EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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PREFACE
Virginia Roach

The year 2010 marks the 40th anniversary of the International Society of Educational Planning. As part of a year-long celebration, the journal will publish a series of special essays and commentaries reflecting on educational planning over the past forty years. Our first is an essay by two long-time members of the Society, Ronald Lindahl and Robert Beach. Their essay is an analysis of the change in foci in the field of planning and articles published in *Educational Planning* since the 1970s. The authors call for more attention to the school improvement, the change process, and education reform as planners reflect on their work in the future.

The rest of this edition is a testament to changing contexts and both the need and pitfalls of reform. The article by Babaoglan reflects both the planning issues faced by educators as they embrace globalization and the increasing migration and diversity of the world's population. Babaoglan's article chronicles the plight of Turkish children whose families have emigrated from Turkey to countries throughout Europe, particularly Germany. These children are often caught between two cultures, and face an educational system that is slow to meet the needs of the Turkish children. Her findings suggest the tension between assimilation, segregation, and who is expected to educate the children, the home or host country.

Cinkir's article addresses change and educational reform as Turkey grapples with decentralizing their education system nationwide. Decentralization had been a worldwide reform. Yet, Cinkir offers a note of caution with respect to policy change, as stakeholders in Turkey worry about capacity for decentralization efforts in that country. In that country, respondents suggested decentralization to the provincial level, but voiced concerns about expanding policy authority at the principal's level.

In contrast to Cinkir's note of caution, Tanner suggests a radical overhaul of the school facilities planning process as currently enacted in the United States with an eye toward giving school-level stakeholders a greater voice. Tanner's essay on school planning is consistent with the Lindahl and Beach call for attention to education reform, school improvement, and change. In his article on school facilities, Tanner suggests the current process of planning school construction supports the work of school architects and other "for-profit firms", often at the expense of school communities and children. Tanner subsequently calls for drastically changing the typical process.

Each of the articles in this edition of *Educational Planning* captures a facet of educational change and planning. I leave it to the reader to determine if change has led to reform. As noted in the Lindahl and Beach essay, the journal was first published as a newsletter, then a journal. The Society has published 18 editions of the journal, and maintained a "printed presence" for even longer. As we begin our 19th edition, the differences in planning issues faced in countries and communities throughout the world still provide the need for shared venues, such as the journal, to explore new solutions to thorny issues and the pressing needs of the day.

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOCI IN ISEP PUBLICATIONS, 1974 TO PRESENT: A RETROSPECTIVE ESSAY

Ronald Lindahl
Robert Beach

With the International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP) commemorating its 40th anniversary this year, the editor of ISEP's journal, *Educational Planning,* invited us to write a retrospective essay on the content of ISEP's publications throughout its history. Over the past four decades, ISEP's publications have presented a balanced mix of theory and practice, both in preK-12 education and in higher education. The initial ISEP publication was a rudimentary newsletter, which began in 1970 or 1971. Under the leadership of Cicely Watson, Chair of the Educational Planning department at the Ontario Institute for Educational Studies (OISE) in Toronto, however, this newsletter became a journal. In 1974, Cicely and her colleague, Saeed Quazi, arranged to fund the journal through several major funded projects they were directing and arranged for its printing through a friend of Saeed's. Cicely's husband designed the journal's cover. It was published from Volume 1(1) May through Volume 4(2). In October, 1977, when Cicely was called upon to serve on the Minister of Education's Commission on Declining Enrollment and as a fellow in India with the Indo-Canadian Institute, the journal ceased being issued. Without her leadership, the journal then returned to being merely a newsletter, last published in Burlington, Vermont, under the guidance of Robert Carlson. This newsletter was unrelated to the current and interesting electronic newsletter currently produced by Mark Yulich; the Vermont newsletter was on mimeograph paper in green ink (go Cats). In the spring of 1984, the newsletter took on a more similar appearance to the current *Educational Planning* and had the title *ISEP*. This was a direct precursor to the present journal and was run for about a year, with two volumes, the spring and winter editions for 1994. The cover design was done by Dan Kilgo, president of Craftsmen Printers in Tuscaloosa, Alabama. Following the newsletter, the board approved the resurrection for the following summer of *Educational Planning* with Volume 4(4). There may be lost issues and former members have not found a Volume 4(3). In all, the journal spans about 40 years, and its authors' works reflect the changing ideas and themes in planning. We chose to take a qualitative approach to the analysis, utilizing thematic analysis. As with all qualitative analyses, all categorization is highly subjective, with the knowledge and experience of the reviewers serving as the biased lens through which all information is filtered. Other reviewers may well discern different themes with equal validity. The interpretative comments regarding each theme also represent the subjective opinions of the authors of this essay; these interpretations also are subject to equally valid other interpretations. This is in keeping with the culture of ISEP over the past 40 years, where differences of interpretation and experiences are welcomed in a professional, yet highly convivial manner.

LIMITATIONS

The word limit imposed on this essay precludes listing the articles reviewed in a reference list. Also, the authors relied on their own collections of the journal, from which several issues were missing. Finally, although Tables 1 through 6 ascribe many authors' contributions to each theme, these lists are representative, not exhaustive. Some fine educational planning articles do not appear, simply because they did not align with one of the major themes; other contributions were omitted because their content was only tangential to educational planning.

THE MAJOR THEMES

Eleven major themes emerged from this analysis. These included, in no special order:
- futurism;
- technical aspects of planning;

- rational comprehensive planning;
- strategic planning;
- alternatives to rational comprehensive planning;
- operational planning;
- needs assessment;
- relationships between policy and planning;
- evaluation and feedback loops in planning;
- site-based planning; and
- international applications of educational planning.

Each theme is discussed briefly in the sections that follow. Note that three or four articles in four decades place our theme construct at risk for criticism. That's ok with us!

Futurism

Russell Davis (1985) noted that planners deal with the near term, whereas futurists deal with the distant future. Planners are concerned with implementation, whereas futurists are not. Planners deal with specific desired outcomes, whereas futurists deal with alternative broad trends. Futurism was the focus of a 1976 thematic issue of the journal. It did not resurface in future issues to any considerable extent. Much as Russell Davis pointed out, we interpreted this pattern as being attributable to the fact that, although long-range prognostications of broad issues can be fascinating, educational planners are generally working within short to medium term horizons and focus on more immediate, tangible issues. Several ISEP members and authors had a strong interest in futurism, with some belonging to the World Future Society and similar organizations. Some of the futures theme is attributable to the invited authors who were gracious in providing copy and lending their names in support of the resurgence of the journal. This group included Russell Davis, Guy Beneveniste, Hector Correa, and Dan Inbar.

Technical Aspects of Planning

Articles devoted to technical aspects of planning, e.g., linear programming, cost-benefit/cost-effectiveness analysis, manpower planning, or geo-mapping applications were well represented in the journal from 1984 until 1995, but faded out after this period. This topical evolution may be interpreted as a shift from highly complex, highly centralized rational comprehensive planning led by planning specialists to more decentralized processes led by less technically-oriented school and university administrators, a point followed up below.

Rational Comprehensive Planning

Rational comprehensive planning is a process which attempts to scan the internal and external environments of organizations, establish goals, identify a full range of alternatives that might help to achieve those goals, and then select the most desirable alternatives. Throughout the period of 1974 to present, this is the most prevalent model represented in ISEP's publications. However, since 2002, its presence in the journal has dropped substantially. Our interpretation of this shift involves two different, probably interwoven ideas. First is the shift away from professional planners, in all but the large districts, to lower organizational levels, generally the building principal. Doug Hamilton's Vol. 5(1), article addressed this point. The second idea reflects the fact that often schools, districts, and institutions of higher education found the planning process to be largely mechanistic, highly complex, resource-exhaustive, and impractical. Too often, it has resulted in extensive plans that were never successfully implemented. Over time, more general attention to the rational comprehensive model shifted to one specific variation of that model, strategic planning.

