused to partner with a community because they did not have the capacity or expertise to address their needs. This was also found in School 2's mission statement, indicating that the school should be responsive to the needs of the community considering the capacity and the resources of their areas of the discipline. Interviewee 6 agrees with this, citing that there is a limitation regarding what the school can share. Interviewee 4 also explained that one of the reasons they conduct community assessments is to identify the best way to address the community's needs, which is most viable and practical for both parties.

Another consideration is the HEI's VMG. Interviewee 1 said the programs should be anchored on the institution's VMG, while Interviewee 3 explained that the extension plans should contribute to the strategic plan of the entire institution. This was affirmed by Participant 4, who shared that the school's programs depend on its charism. This is also evident in the document presented by School 5, showing that the goals of the extension unit are aligned with the institution's VMG.

The administration also plays a vital role in designing and implementing the programs of the extension unit of the institution. The key informants report to the vice president or the president. The extension personnel do not make the final decisions for the extension programs. The implementation of their proposed programs depend on the administration's approval. Interviewee 3 explained that the dynamics of their university are temporary. After three years, there could be a change in the administration, which is a change of priorities, adding that if the new president orders to stop all activities, they have no choice but to do so. The administration's involvement is also evident in the document provided by School 2. The extension unit of the institution has a board—composed of the school director, the college dean, the grade school and the high school principals, and the community extension officer—that decide on the activities to be pursued by the institution.

Another consideration identified in designing and implementing extension programs and activities is the courses offered by the institution. This is attributed to the fact that extension is a transfer of technology and knowledge. According to Interviewee 2, one of the reasons why they conduct a needs assessment is to identify the appropriate course offering that will handle the program. In his explanation, Interviewee 3 mentioned that helping the community is also a way of maximiz-

ing their academic function. Community extension can apply what the students have learned in class, utilizing their learnings to help the partner community. Interviewee 4 also said that it is part of her task to ensure that the different courses have contributed to addressing the community's needs. Similarly, Interviewee 6 shared that the programs and activities conducted by the different courses are related to their field of studies; for example, the education course handles literacy programs while the business administration course handles the livelihood programs. This is also evident in the documents given by Schools 2 and 5. One document shows the links of the extension unit of School 2 with the different courses offered by the school. Among the signatories of the MOA provided by School 5 is the representative from the implementing program.

Partner community. Finally, the HEI considers the partner community in designing and implementing extension programs and activities. It thinks about both the community's needs and the institution's resources. The key informants shared that it is essential to understand the needs of the partner community to ensure that the extension programs are responsive to those needs. Interviewee 3 emphasized that the needs should be assessed and not assumed by the institution. Determining the needs from the community's perspective allows the institution to develop a responsive extension program. This was confirmed by Interviewees 4 and 6, and Participant 1. An assessment is done to learn how they can help the community and to decide whether they have the capacity to address the needs. School 6 pointed out in their extension program philosophy that their programs and activities shall respond to the needs of the community they serve. This is like a line in the mission statement of School 2, stating that the project to be implemented should be responsive to the community's needs. Identifying the community's needs is essential because extension programs should be based on empirical information. Its refinements are need-based, the verification is localized, it has a community-driven and centered nature, and it empowers the partner communities to make informed decisions (Juanillo, n.d.).

Another critical consideration is the availability of community resources. Across Interviewees 1 to 5 and the FGD participants, there was strong convergence on the requirement for a community counterpart as a standard protocol in extension initiatives. This counterpart typically takes the form of locally available resources or tangible contributions from the community.

The informants consistently emphasized that extension is not a dole-out but a reciprocal partnership. Interviewees 2 and 3 noted that providing everything to the community is counterproductive; instead, efforts should focus on capacitating beneficiaries. This perspective was reinforced during the FGD, where participants high-

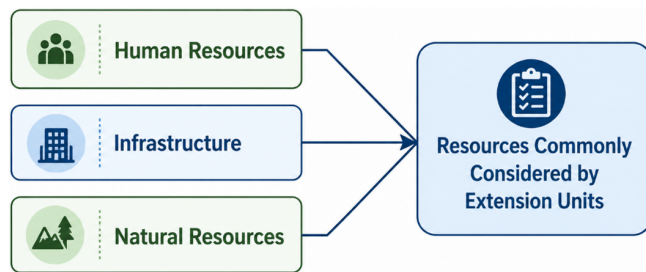


Figure 3. Common resources considered by extension units

lighted the importance of enabling communities to sustain gains beyond the project period. Participants 3 and 4 further stressed that communities must recognize their role as active partners and that interventions should leave lasting, functional benefits.