Strategic Planning

We debated the extent to which strategic planning warranted being considered a separate theme from rational comprehensive planning. However, because journal authors referred to this specific variant by name and generally cited the most common versions of strategic planning we address it separately.

This model only entered ISEP's journal in 1986, but it has remained a fairly consistent favorite until the present.

Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning

Since its initial publication in 1974, ISEP has given great attention to alternatives to rational comprehensive planning, e.g., incremental, mixed-scanning, collaborative, or developmental approaches. These articles have focused almost equally on the theoretical rationales for these alternative models and on their implementation in schools, districts, and universities. We interpret this focus as being a reaction to the complexity and limitations (e.g., resources, information, time, and capacity) inherent in the rational comprehensive model and the attempt by practitioners and scholars to find approaches more suited to their specific conditions and needs over time, especially such conditions as they exist in schools. Bryson (1995) provided a thorough discussion of strategic planning's concerns as they relate to nonprofit organizations.

Operational Planning

This theme includes such foci as facilities planning, budgeting, curriculum planning, and instructional planning, as well as some of the operational aspects of rational comprehensive planning. In most cases, the articles reviewed represented applications of broader educational planning models to specific aspects of education. Such articles remained a consistent theme of the ISEP journal from 1995 to the present. We interpreted this as representing the wide range of planning applications that various members of the educational community are called upon to make, again with little familiarity with the educational planning knowledge base. Teacher, administrator, and higher education administrator preparation programs typically do not equip their graduates with the knowledge and skills needed to address the planning tasks they are called upon to lead, resulting in much trial-and-error and re-invention of existing, but unknown and untested, approaches.

Needs Assessment

Needs assessment was a consistent theme in the journal from 1974 through 2000. In large measure, this was attributable to two primary contributors, Belle Ruth Witkin and Laura Weintraub, who carried on a heated debate on the topic. We interpreted the disappearance of this theme as part of the shift to an emphasis on the strategic planning model, where the analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, and the establishment of concrete goals represent a basic needs assessment process.

The Relationships between Policy and Planning

Another theme we discerned in the journal, from its inception to the present, was the relationships between policy and planning. Attention was given to national, state, and district policy, as well as to legal issues. We were somewhat surprised that this continued to be such a strong focus, rather than disappearing into the general environmental analysis components of the strategic planning model, as happened with themes such as rational comprehensive planning and needs assessment. We attributed this continued emphasis as a testimony to the unique policy contexts among districts, universities, states, and nations, and to the strength of their impacts on educational planning at all levels.

Evaluation and Feedback Loops in Planning

Specific attention to the evaluation and feedback loop in planning entered the journal in 1977 and remained strong until 1986. It re-surfaced briefly in 1997. Again, we interpret this loss of emphasis in the more recent literature as part of the shift in emphasis to the strategic planning model, which generally includes cybernetic evaluation and feedback loops. Recent articles tend to mention these loops briefly as part of the overall planning process, rather than focusing on them specifically. This may reflect the passing attention given by authors to the more mathematical and technologically rigorous planning tools and concepts.

Site-based Planning

In 1988 and 1989, two articles on the Oklahoma City Schools' pioneering attempts at site-based planning were featured in the journal. Later (2000), Adam Nir discussed site-based planning in the national, centralized context of Israel. We interpreted this interest in site-based planning as being a consequence of the previous emphasis on centralized planning, e.g., district-level planning rather than school-level. As decentralized planning became more of the norm than the exception, at least in the U.S. and Canada over the past two decades, this topic was no longer a novelty, nor an innovation.

International Applications of Planning

The final theme discerned from the journal, from its inception to present, was the international applications of planning. We interpreted this theme as linked to the very purpose of ISEP and to the emphasis of *International* in its name. Although the membership of ISEP has largely been from the U.S. and Canada, its journal has always been enriched by the contributions of scholars around the globe. ISEP's more recent, highly successful conferences in Trinidad, Turkey, and Italy, and the dramatic increase in international members, have further added to the international character of the organization. The international contributions to the journal reinforce the global applicability of much of the knowledge base and various tools used in educational planning, while, at the same time taking into consideration the crucial role that the specific situation, policy context, and culture of each organization plays in the planning process.

CONCLUSIONS

First, this has been a most enjoyable project. Not only has it provided us with an impetus to re-read many fine articles published by *Educational Planning* over the years, but it has brought to mind the pantheon of outstanding scholars and practitioners (and friends) we have known through our long association with ISEP – truly a trip down memory lane! It, also, has reinforced ISEP's many contributions to the knowledge base in educational planning.

The themes that emerged challenged us to examine trends in planning over the past four decades. We have concluded that the strengths, weaknesses, and processes of the major planning models were well recognized in the knowledge base since the early 1980s and were emerging two decades prior to this. Sadly, we concluded that many practitioners, at all levels, are not sufficiently familiar with this knowledge base to apply it effectively and efficiently in their daily situations. This has led to an over-reliance on the most highly marketed approach, strategic planning, with all of the strengths and weaknesses inherent in a rational comprehensive planning model. In the years ahead, ISEP must face the challenge of sharing its knowledge base more effectively, not only with those professionals who have an abiding interest in planning, but also with a broader spectrum of practitioners.

Although a few articles on each appeared, we were surprised that so little attention was paid to linking planning to the change process, school improvement, or educational reform. Even more glaringly absent were articles linking planning to the implementation and institutionalization processes. Considering the importance, remarkably little attention was given to the human aspects of these processes. Clearly, these are areas in which the knowledge base can, and should, continue to grow. ISEP and its publications are as relevant today as when they began four decades ago.

Table 1
ISEP Journal, 1974 to 1977

Theme	Sample Authors
Futurism	Willis Harman (1976); Hendrik Gideonse (1976); Michael Falk (1976); Rudolph Johnston & Thomas McCollough (1976); Gerald King (1976); Lester Hunt (1976); George Peek (1976)
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Guy Beneveniste (1974); Paul Watson (1974); Perry Johnston & Maureen Wilson (1974); Edward Blakely (1975); William Medlin (1975); Frank Jackson & William Heeny (1975); Dan Inbar (1975, 1976); Hector Correa (1975); Bruce Cooper (1976)
Operational Planning	Lawrence Bezear (1975); William Tomlinson & Ken Tanner (1975); David Groves & Gerald Cross (1975); Virginia Stoutamire & Ken Kyre (1975)
Needs Assessment	Paul Campbell (1974); Roger Talley (1974); Belle Ruth Witkin (1976); Martin Hershkowitz (1976); Fenwick English (1976); Albert Bender (1976); Martin Hershkowitz & Mohammad Shami (1976); Frank Banghart, Pacharee Kraprayoon, & Geoff Tully (1976)
Relationships between Policy and Planning	Alex Ducanis (1975); Edward Steward (1975); Gerald Freeborne (1975); Michael Marge (1975);Ted Humphreys (1975); W. F. J. Busch (1975); A. J. Barone (1975); S. Bassalmasi (1975); Gerald Ridge (1975); Ronald McDouball (1975); W. J. Lambie (1975); Stephen Kaagan & Janice Weinman (1976); Wilfred Brown (1976); Kenneth Dyl & Bruce Morton (1976); R. W. B. Jackson (1977)
Evaluation and Feedback Loops in Planning	Bob Carlson (1977); Jin Eun Kim (1977)
International Applications of Planning	Joseph Farrell (1974); David Wilson (1994, 1996); Segun Adesina (1974); Bernard Hoffman (1974); Ernesto Schiefelbein (1975, 1976); William Rideout & David Wilson (1975); Nelly Fiaz (1975); Jin Eun Kim (1975); William Evanco (1976); Garreth Williams (1976); Kjell Eide (1976); Jong Chol Kim (1976); Thomas Hart, James Mauch, & Gregory LeRoy (1976); Zbigniew Sufin (1976); Robert Crowson (1976); Hooper Gramlich (1977)

Table 2
ISEP Journal, 1984 to 1989

Theme	Sample Authors
Technical Aspects of Planning	Bruce Pesseau (1985); Brad Chissom (1985); Dorothy Sakamoto (1985); Glen Earthman (1986); Milan Mueller & Deborah Rackerby (1989)
Strategic Planning	Grover Baldwin (1986); Richard Featherstone, Martha Hesse, & Robert Lockhart (1986); Jeffrey Gilmore & Gregory Lozier (1987); Robert Riggs & Tom Valesky (1989)
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Russell Davis (1985); Dan Inbar (1985, 1986); Don Adams (1987); Ron Lindahl (1987); Carl Candoli (1988)
Operational Planning	Bruce Pesseau (1986); Anta Nazareth (1986); Howard Nelson (1987); Grover Baldwin (1989)
Needs Assessment	Belle Ruth Witkin & J. Nicolls Eastmond (1988); Belle Ruth Witkin (1989); Laura Weintraub (1988, 1989)
Relationships between Policy and Planning	Marcella Fowler (1984); Allan Guy (1984, 1988); Perry Johnston & Joseph Moore (1986); Perry Johnston & H. G. Niedermier (1987); Howard Nelson (1987)
Evaluation and Feedback Loops in Planning	Bob Carlson, Phyllis Paolucci-Witcomb, & Herman Meyers (1986); Gail Schneider (1986); Barbara Breier (1986)
Site-based Planning	John Crawford & Susan Purser (1988); Maridyth McBee & John Fink (1989)
International Applications of Planning	Roger Kaufman (1984); K. W. Evans (1984); Hector Correa, Don Adams, & Salomon Cohen (1986); Alwin Miller (1986); Maria Teresa Beboredo & Juan Carlos Bruera (1987); Stanley Nyirenda (1988); Roberto Algarte & Ron Lindahl (1988)

Table 3
ISEP's 1991 Book: Educational Planning: Concepts, Strategies, and Practices

Theme	Sample Authors
Rational Comprehensive Planning	Herb Sheathelm; Rima Miller & Joan Buttram; Art Stellar & John Crawford; Sandy Anderson; Nancy Kalan & Suzanne Kinzer; Keith Martin
Strategic Planning	Peter Obrien, Roger Kaufman, Gary Awkerman, & Ann Harrison
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Don Adams; Doug Hamilton; Bob Carlson; Dan Inbar
Needs Assessment	Belle Ruth Witkin
Relationships between Policy and Planning	Ken Tanner; Perry Johnston & Annette Ligett; Robert Stephens; Hal Hagen

Note: R. V. Carlson & G. Awkerman (Eds). (1991). *Educational planning: Concepts, strategies, and practices.* New York: Longman.

Table 4
ISEP Journal, 1990 to 1995

Theme	Sample Authors
Technical Aspects of Planning	John McKnight & Raymond Taylor (1990); Richard Kraft & E. Warren Tyler (1990); Hector Correa (1995); Robert Henry (1995); Milan Mueller, Bruce Silva, William MacPhail, & K. C. Bibb (1995)
Rational Comprehensive Planning	Ty Handy (1990); Maria Chavez & William Medlin (1993); Aaron Donsky (1995)
Strategic Planning	Linda Lyman (1990); Jerry Herman (1990); John Keedy (1990); Bradley Rieger (1993)
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Dan Inbar (1993); Karen Hicks (1993); Bill Cunningham & Donn Gresso (1993)
Operational Planning	Daniel Egeler (1993); Kathleen Westbrook (1993); J. L. Flanigan (1995)
International Applications of Planning	Mark Baron (1990); Rigoberto Tizcareno (1993)

Table 5
ISEP Journal, 1996 to 2000

Theme	Sample Authors
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Mike Richardson, Paula Short, & Ken Lane (1997); Don Adams, Thomas Clayton, & Michael Rakotomanana (1997); Hasan Simsek (1997); T. C. Chan (1999); Selahttin Turan (1999); Reg Urbanowski (1999); Adam Nir (2000), Walt Polka (2000)
Operational Planning	Ken Tanner (2000); Randy Dunn (2000); Elizabeth Meuser (2000); Mike Richardson, T. C. Chan, & Ken Lane (2000)
Needs Assessment	Belle Ruth Witkin (2000)
Relationships between Policy and Planning	David Wilson (1999); Jaekyung Lee (2000)
Evaluation and Feedback Loops in Planning	David Wilson (1997); Tim Molseed (1997)
Site-based Planning	Adam Nir (2000)
International Applications of Planning	T. C. Chan (1999); T. C. Chan & Ming He (2000); Rafael Espinoza (2000)

Table 6
ISEP Journal, 2002 to Present

Theme	Sample Authors
Rational Comprehensive Planning	T. C. Chan, Jessie Strickland, & Harbison Pool (2002); Ganga Persaud & Trevor Turner (2002); Ganga Persaud, Trevor Turner, & Tanya Persaud-White (2002)
Strategic Planning	Randy Dunn (2002); Dan & Sheila King (2002); Camille Rutherford (2009); Shannon Chance & Brenda Williams (2009)
Alternatives to Rational Comprehensive Planning	Melvin Peters (2002); Susan Everson (2006); Walt Polka (2007); Aimee Howley, Craig Howley, & William Larson (2007); Ron Lindahl & Bob Beach (2007)

Operational Planning	Ken Tanner & Scott Anderson (2002); Adam Nir (2002); Kianne Koehnecke (2002); T. C. Chan, Eric Tubbs, Rory Rowe, & Leslie Webb (2006); Charles Reavis & Walt Polka (2006); Ken Tanner (2006); T.C. Chan, Judy Patterson, Eric Tubbs, & Daniel Terry (2007); Aimee & Craig Howley (2008)
Relationships between Policy and Planning	Annette Ligett, Perry Johnston, et al. (2006); Adam Nir (2006); Virginia Roach (2006); Ori Eyal (2007)
International Applications of Planning	Donna Ferrara (2002); T. C. Chan (2002); Selahattin Turan (2002, 2008); Ron Lindahl & Russell Mays (2002); Mahmoud Abdeen (2006, 2008); Ekber Tomu (2007); Cemil Yucel (2008); T. C. Chan & Yiping Wan (2008); Ali Balci & Yelmaz Kussad (2009)

PLANNING TO MEET THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS
OF TURKISH EMIGRES IN EUROPE

Emine Babaoglan

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to examine the educational needs of Turkish students living as emigrants with their families in other European nations. In particular, the study uses a qualitative research model to examine the extent to which various social, political, and economic conditions in these European nations impact the quality of education that the Turkish students receive. Furthermore, based upon the interviews of Turkish émigrés living in Europe, suggested strategies are presented to help the educational leaders from the European nations and Turkey to effectively plan to meet the needs of these students. The results of the research strongly suggest that everyone involved in this situation--the government of Turkey, the governments of the involved European nations, and the families themselves--needs to collaborate and develop workable plans to make the educational experiences for the Turkish students more productive.

INTRODUCTION

After the Second World War, a number of nations in Europe were becoming very industrialized and had a great demand for workers. This demand was often met by importing workers from other less industrialized European nations, particularly along the Mediterranean (Şen, 2003; Tezcan, 1989; Turan, 1992; Uslu & Cassina, 1999). One of the nations that became involved in supplying workers was Turkey, which signed the Turkish-German Labourer Exchange Treaty with Germany in 1961, and subsequently signed similar treaties with Austria, Belgium, and Holland in 1964; with France in 1966; and, with Sweden in 1967 (Gitmez, 1983; Köktaş, 1999; Uslu & Cassina, 1999). As a result, thousands of Turkish workers and their families migrated to these industrialized nations of Europe.