Moreover, Interviewees 3, 4, and 5 underscored that requiring a counterpart fosters responsibility, strengthens commitment, and enhances program sustainability. Collectively, the responses indicate that the community counterpart serves as a concrete expression of ownership—encouraging active participation and increasing the likelihood of long-term success.

The key informants further explained that this is also why the extension units conduct the community assessment and resource mapping. This helps them determine the potential resources that the partner communities can commit. Interviewee 7 mentioned that the community typically gives what they can to sustain the program. This means that the community sees the value of the extension program and wants to be part of it.

Interviewee 7 noted that the people in partner communities do not always realize the resources available to them. Through resource mapping, they can identify what they have. Interviewee 3 said they usually look at the community's demographics, topography, terrain, and environmental information. The common resources considered by the key informants are shown in Figure 3: human resources, infrastructure, and natural resources.

Human resources emerged as one of the most significant resources considered by the key informants. Interviewee 3 said that they would check if there were professionals in the community like lawyers or engineers. Interviewees 4 and 6 also expressed that people's willingness to make the program happen is essential. They said that the first thing they need is the support of the people in the community. Interviewee 7 reiterated the importance of human resources; he said that the people in the partner community are vital to making the extension program successful, especially when the extension unit has minimal personnel.

The key informants also identified infrastructure as a valuable community resource. Community facilities

like covered courts, halls, and roads, aid them in implementing extension programs. Interviewees 3 and 4 mentioned that they often use the gymnasiums in barangays as training venues.

The informants also find value in the natural resources found in the partner communities. Interviewee 7 shared that in the beginning, they did not have any infrastructure for a school in the community. It started as a mobile school where they gathered children to teach. Eventually, the community decided to look for a place conducive to learning, and everyone helped look for materials for building a make-shift school. They used nipa and other materials found in their surroundings, and the community helped put up the structure. Materials to implement extension activities are often limited. The natural resources, resourcefulness, and commitment of the people in the community can significantly augment these.

Designing and implementing an extension program is based on various factors. There are external and internal factors, and there is also the community. External factors must be considered to ensure that the HEI abides with the rules, policy guidelines, standards, and mandates set by the regulating agency. Considering the recommendation of the accreditors is needed to ensure that they are at par with other HEIs. It is also important that the internal factors are considered. After all, the extension unit is a part of the institution and should contribute to the attainment of the institution's overarching goals. Finally, the design and implementation of an extension program should be responsive to the community's needs. This can only be achieved if the community accepts the HEIs and is willing to commit to the program.

Monitoring and evaluation of extension programs

Monitoring and evaluation are essential aspects of extension. Regular monitoring is needed to ensure success and proactive implementation (Mojares, 2015). These activities provide the implementing unit with crucial information to know whether the programs were implemented according to plan. They also provide details of the progress of the program. The key informants agree that monitoring and evaluation are needed for extension. Figure 4 shows the suggested mechanism for monitoring and evaluation based on the inputs of the informants.