This migration was expected to be a benefit to both Turkey and the nations that were accepting the workers. For Turkey, it meant a healthier economy, as unemployment would be lower, and there was the opportunity to improve relations with the other nations. Furthermore, when these workers returned to home, Turkey would benefit from having a more skilled workforce (Gönüllü, 1996; Martin, 1991; Pekin, 1990; Tezcan, 1993a; Yalçın, 2004). Another benefit to this migration was for the workers themselves, who would now have a higher standard of living and more opportunities to improve their lives, both socially and economically (Pekin, 1990). The European nations benefitted from this migration because they would have a supply of labor to meet the demands of their economic recovery (Yalçın, 2004; Gitmez, 1983).

Initially, the industrialized nations of Europe, who were accepting these workers, considered them to be "guest workers" and assumed that over time these workers would return to their homeland (Arslan, 2006; Conrad, 2002; Gitmez, 1983; Turan, 1992). Even the workers thought that they would return home at some future point (İyidirli, 1990; Yalçın, 2004). The treaties stipulated that the workers would return to their native land, when the agreements expired; thus, many of the Turkish workers did not have their families accompany them to the country in which they worked (Gitmez, 1983; Abadan-Unat, 2002).

As the treaties began to expire, however, the employers from the European nations did not want the workers to leave, as there continued to be a demand for their labor (Abadan-Unat, 2002). At the same time Turkey was experiencing political and economic issues, including high levels of unemployment (Arslan, 2006). The end result was that workers were allowed to stay in these European nations. Many "guest workers," in fact, decided to stay and not return to Turkey (İyidirli, 1990; 1990; Turan; 1992).

From 1960 until 1973, the industrialized nations of Europe imported nearly one million Turkish workers into their respective labor markets (Gitmez, 1983). In the beginning of this migration, common thought was that the foreign workers would stay for a short time and then return. Contrary to expectations, however, the foreigners stayed longer, and the number of new migrant workers actually increased. The Family Reunification Law, which came into effect in Germany during 1974, made it possible for the Turkish migrant workers to bring their families to the country in which they worked (Uslu & Cassina,

1999). As a result, many Turkish families were reunited, and the number of spouses and children migrating from Turkey increased dramatically (Arslan, 2006; Akıncı, 2007). As of 2000, there were more than 500,000 Turkish students living in Europe.

As more families arrived, the issue of how, when, and where to educate these children began to develop (Martin, 1991; Sağlam, 1991). To further complicate matters, the problems of social adaptation and interaction of the foreign children into their new culture began to develop as well, which led to both the government of the country to which these migrants were arriving and the country in which they were leaving to begin seriously to consider making improvements in a collaborative manner. Some initial plans included providing preparatory classes for the students, having classes taught in the students' native language and in the language of the country in which they lived, and extending the length of the school day (Sağlam, 1987).

Since the Turkish workers were remaining longer and needing more support for themselves and their families, a debate began to develop within the receiving nations as to whether or not the policies in dealing with the workers were appropriate (Sağlam, 1991). At first, the importing countries tried to assimilate these workers and their families into their culture. Many people began to discredit this philosophy, however, as available research suggested that individuals whose cultural values were suppressed may not be as productive in their lives. Thus, the concept of multiculturalism began to take hold, and, consequently, led to the demise of assimilation of the workers and their families (Yalçın, 2004). According to the proponents of multiculturalism, it was imperative that, in order to have a productive society, cultural differences among the population needed to be accepted and tolerated (Yalçın, 2002).

The theory of multiculturalism began to play a critical role in planning for the needs of the migrant workers and their families, especially in education. By the mid-1980s, West Germany attempted to provide these students with an education by preserving and improving the linguistic and cultural identities within the multicultural society that was developing. Classes that were considered to be bilingual and preparatory were abolished, as many considered such to be discriminatory, abstract, and not appropriate (Sağlam, 1991). As these conditions changed and evolved over time, the Ministry of Education for the Republic of Turkey became much more active in supporting these students. For example, Turkish teachers were allowed to migrate to Germany, Holland, Sweden, and France, in order to help these students receive an appropriate education (Pekin, 1990).

Numerous studies note concerns about the educational problems of the children of Turkish laborers in Europe. (Abalı, 1999; Akıncı, 2007; Arslan, 2006; Çakır, 2002; Doğan, 1990; Doğan, 2000; Kayadibi, 2007; Martin, 1991; Sağlam, 1991; 1987; Sevinç, 2003; Sezgin, 1992; Tezcan, 1990; Turan, 1992; Türkoğlu, 1982). Saglam (1990) suggested that Turkish teachers, who knew German, teach the Turkish courses to assist with improving the linguistic skills of the Turkish students. Another study from the Netherlands suggested that Turkish parents should be made familiar with the educational system, including the different types of schools and curricula, and that such information be provided to them in information meetings (Sevinç, 2003). As Çakır (2002) suggested, Turkish and foreign language instruction for these Turkish students was critical and should not be disregarded. Furthermore, in order for Turkish students to succeed under these conditions, the parents and governments should work and plan together for their success.

This study is about the educational needs of the families of Turkish workers in Europe. The purpose is to determine the needs of these emigrants, as perceived by the workers themselves. Furthermore, the study can benefit the involved governments and their educational agencies, as they plan to better meet the needs of these workers and their families. This planning is important as the Turkish families contribute greatly to the social and economic fabric of both countries.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Problems Facing Turkish Workers upon Returning to Turkey

The research about the impact of international labourer migrations increased in the early 1980s due to many such workers returning to their homeland (Kuruüzüm, 2002). One of the fundamental problems facing these returning workers and their families was that the children generally did not have a sufficient knowledge of the Turkish language, which led to a series of problems as they tried to adapt (Akbalık,

Karaduman, Oral, & Özdoğan, 2003). When the children of workers returning to their homeland could not assimilate back into the Turkish educational system, their problems became very evident because they were so unsuccessful (Kuruüzüm, 2002).

The Effects of the Migrations on Turkey and European Countries

One of the negative effects of the worker emigration was that skilled workers left Turkey in huge numbers, leaving Turkey with a lack of skilled workers, including those who emigrated from developed parts of Turkey (Gitmez, 1983, Yalçın, 2004). This was contrary to expectations that only unskilled workers would leave Turkey (Abadan-Unat, 2002; Gitmez, 1983; Gönüllü, 1996; Güven, 1994; Tufan, 2002; Yalçın, 2004). Furthermore, skilled workers leaving from Turkey, in many instances, ended up working as unskilled workers in the developed European nations, which again, left Turkey without skilled workers. One benefit of the emigrations, however, was that Turkey was allowed to have their loan payments to these countries relaxed (Gitmez, 1983; Yalçın 2004).

The European nations into which the Turkish workers emigrated also faced many unforeseen problems. These problems included the issues of unifying the emigrants into their culture, the social and educational difficulties that emerged, and the discrimination that the emigrants experienced (Yalçın 2004).

The Native Language (Turkish) and the Language of the Foreign Nation

Most Turkish children, who grew up abroad, had great difficulty learning both their native language and the language of the new country in which they were residing. According to Çakır (2002), if a child sufficiently learned his native language first, it was easier for these children to learn a second language. This was called from "local to universal." In response, Turkey sent Turkish teachers to teach the mother tongue to the Turkish children. For some reason, however, Turkish children did not sufficiently benefit from those Turkish classes (Akıncı, 2007).

On the other hand, the fact that the Turks did not know the languages of the nations to which they were migrating caused problems, as they tried to adapt to new cultures (Akbalık, et al., 2003). These problems were magnified for the children, and resulted in less than expected achievement (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007; Sevinç, 2003). Many of these students, because of their inability to learn the new language, were placed in special education classes (Abadan-Unat, 2002).

Racism or Xenophobia

Xenophobia has economic, social, cultural, and psychological roots regarding the treatment of the Turkish emigrants (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007). Xenophobia, which emerged in Germany and Europe in the 1980s, increased when the Turks, who were determined to stay utterly devoted to their religion and lifestyle, appeared in public life more and more. For example, 'the guest workers' were welcomed happily and proudly in the 1960s to cover the deficit in the workforce. As they settled in Germany, they began to be judged and criticised by German public opinion when they decided not to return to their home country after the importation of workers was stopped in 1973 (Abadan-Unat, 2002; Yalçın 2004).

Lack of Success of Turkish Children at School

For many of the reasons discussed, Turkish children living in a foreign environment could not successfully achieve in school. Because these children spent their early socialization years in a foreign culture and experienced disadvantages in the education system, Turkish students were often sent to special education classes and schools (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007; Kayadibi, 2007; Sevinç, 2003).

Laws

Turks living in these European nations had many difficulties regarding laws about dual citizenship, family reunifications, and bilateral treaties involving social security and even obtaining visas. Germany, which imported the most Turkish workers, expected foreign workers to return to their countries at

some point in the future and began making it difficult for the migrant workers to stay (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007). For example, in the early 1990s, West Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland made it very difficult for workers from Turkey to obtain citizenship (Yalçın 2004). In addition, West Germany demanded stringent prerequisites to be naturalized until 1990. These prerequisites included at least ten years of residence, a high level of cultural adaptation conforming to the guidelines determined in 1977, and fees up to DM 5.000. West Germany granted dual citizenship only in some exceptional circumstances. But this restrictive policy for foreigners contradicted with the situation of citizens from East Germany. They were granted lavish rights of immigration and immediate naturalisation, with no prerequisites demanded of them. West Germany even accepted the East German's dual citizenship (Green, 2003).

Adaptation of Turks to the Culture of the European Nation

Both German and Turkish teachers and leaders faced the adaptation of the children of Turkish workers to the German society and recognized their educational system as a problem. It is always difficult for people who have different cultural characteristics and different social relations to adapt to a new social structure and a new cultural environment. They had always had difficulties in adapting to the language, cultural values, attitudes, behaviours, and business life of the countries they had migrated to. Moreover, Turkish families had worries about how their children were growing up. These worries focused on such concerns as whether they would be able to learn their own religious values and their cultures, whether they would adopt new values, whether they would become distant from their families, whether they would be well educated, and whether they would become addicted to drugs and alcohol (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007).

Social Life of Turks in Europe

The Turkish families, upon arriving in Europe, often were forced to live in the poverty-stricken areas of their new nation. However, as the Turks began to form their own neighbourhoods, many women could not work, and along with their children, became very homesick and lonely. Although there was a sense of solidarity among those living in these conditions, it caused many of these Turks to become introverted and unable to adapt to the new culture (Kılıçarslan, 1992). The problems of Turks, such as not knowing the language of the country they lived in, not being able to profit from an education system that had complex rules and was very different from the education system of Turkey, and having difficulty in adapting to a different society forced them to withdraw into their shells. Turks chose to live in a ghetto style with groups composed of relatives and friends (Abadan-Unat, 2002). The problem grew, as many of the Turks did not learn the new language, forcing the social lives of these migrant families to be limited to their own Turkish neighbourhoods (Gönüllü, 1996).

Cultural Identification

Because of the familial and social environment of the Turks, the Turkish families did not benefit from their exposure to their new culture. The second-generation of children had even more problems, as they were confused about their social and cultural values, leading to serious problems in their self-confidence and identification (Gitmez, 1983; Gönüllü, 1996).

Second and later generations of Turks faced the dilemma of not belonging, being understood neither in their own country nor in the country where they live, being subject to xenophobia, not being accepted by the foreign society, and suffering from discrimination in their business lives (Yalçın, 2004).

Current Situation

There are about 3.6 million Turks living in the European Union (Şen, 2003). Many of the Turkish families have been in foreign countries for several decades, Germany being an example. It is not uncommon for Turkish workers to improve the economic situation where they live and work. Furthermore, since most of the second and third generation Turkish children have gone through the German education system, they are having less adaptation problems (Zarif, Goldberg & Karakaşoğlu, 1995). Almost 30,000 Turks attend German universities, with many enrolled in law, economics, and

engineering (Şen, 2003). Many Turkish workers now own their own businesses and are self employed (Tufan, 2002). Presently, there are more than 86,000 Turkish migrants who have established their own businesses throughout the European Union (Şen, 2003).

The trend toward self-employment is due to the fact that unemployment is on the rise, especially in Germany. Germany, like many other industrialized nations, is going through an economic transition where traditional labourers are not in as much demand. As a result, Turks have the highest unemployment rate of foreigners in Europe and continue to struggle to adapt economically and socially (Şen, 2003).

METHOD

Research Approach

Qualitative research techniques were used to examine the educational needs and problems of Turkish workers living in Europe, based upon the opinions of the Turkish emigrants.

Group

Convenience sampling was employed. The interviews were conducted with volunteer soldiers working in eight European countries. A total of forty-eight soldiers were interviewed: nineteen working in Germany, seven working in France, six working in Switzerland, six working in Russia, four working in Belgium, three working in the Netherlands, and three working in England.

Semi-Structured İnterview Technique

A semi-structered interview technique was used to collect the data, and the questions for the interview were prepared in line with the research purpose after a review of the literature. A semi-structured interview form was prepared by the researcher.

The draft interview form was reviewed by five soldiers before it was used with a sample group of interviewees. According to the expert input, the form was edited into its final design. In order to identify more specific educational needs, one open-ended question was developed. The question was, "What do you think are the major educational needs and educational problems of Turks living Europe?" Interviews were conducted during January, 2008.

Data Collection

The semi-structured interviews were conducted with volunteer soldiers living and working in European countries. The data were obtained from written reports following the interviews. The aim of the research and how the study would be carried out were clearly stated on the semi-structured forms. In addition, it was emphasized that the identities of the participants would remain confidential. Interview sessions lasted from 15 to 20 minutes.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Content-analysis techniques were used to analyze the collected data. The theme for describing the data were determined prior to the data analysis. The responses to the open ended question were analyzed, and categories were established for the analyses. When dividing the data into categories, the researcher identified such categories independently on four interview forms. Later, the researcher identified the themes independently, again, on the same four interview forms. The themes were compared and found to be consistent. Categories determined during the data analysis were then formed around the themes. The findings were reported under the theme first, and then the categories that formed the theme were explained. To render these categories meaningful, frequncies were taken. Sample soldier categories were included as examples for the theme. The data were described under one theme: educational needs on the basis of one open-ended question (see Table 1). Following the determination of theme and categories in the data analysis process, the findings were defined and interpreted. In addition, frequencies for ordering, themes, and categories were expressed.

RESULTS

Content analysis of the responses from the workers revealed a number of educational needs.

Categories of these educational needs can be seen in Table 2.

As can be seen in Table 2, the most frequently mentioned categories were school (f=37). Other categories were family (f=33), language (f=11), legislation (f=3), being organized (f=3), and adaptation (f=3).

Table 1.
Theme and Categories

Theme	Categories
Educational Needs	
	School
	Family
	Language
	Legislation
	Being organized
	Adaptation

Table 2.
Categories of Educational Needs

Categories of Educational Needs	f
School	37
Family	33
Language	11
Legislation	3
Being organized	3
Adaptation	3

Content analysis of the responses to the open-ended question about the educational needs of the Turks working in Europe revealed school related needs, which can be seen in Table 3.