The information gathered revealed that the monitoring process of HEIs involved visiting their partner communities. Some extension units use existing monitoring tools, while others require documentation and reports. Interviewee 1 explained that they visit the community to verify the implementation of the extension program. Interviewee 4 shared that they go back to the community to see if the training was effective. Regular monitoring is conducted; School 5 does it quarterly, while School 6 does it annually. Reports are also required. They provide a paper trail for the activities and the records used as

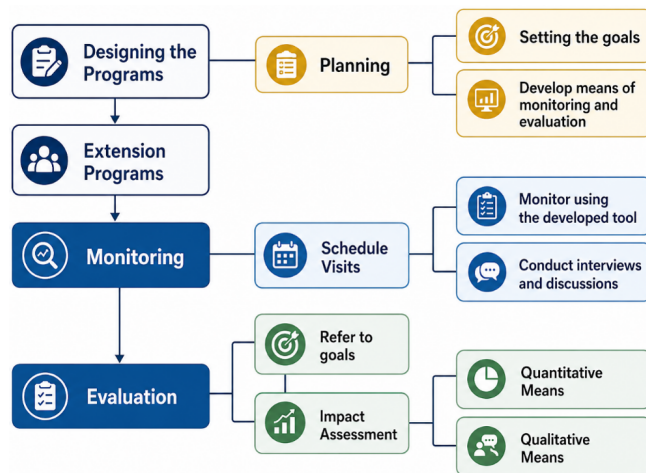


Figure 4. Means of monitoring and evaluation

evidence and verification during accreditation and CHED monitoring.

Although existing tools are used, there are still some concerns regarding monitoring the different programs. Interviewee 3 said that while presenting the plan to the various offices, he solicits suggestions for adequately monitoring and evaluating the program. As seen in Figure 4, it is recommended to include the means for monitoring and evaluation during the planning stage. This is important as this will measure the success or failure of the program.

Meanwhile, the MOA from School 2 specified that the extension unit should monitor the program in coordination with their partner community. A similar clause was also seen in the sample MOAs from Schools 5 and 6.

Finally, evaluation emerged as an essential aspect of extension. Program evaluation allows the extension unit to see whether the program is effective or not. The evaluation processes of the different HEIs were similar and are closely linked with their monitoring processes. Informants shared that the first thing the extension unit does to evaluate the program is to go back to the objectives of the program. Some institutions do this with an existing tool, while others conduct interviews and FGD on learning about the impact of their program. Although Interviewee 3 typically uses indicators to evaluate the program, he underscored the importance of speaking to people in the community to discover and understand the effect of the programs. He added that the actual proof of success is when the partner community takes ownership of the project, and that the community can stand on its own even without the help of the HEI.

School 2 provided a copy of a tool they used to evaluate their programs. Part of its focus is determining whether the activities' objectives were achieved. School 5 shared its project evaluation report. It has a qualitative component that focuses on the program's impact on the

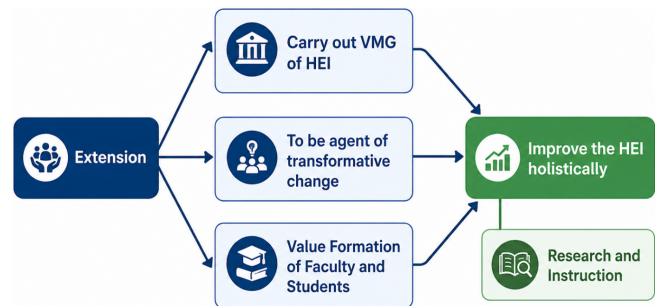


Figure 5. Extension goals of DACS-member HEIs

community and the implementing unit. There were also questions about the accomplishments of the program. School 6 presented a copy of its implementation plan with a schedule for evaluating the program.

Although quantitative measures of monitoring and evaluating the extension programs are essential, it is also important to listen to the narratives of the community's members—the qualitative approach. Interviewees 3 and 7 agree that it will give a deeper understanding of how the program affected the community. More importantly, monitoring and evaluation are needed to ensure that the program is successfully implemented, and its goals and objectives are achieved.

Goals of extension programs

Goals set the direction of the extension efforts. Among the themes that emerged for goals of extension programs were (1) to carry out the VMG of the HEI, (2) to bring transformative change to the partner community, and (3) to help improve the character of the HEI's faculty and students, which will eventually (4) improve the HEI holistically. These goals are presented in Figure 5.