The most frequently mentioned educational needs and educational problems were that the government of Turkey should provide more help and care for the Turks living throughout Europe (f=14). Some of the needs included providing parents with counseling and support, making the parents more conscious of educational matters (f=5), opening up Turkish schools in Europe (f=4), encouraging Turkish teachers to not teach religion but Turkish culture and language (f=3), as well as teaching Turkish cultural education (f=3), and providing scholarships and financial aide to Turkish university students. The university tuition should be reduced as well (f=3).

Statements made by Turkish workers who were interviewed included the following:
1. The Turkish ambassador and consulate officials should visit schools, listen to the problems of Turkish children, and find solutions to these problems.
2. Turkey should stand up for the Turks living abroad and provide their education.
3. The Turkish Republic should open Turkish schools in Europe.
4. The education should be free.
5. Out-of-school cultural and social activities should be encouraged in order to make Turkish students grow up healthily and be more successful.

The responses also revealed that only twenty-one workers mentioned school related needs compared to educational problems that were addressed. Eight of these workers were from Germany, four from France, four from Belgium, three from Russia, and two from England.

Table 3.
School Related Needs to Educational Problems

Items	f
The government of Turkey should provide more help and care more about Turks living throughout Europe	14
Providing parents with counseling and support, making the parents more conscious of educational matters	5
Opening up Turkish schools in Europe	4
Turkish teachers should not only teach religion but also Turkish culture and language	3
Turkish cultural education should be taught in the schools	3
Scholarships and financial aid should be given to Turkish university students and the university tuition should be reduced	3
Turkish children should attend preschool education	2
Turkish children should benefit from out-of-school activities	1
The educational system should not be so repetitious	1
Determine if the Turkish government will recognize religious schools	1
Total	37

Content analysis of the responses of workers living in European countries to the open-ended question about the educational problems of Turks working in Europe revealed family issues as well. Familial needs as related to educational problems can be seen in Table 4.

The most frequently mentioned educational need regarding educational problems was that families (parents) should care more about their children's education (f=8). Other educational needs included were that families should give more importance to their children's education (f=6), parents should become more familiar with the educational system (f=6), education level of parents should be improved (f=4), and parents should support their children more in their educational pursuits (f=3).

The statements made included:
1. Parents should know the educational system well, take care of the education of their children closely, and encourage them.
2. When the parents take care of their children's education, the child becomes successful at school; but when they do not, the child becomes unsuccessful.

Table 4.

Familial Needs to Educational Problems

Items	f
Families should care about their children's education	8
Families should give more importance to the children's education	6
Parents should become more familiar with the educational system	6
Education level of parents should be improved	4
Parents should support their children more in their education	3
Parents should give importance to their children's personality and social development	2
Introduction of Turks to others living in this country needs to be positive	2
Parents should invest more resources in their children's educational experience	1
Interpreter should be provided for parents who do not know foreign language well	1
Total	33

The responses revealed that only sixteen workers mentioned family needs as educational problems. Six of these workers were from Germany, four from Switzerland, two from France, two from Belgium, one from the Netherlands, and one from Russia.

Content analysis of the responses to the open-ended question about the educational needs of Turks working in Europe revealed that language related suggestions included that Turks needed to know the foreign language (f=6) and the native language as well (f=5). Workers' responses revealed that only ten workers mentioned language needs as a solution to educational problems. Five were from Germany, three from France, one from the Netherlands, and one from England.

The statements made by workers under this category included:
1. Mother tongue education should be the first aim, and also the importance of speaking well in his/her mother tongue and expressing himself/herself should be emphasized.
2. Parents should encourage their children to learn the language of the country that they live in.
3. The government and the private intuitions should make an attempt to teach about Turkey and its culture.

Content analysis of the responses to the open-ended question about the educational needs of these workers revealed that legislation often prevented workers and their families the opportunity to assimilate into the new culture (f=1) and to ease the condition of settling into new cultures (f=1). One of the workers was told that these problems could not be solved and was asked to leave the country (f=1). Workers' responses revealed that only two mentioned legislation as a solution to educational problems. One of these workers was from Germany, the other from France.

Content analysis of the responses also revealed that being better organized would assist in solving language, cultural, and educational problems (f=3). Two of these were from France, the other from Germany.

Content analysis also revealed that adaptation to intercultural issues was a concern, (f=2); this was thought to prevent generational conflict (f=1). However, only three workers thought that adaptation was an issue, with two working in Germany and one in France.

CONCLUSION

The researcher examined the needs and concerns regarding the educational problems of Turkish

workers who emigrated to the European countries of Germany, France, Switzerland, Russia, Belgium, the Netherlands, and England. The focus of the research was qualitative and based upon the perceptions of these workers.

The findings included that the most important educational needs were related to the educational problems of school issues, family issues, and language differences. Other concerns found in the research included lack of legislation to support these workers and the inability of the workers and their families to adapt to the culture of the country in which they lived.

Concerning the issue of the schools, the most important item mentioned was the Turkish government's lack of support for Turks living in Europe. This finding is consistent with Güllapoğlu's (1990) statement that Turkey did not support Turkish children abroad (p. 89). Likewise, Arslan (2006) also suggested that the Turkish government should fulfill its responsibilities toward its citizens living abroad. Furthermore, the results of the interviews suggested that parents should be provided with counseling in support of their children and their education, that Turkish schools in these European nations need to be opened, that Turkish teachers should teach their students about Turkish culture and language, and that Turkish students should have opportunities and financial support to attend universities throughout Europe.

Another issue of importance in this research is that many parents cannot care for their children appropriately, have trouble supporting them under these conditions, and do not stay connected with their children's schools. This result is consistent with the literature. For example, Pekin (1990) stated that Turkish workers, who live abroad, need a wide variety of information about both the country they live in and about Turkey. There appears to be limited efforts by the Turkish government and some of the European nations to address this. When it is addressed, limited success is experienced. For example, in order to provide a better service to these workers and their families, Pekin (1990) suggested that legal advisors, who know the Turkish judicial system, interpreters, and also social service experts be provided.

Opening up Turkish schools is another suggestion. It can be concluded that Turkish students need schools that have Turkish culture, language, and educational programs. In the light of these suggestion, it may be said that both Turkey and European countries could work together to open such schools in a collaborative manner.

The results indicated that the most important familial issue regarding the educational problems is that Turkish adults need to be much more knowledgeable and supportive of their children's education. Furthermore, the results of the interviews with the workers indicated other suggestions, such as families should be much more supportive and aggressive in dealing with their children's education; parents should become familiar with the educational system in the country where they reside; and, the education level of parents should be improved.

The findings also indicated that the most important language suggestions related to the educational problems were to know the foreign language and Turkish very well. As Çakır (2002) suggested in his work, the teaching of both the Turkish language and foreign language to the workers is of prime importance and should not be disregarded. This should be the responsibility of both the Turkish government and the governments of the countries in which the workers reside.

The research indicated that legislation, organization, and adaptation were not so important according to the workers. For example, in research of Turks living Germany, as Şen (2003) suggested, an important means of reducing rejection and promoting integration was achieved by increasing knowledge among Germans and Turks about each other. In another study, Turks living in Germany stated that being able to organize and be interdependent led to solving many of the problems discussed in this research. However, these organizations must be open to all Turkish citizens and be structured in a manner in which support can be effective. In incidences in which such organization and planning does not exist, Turkish families do not tend to reach a state of interdependence (Aile ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Genel Müdürlüğü Yayınları, 2007).