One of the goals of the extension units of the HEIs is to carry out their VMG. As reiterated by Interviewees 1 and 7, the goal of the extension unit is anchored on the institution's VMG. As shared, School 7 did its best to connect all aspects of the institution to the VMG of the school. This was affirmed during the FGD. Participant 3 expressed that the programs implemented were based on the institution's vision. Participant 1 also made a similar claim stating that their programs and activities are based on the key result area of the university's strategic plan. This can be seen in the balanced scorecard provided by School 2. It reflected the school's objectives, including those linked with community extension, with specific targets. School 5 also manifested in their strategic framework that the extension unit considered the organizational goals. Living the school's vision is also evident in the document presented by School 6. Part of their extension unit's philosophy is to focus on their partner communities' spiritual and moral components. The different extension units understand that they are part



Figure 6. Holistic improvement of HEI

of an institution and that although their unit has its own sets of plans, goals, and objectives, it should contribute to the attainment of the institution's VMG.

Another emergent theme is to be an agent of transformative change. Interviewee 4 expressed that social service is the primary goal of extension, which translates to improving the lives of the people in the community. She added that the improved lives of the people are measures of the program's success. Interviewee 6 said that part of their goal was to uplift morale and empower the people in the partner community so that they could choose their own leaders and stand on their own. This was also identified as one of the reasons why schools share knowledge. Sharing knowledge can impact and improve the lives of those who were able to acquire it, addressing the community's felt needs and ensuring that the intervention brought about positive change in their lives. As expressed by the interviewees, among the measures of success of the program is the impact of the change felt by the community.

The third theme is the value formation of the faculty and staff. Interviewee 7 said that the primary goal of the extension activities is not just helping the community; it is about the lessons learned from the experience of helping the community, adding that extension is an additional form of education. This supports the findings of Rubio et al. (2016), which state that the students' experience impacts them; it can help students develop leadership skills, self-confidence, and public speaking. Inasmuch as helping the community, implementing extension programs also build the character of the individuals involved in its implementation.

Finally, it is the extension program's goal to improve

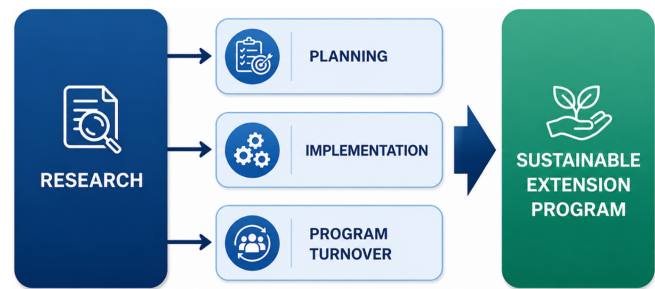


Figure 7. Phases of extension

the HEI holistically. Interviewee 3 explained that the HEI benefits from its engagement and recognized that it is not just about the HEI extending help to the partner community but also gaining something worthwhile from them. Students can apply what they have learned inside the classroom to actual scenarios. Additionally, it helps improve the research agenda of the institution.

Figure 6 shows that the extension program improves research and instruction, while improved research and instruction improve extension. This continuous cycle of the three main functions of private HEIs helped enhance the institution.

Framework for extension program design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation

Extension for the participating HEIs is associated with community service. This is evident in how the different HEIs design their extension programs where the needs and the resources of the community are considered. Moreover, the identified goals of the extension of the HEIs include bringing transformative changes to the partner communities. However, this cannot be done in isolation as the HEI considers other factors in developing an extension program.

The framework for designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating the extension program is grounded on the inputs of the interviewees, participants, and gathered documents. Three phases emerged: planning, implementation, and program turnover. Each phase included a research component identified as essential for the extension program's sustainability. Figure 7 presents these phases.

The first phase of extension is planning. As earlier identified, this is among the main functions of the extension unit. Planning considers both internal factors and external factors. Among the internal factors are the institution's VMG, academic programs, students and workforce, and capacity. The external factors include the CHED guidelines, the accreditors' recommendation, and the community. The community's needs and resources will be used to design the program that the HEI can implement, considering their capacity to carry out the program.