In the light of these conclusions and suggestions, it can be suggested that both Turkey and European countries should collaborate in supporting Turkish students. Finding realistic solutions to the education problems of Turks is possible with the cooperation of Turks living in Europe, Turkey, and the countries in which these emigrant families live. Based on the findings of this study and previous research, it also can be said that informed parents can contribute to the success of their children. In this process, it may be

suggested that the principals of schools and teachers in the countries where Turks live should encourage parents to become more involved with the school. Conferences may be held and brochures distributed by non-governmental organizations and foreign organizations from both the Turkish government and the government of the nation in which the families reside. The Turkish children need to be the focus of the planning to address the motivation of the child, the importance of the family during this entire process, and the effect of the family in the success of the student. According to the findings of this and previous studies, the multi-national planning needs to include the contributions of native and foreign language skills to the education process. First and foremost, for Turks living in Europe to reach their potential, the government of Turkey needs to take a much more active and supportive role.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PLANNING

During the immigration of the Turkish work force to the various European countries, the involved governments looked at the process as being of benefit to all of the nations involved. Little thought was given to the long-range implications, and more importantly the impact on families and their children. While the Turkish government and the European Union cannot go backward in time, there is a need for planning for the future, based on the research that has been conducted. All of the associated countries have had the benefit of the industrious Turkish worker; it is time to develop plans to meet their familial needs, especially the educational, cultural, and sociological needs of the children. This can only be accomplished with the countries working and planning together.

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Linda Lemasters, Editor

PERCEPTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL STAKEHOLDERS ABOUT DECENTRALIZING
EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING IN TURKEY

Şakir Çınkır

ABSTRACT

Decentralization has had a significant impact on education systems, in particular, on the organization of schools and management. In the last four decades, decentralization of administration in education has become a worldwide trend. In the last two decades, Turkish educational planners and policy makers have been struggling with the debate over centralization and decentralization. Turkey has highly centralized education systems compared to Europe and Central Asia as well when compared to other OECD and EU countries. In recent years, there have been numerous political and administrative reform initiatives in Turkey regarding education, including decentralization. The purpose of this study was to examine the decentralization of educational decision-making processes as perceived by educational planners, school principals, and educational stakeholders in Turkey, utilizing the Decision Making in Education Questionnaire (DMEQ) with 410 participants. Results revealed the participants felt the provinces should have a majority of the power by controlling the outcome of 17 of the 32 decisions queried. Respondents indicated that the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) should have control over 10 of the 32 decisions and school principals should have a minor stake with control over only five of the 32 decisions. It is expected that this study could contribute to the debates over the decentralization of education in Turkey. Namely, strategic approaches and consensus should be developed between the educational planners and policy makers before rethinking the decentralization decision making regarding education.

INTRODUCTION

In the last four decades, educational management and planning has become a worldwide trend (Rondinelli D. A., 1984). Since information and communication technologies (ICT) have made the world a smaller place and ''ICT put people all over the globe in touch as never before'' (Friedman, 2006), educational planners and policy makers in many countries decided to organize their education system by delegating the power and responsibility to the local education authorities and school boards.

As a result of globalization, many developed and developing countries are undergoing significant changes in the responsibilities of the education system and roles and responsibilities of educational stakeholders. As Shaeffer (2005) noted, decentralization—which is a major component of the modernization of public sector management—transforms the relationship between the central level, principally the Education Ministries, and local levels. Many provincial education authorities are now entrusted with new responsibilities for resource allocation and efficient utilization of human, material, and financial resources. At the same time, program-based approaches are increasingly applied in education planning and reform.

The supporters of decentralization strongly uphold the idea that decentralization contributes to increasing quality and effectiveness in public services. As many writers emphasized, education is one of the largest sectors in terms of personnel and recurrent expenditures and is also among the bigger public sectors in terms of capital expenditure. Recently, there have been strategies and activities aimed at the modernization of public sector management in developing countries. These strategies have had a significant impact on educational systems.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND POLICY IN TURKISH CONTEXT

Reform in public administration as well as planning and managing the education system has long been required in Turkey. The study of required managerial reform in Turkey has been an on-going and seemingly never-ending topic. Since the 1960s, the restructuring of public administration bodies has been of the utmost importance on the government's agenda, spawning several initiatives, including the *Central Government Organization Research Project* (1962), and the *Development and Restructuring of*

Public Administration Report (Sekizinci Klankınma Planı [Eighth Five-Year Development Plan 2001-2005], 2001.

In accordance with The National Education Principle Law No: 1739, the education system in Turkey consists of two main parts: formal education and non-formal education (MoNE, 1973). Turkish educational leadership has been struggling with the issue of centralization and decentralization almost since the founding of the Turkish Republic. According to MoNE's strategic planning document, there are 36 different central units and 81 provincial directorates carrying out the responsibilities for running and controlling 45,812 pre-, primary and secondary schools, which accommodate nearly 15 million students and 600,000 teachers (MoNE, 2006a).

The Constitution, education-related laws (National Education Law – law no: 1739 (MoNE, 1973) and five-year development plans are the legal basis of education in Turkey. Although decentralization is mentioned in the development plans, the desired progress has not yet been achieved. For instance, the legal and institutional arrangements needed for educational planning and management were mentioned in the Seventh Five-Year Development Plan as (DPT, 1995):

1. Restructuring the National Education System into a service-based system, transforming the central organization to supply top-level macro strategic planning, curriculum design, research development, and coordination.
2. Decreasing bureaucracy and empowering provincial organizations and local administrations.
3. Working cooperatively with the central organization to pass necessary laws so that local administrations and families can actively participate in the educational process.

Studies on the restructuring of public administration mostly focus on increasing the effectiveness and transparency of public administration. The need for improving and restructuring public administration was also acknowledged by the Coalition Government and outlined in the Eighth Five-Year Development Plan (DPT, 2001, p. 191) as follows:

The need for a holistic, radical and lasting change including human resources, administrative principles and functioning in the public administration continues. Accordingly, elimination of existing deficiencies and breakdowns in the objectives of public institutions, their duties, distribution of the duties, structure of the organization, personnel system, resources and the way they are used, present public relations system are the priority issues. Rapid developments in science and technology require reforms in central and local organization and functioning of the public administration established for meeting the needs of the society.

The supporters of decentralization (for example, the World Bank and the EU) strongly maintain that decentralization contributes to increasing quality and effectiveness in public services. In this context, it is an unquestionable fact that the quality and effectiveness of public services in Turkey is low. For this reason, the Ninth Five-Year Development Plan (DPT, 2006, p. 191) expresses:

In order to ensure effective management of the economic and social development process, it has become a requirement to provide public administration in Turkey, which has a centralized structure, with a contemporary understanding, structure and operation, where citizen oriented and high quality services can be provided in an effective and rapid manner and concepts such as flexibility, transparency, participation, accountability, responsibility and predictability are emphasized.

The tough centralized administrative approach utilized by the government is regarded as the main reason for the problems faced by Turkey's public administration (Çoker, 1995, p. 75), which in turn causes problems (Bursalıoğlu, 1999; Başaran, 2006) in educational planning and administration. Çoker stated that decreasing the centralized administrative role and reinforcing the concept of decentralization are a couple of solutions among several that should be implemented in order to reduce the problems in public administration. Similarly, Başaran (2006) suggested a contributive balance between central and local administration to increase the quality of education. Başaran sees decentralization as a necessity to make good use of the materials as well as human resources in education. According to Bursalıoğlu (1999, p. 124) "decentralization of education in Turkey is an administrative matter, not an educational one."

The biggest barrier blocking the implementation of decentralization in Turkey is the existing centralized system itself. Usluel (1995) pointed out that educational administrators commonly believe

the decentralization of education would harm the unitary state and result in political disunity. Changing the existing centralization of the education system will bring about certain problems (Çoker, 1995). The possible obstacles that local governments could face when trying to improve the quality of education can be summarized as: (a) centralized management itself, (b) habits revealed by centralization [red tape, bureaucratic obstacles], (c) distrust of local governments [nepotism], (d) expectations of the central government for as provider of everything (TÜSİAD, 1995), (e) public expectations of the central government rather than from municipalities for sanitation, transportation and public utility operations (Emiroğlu, 2000), (f) lack of confidence in local administrations (Özdemir, 1996), (g) lack of qualified personnel among local authorities (Duman, 1998), (h) lack of resources (TÜSİAD, 1995), and (i) political habits [political pressure] (Çoker, 1995).