After choosing a partner community, it is presented



Figure 8. Planning phase of extension



Figure 9. Implementation phase of extension



Figure 10. Project turnover phase of extension

to the implementing units in the institution, who coordinate with the extension heads to develop responsive programs. The information from the needs assessment will be used to set goals. Then, a proposal is submitted for approval. During this phase, the indicators are also identified, the monitoring tool is developed, and the monitoring schedule is set. This is shown in Figure 8.

The plan should be implemented systematically to ensure success. Most of the coordinating function takes place during the implementation phase. According to the key informants, the program's implementation should be appropriately scheduled because of the many activities in the school. Many stakeholders are involved, including the partner communities, local government officials, and the HEI's implementing unit. Actual monitoring happens during this phase following the schedule established and using the success indicators identified in the planning phase. Commitment from both the partner community and the HEI is expected at this phase. Figure 9 summarizes

the implementation phase.

The program's implementation involves signing an MOA, making the agreement legally binding. Both parties are aware of their roles and responsibilities. A community counterpart is identified and utilized during this phase. Systematic program implementation is accompanied by proper monitoring to help ensure program success.

One of the goals of extension is to capacitate its partner community and help them to stand on their own. At some point, the institution must turn over the program, and the community must take full ownership of it. The decision to turn over the program is made after its evaluation. Program turnover means that the community has taken full ownership of the program. As explained by the key informants, the ability of the partner community to sustain the program is the best measure of its success. Figure 10 summarizes the program turnover phase.

One pressing issue that surfaced during the inter-

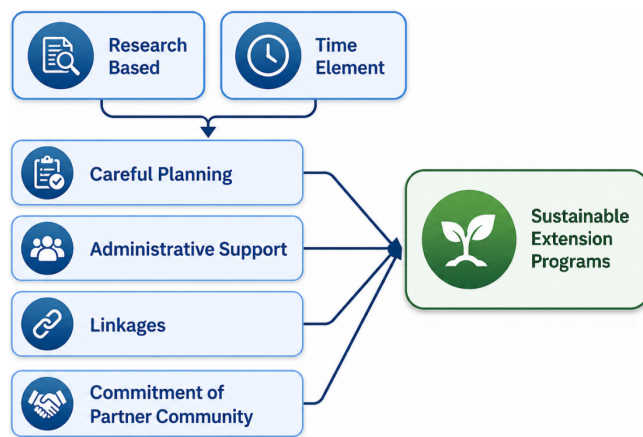


Figure 11. Recommendations for sustainable extension programs

views and the FGD is sustainability. Any extension program's goal is for the community to sustain the program even without the HEI. This has remained a challenge for the key informants. Interviewee 5 said that their program on providing water in one partner community was not sustained after the program was turned over to the partner community. Interviewee 7 experienced the same thing in one of their livelihood programs, where the capital for the project was not repaid because the program was not sustained. The issue of sustainability also surfaced during the FGD. Participant 2 claimed that most activities are "one shot" deals. They go there, conduct the activity, then leave, making the impact of the activity short-lived and temporary.

The key informants provided some ways to address the issue of sustainability. Figure 11 provides an overview of these suggestions. This includes proper planning, which entails the involvement of research and the indication of a timeline for the project. The extension heads are aware that it is essential to have research-based plans in extension. Other emerging considerations were the administration's support, its linkages with other organizations, and the commitment of the partner community.

The key informants and the FGD participants recognized the importance of research in planning and designing extension programs. During the FGD, the participants expressed the need for programs anchored on research results. School 5, through its strategic framework, revealed that its programs were research based. One line from the document states that the research findings helped the different departments of the school develop their individual strategic goals. Research plays a vital role in identifying programs that will be responsive to the community's needs. According to Interviewee 7, their research unit and extension unit work together. Figure 12 shows the role of research during the extension's planning, implementation, and culminating stages. (There is

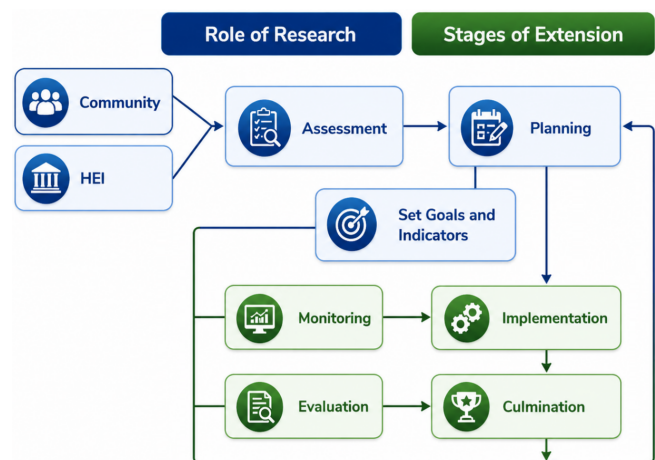


Figure 12. The role of research in extension

an arrow looping back to the planning phase because the information gathered during monitoring and evaluation will be used to improve the planning of other extension programs further.)

The planning phase is essential in any extension activity or program. In the case of extension programs, planning involves learning more about the community, what it needs and what it already has. It also determines the institution's capacity to address the needs of the partner community. Assessing the needs and resources of both the partner community and the institution's capacity was mentioned several times during the interview. This was confirmed during the FGD. One participant said that research-based plans provide direction for what the extension unit should do next. Proper planning entails all the needed information being available. As mentioned by the extension heads, community assessment allows them to identify what they can and cannot do.

Research activity is also done during the implementation phase. It is mainly linked with monitoring processes using the success indicators identified during the planning phase. As the program is implemented, progress is monitored, thus gathering essential data to check if the plan was adequately carried out. The actual milestones of the program are checked against the indicators earlier identified. Interviewee 3 shared that they have indicators to monitor the program for the next three years. Interviewee 4 shared that they have the same practice. They monitor the program to ensure its continuity. Interviewee 5 agreed that monitoring helps ensure the goals are gradually achieved.

Research activity through evaluation is done to aid the decision to turn over the project to the community or not. This helps the extension units know whether they have or have not realized their goal. The evaluation conducted by the different HEIs involves typically quantitative and qualitative approaches. They often go back to

their objectives to see whether they have accomplished their goals. According to Interviewee 3, they look at the indicators they have identified before implementing the program. They also use a tool for evaluation. Schools 2 and 5 provided a copy of the tool they use during evaluation. Although the HEIs agree that the quantitative approach allows them to measure if they have reached their target, they also agree that it is still better to have a more qualitative approach in measuring whether the programs made a difference. An in-depth understanding of their impact is achieved better through qualitative techniques. The information collected and lessons learned during this phase help develop plans for future programs. Interviewee 3 mentioned that the community engagement is successful once the partner community can stand independently. The other key informants share this sentiment.

When asked how long they should stay with the partner community, the informants mentioned there is no definite time frame since programs and goals vary. The key informants expressed that setting the timeline for the program is regular practice. However, they are also aware of the uncertainties in partnering with communities. Setting the timeframe may be essential, but the extension heads also welcome flexibility.

Administrative support also emerged as an essential factor that will help ensure sustainability. Interviewee 7 shared that they get support from the nuns that managed their school because their programs are also part of the apostolate and mission of the nuns. Administration support was also raised during the FGD. Participant 1 shared that bureaucracy is one of the significant concerns in implementing the plans, adding that all planning efforts are often not realized because of bureaucracy. The administration influences the direction of the extension unit, especially if the institution is highly centralized. Mojares (2015) identified two problems experienced by one university: (1) the weak support for extension programs and (2) organizational culture, structure, and policies. The lack of support by the administration is a concern encountered by many HEIs, and many HEIs do not even have an extension office (Madriaga, 2015).

Another recommendation to ensure sustainability is linking with external organizations. Interviewee 3 shared that their school encourages partnership with other organizations, whether local, international, or government entities. Interviewee 4's school also had the same practice, stating that they partnered with non-government organizations for some of their programs. This is the same with the experience of Interviewees 5 and 6. They shared that they have worked with NGOs and are open to partnering with them for future projects. This is confirmed in the documents provided by the different HEIs. In its strategic framework, School 5 shared that one of its goals is to build partnerships and linkages. Also, School

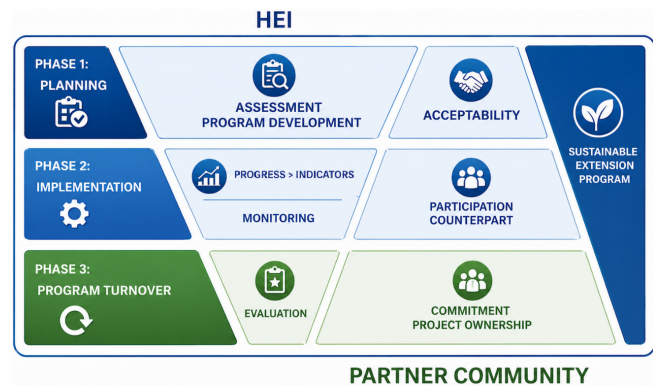


Figure 13. Involvement of HEI and partner community in every phase of extension

2's MOA reveals its collaboration with a parish in Davao.

Another critical component that ensures sustainability is the commitment of the partner community. Without commitment and participation, the program will not succeed. The extension heads expressed that a community counterpart and continued participation of the beneficiaries from partner communities are ways to show commitment. The key informants explained that having a counterpart makes the community feel more invested in the program. It was also pointed out during the FGD that the communities should own the program to sustain it. This is consistent with the claim of Baker et al. (1999) explaining that one of the principles of community partnership is acknowledging the community input and active community involvement. The leading players in program implementation are the HEI and the partner community. However, it is apparent in the sharing made by the extension heads that the involvement of these parties varies depending on the extension phase. Figure 13 shows an overview of the participation of these players. Greater involvement is expected from the HEI during the planning phase. Here, the HEI conducts a community assessment and proposes a program to address the community's needs. The involvement of the HEI reduces as the implementation progresses. This prepares the partner community for the program turnover.

Figure 14 presents how assessment, monitoring, and evaluation are at the core of planning, implementation, and program turnover to achieve sustainable extension programs. This shows how the lessons learned in previous programs can be used to improve future extension programs. This integration is further explained in Figure 15, which shows the extension framework proposed by the researcher.

Figure 15 shows the phases of the proposed framework. There are three phases: planning, implementation, and program turnover. The input used in planning is from the community assessment. Here, the needs and resources of the partner community and the capacity of



Figure 14. Extension program cycle

the HEI are identified. Other considerations like CHED regulations and the internal considerations of the HEIs are also made. After the assessment, designing the extension program follows. This includes the identification of the success indicators, the development of the monitoring tool, and the scheduling of visits for monitoring. The goals, objectives, targets, and the time frame for the program are also determined.

The implementation phase begins after the MOA signing. Both HEI and the partner community take active participation during this phase. This is where the actual transfer of knowledge or technology happens. Careful monitoring of the different objectives and targets using the different success indicators and the tools developed is done. Necessary interventions are also applied when needed. The goals and the targets must be accomplished to consider program turnover.

The HEI needs to evaluate the program before turning it over. The evaluation can be quantitative or qualitative, or both. Most key informants agree that both approaches help identify the impact of extension. It should include investigating the community's capability to continue the program. Program turnover is possible when the partner community takes ownership of the program.

Conclusion

Extension is one of the functions of private HEIs. The HEIs that participated in the study are mostly professional institutions tasked with delivering outreach programs involving all students in social-development-oriented experiences that allow them to develop the service orientation in their profession as per CHED (2012, CMO no. 46). The framework developed recommends

three phases: planning, program implementation, and program turnover. At each phase, a form of research is conducted: assessment is done before planning, monitoring of actual accomplishment versus goals is done during implementation, and evaluation of the program is done before turning over the program to the partner community.

In designing an extension program, the HEI considers internal and external factors. The internal factors include their VMG, capability, and course offerings. The external factors include CHED, the accrediting body, and the partner community. For HEIs, it is essential to consider their capacity because of their limited resources; they experience a shortage in personnel, and their funds are limited. Further, the HEI needs to work with a community that will accept them and their program. These partner communities must present their needs and show their commitment to the program through a counterpart. The monitoring and evaluation of the program should also be established during the planning phase. This means that indicators were established and means of verification identified. Finally, before the program is turned over to the community, it should be evaluated against its goals. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used during the evaluation. The true measure of the program's success is the felt impact of the program. This translates to the partner community owning and sustaining it even without the intervention of the HEI.

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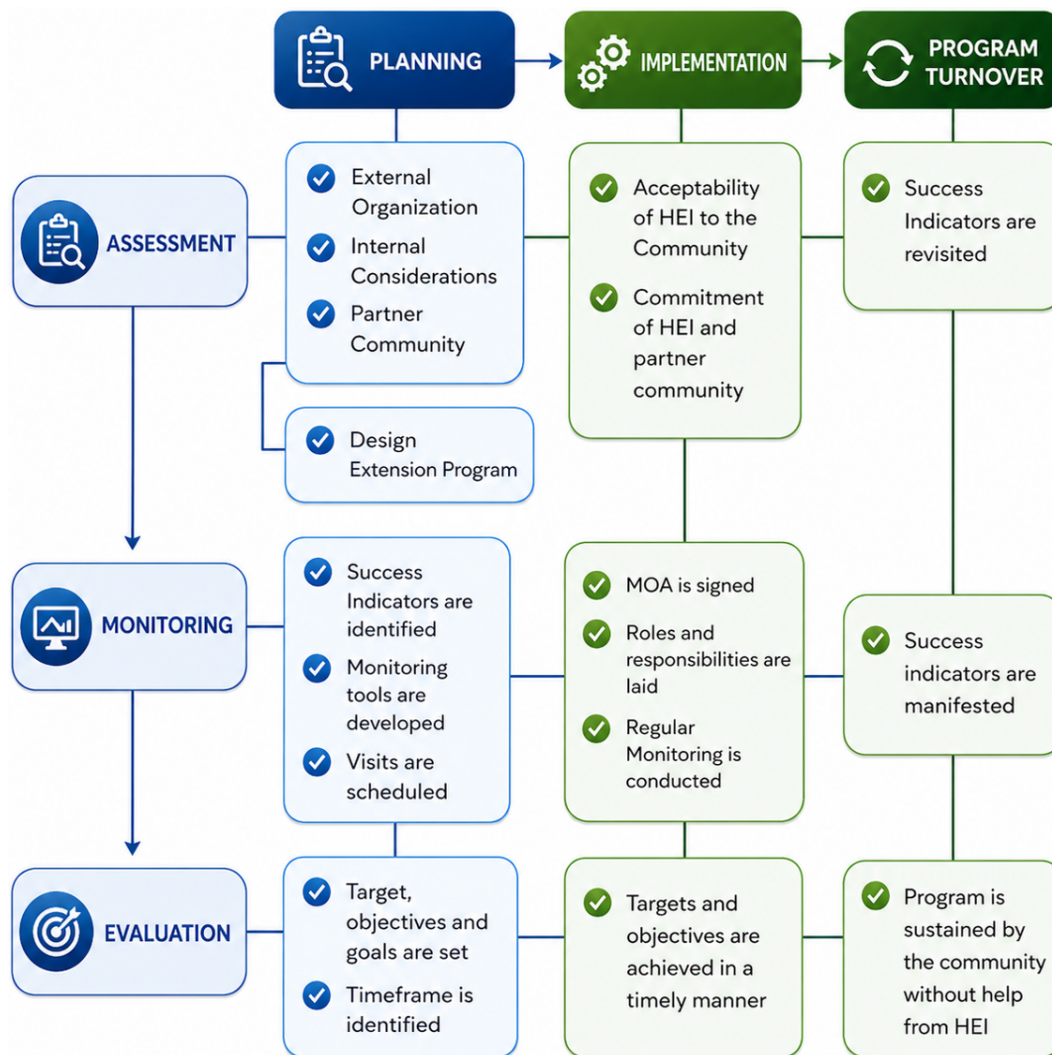


Figure 15. Proposed extension framework for DACS-member HEIs

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