In recent years, MoNE undertook various educational initiatives in order to improve the quality of education in Turkey. For instance, the Basic Education Project was implemented by the MoNE to support the implementation of decentralized reforms in Turkey's basic education system in 12 disadvantaged provinces in eastern Turkey. The project aimed to provide direct support to empower those directly responsible for the delivery of basic education and non-formal education at the provincial level to make quantifiable improvements in the teaching and learning process (MoNE, 2006b). Currently, the Capacity Building Support Project for the Ministry of National Education (MEBGEP) is under development. The objective of the project is to evolve an action plan that is going to facilitate improved capacity of MoNE in the areas of administration, management and organization, managing financial resources, and monitoring and evaluation in order to make the system more effective and productive during the process of restructuring. The activities within the scope of the project include: developing policies and strategies at the central and regional level regarding the structuring, management and functions of MoNE; redefining the roles, responsibilities and communication rules of the central and local units of Ministry; presenting alternative models and/or action programs by analyzing the efficient use of existing financing and resources (MoNE, 2008).

In summary, the Turkish education system is highly centralized and the conventional belief among educational management is still "central government knows best." School principals consider themselves primarily as executors of regulations and decrees issued from above. All educational activities for each school function within a framework of regulations set up by the MoNE. MoNE is responsible for appointing, assigning, disciplining and firing both principals and teachers. In addition, MoNE allocates money for construction, educational materials, equipment and operation of all schools. Therefore, the education system in Turkey is highly centralized, in which all the policy-making and administration of schools is conducted and regulated at central level.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The term decentralization is comprised of a variety of concepts which must be carefully analyzed. Hanson (1998) and Bray (1999) stress no clear examples of completely decentralized educational systems, but rather mixtures of centralization and decentralization which change over time. Many analysts define decentralization as shared decision-making at progressively lower levels of educational systems. Brown (1991), Bimber (1993), Wohlstetter (1995) and Williams et al. (1997) agree that decentralization moves decision-making authority from state educational agencies and school districts to the schools. Hatry et al. (1993) and Williams et al. (1997) hold that decentralization moves or delegates responsibility to the level at which the learning activity takes place. Similarly, OECD (1992) and Jacobson and Berne (1993) argue that it gives authority to "those who must implement and are affected by programs and decisions" (Williams, et al. 1997 as cited in Walberg. at al., 2000). Hanson (1998, p. 112) offers a useful general definition that is appropriate for the Turkish case: "Decentralization is defined as the transfer of decision-making authority, responsibility, and tasks from higher to lower organizational levels or between organizations." This implies the shift of authority over administrative, financial, organizational, personnel, curriculum, assessment and evaluative matters to the lower levels of government (Fiske, 1996). Bray and Mukundan (2003) define decentralization as "redistribution of powers within the government machinery from the redistribution of functions between government and non-government organizations."

Decentralization takes many forms. It varies by the level of government to which decisions are devolved. Rondinelli (1981) argued that decentralization can be manifested in different forms as deconcentration, delegation, and devolution. These are adapted to education by Winkler (1989): (1) **Deconcentration**, called administrative or bureaucratic decentralization, is the term used when decentralization takes the form of a transfer of functions from the center to regional or branch offices, since real decision-making is retained at the center; (2) **Delegation** is the term used when the transfer of function is to a non-governmental or private sector entity (privatization) or it could even be to a government agency, over which government exercises limited control; (3) **Devolution** occurs where the transfer of any function or responsibility involves both administrative as well as political/decision-making authority.

The locus and the domain of educational decisions by category of decisions vary. For example, a study conducted by Rideout and Ural (1993), cited in and Welsh (1999) described the location of decision-making across 10 countries at four levels as central, regional, district, and local; and decisions are listed by their categories as (a) governance, (b) school organization, (c) financing, (d) personnel training, (e) curriculum and instruction, (f) monitoring and evaluation, and (g) research. The OECD (1992) classified the fields of decision-making under four main categories: (a) organization of instruction, including school day time and length of school year, text-books, grouping pupils, student assistance, teaching methods, and evaluating pupils; (b) planning and instruction, including managing schools, curriculum, subject choice, course content, qualifying exams, and credentialing; (c) personnel management, including hiring and firing personnel, and staff salaries; and (d) resource allocation and use, including itemized costs, resource use, and maintenance and operating costs. OECD's analysis provides clear and comprehensive framework for a detailed understanding of educational decision-making.

The level to which educational decisions are decentralized ranges from regional and local government to the community and the school. The literature about educational decentralization indicates a variety of arrangements for sharing authority regarding decisions about education (McGinn & Welsh,1999). In Zimbabwe, Senegal, Malaysia, France and Namibia central and local organizations make most of the decisions about education. In Mexico, Nigeria and India, authority is shared primarily between central and regional organizations. In the UK, decisions about the curriculum are made by the central government; while in the USA, they are shared between state and district organizations. In Latin America, state governments are given control of primary and secondary education and share control of higher education between the elected officials in state government and in the municipal government. For example, in the UK and New Zealand, each school is managed by its own elected boards, which hire and fire staff; however, salaries are set at the national level. The boards choose or develop curriculum (with national objectives), set language of instruction, choose or develop instructional materials, including texts, and manage block grants of funds from the national government. The ministry uses achievement tests to assess school performance (Perris, 1998).

In no country are all the decisions made at one single level. Even in highly decentralized countries such as Ireland and New Zealand, significant proportions of decisions are made at different levels. In Spain, schools enjoy considerable autonomy; however, the central government still makes many decisions. Ireland and New Zealand have highly autonomous schools; Belgium and the USA, autonomous districts. Decisions are shared between schools and districts in Denmark, Finland, Germany, Norway and Sweden. Switzerland allocates the responsibility between districts and regional governments. Some countries, Austria, France, Portugal and Spain make decisions across three levels of government (OECD, 1995). Levels of decision and the decision-makers about resource allocation, personnel management, restructuring and planning, and organization of education were evaluated in the "Education at a Glance" report analyzing 21 member countries (OECD, 2004). A look at the report's results reveals that decisions regarding education in Turkey are made by the central government organization as opposed to the 20 other countries, where the schools make most of the decisions.

Numerous studies (Çınkır 2002; Duman, 1998; Köksal, 1997; Usluel, 1995) have attempted to explain the decentralization of the education system in Turkey and a little work has been done on extending it to locus and the levels of educational decision making (Bozan,2002; Gülşen, 2005). The importance of "locus" is a crucial one because of the structure and the nature of Turkish educational policies. It should

be noted that all educational activities including teacher and school staff salaries are paid by the Ministry of Education in Ankara. There is little local financial support with respect to public education. Studies indicate that educational administrators at the center have controversial opinions about the results of implementing decentralization when national unity, integrity, and national standards of education are concerned (Usluel, 1995). Duman (1998) has proposed a three-step process for decentralization of the education system in Turkey. According to Duman (1998), before decentralizing the system, democratic and participative local councils, regional education committees and head departments, and democratic and effective school-based management should be formed. Bucak (2000) and Gülşen (2005) conducted a similar research study about the levels of educational decisions. They found that MoNE should make decisions related to the aims and policies regarding the educational system. The basic principles and content of the national curriculum (especially the content of the core subjects) should be determined at the center. Also decisions about determining personnel policies and school maintenance should be made at the local level. Bozan (2002) performed a similar study and reported that educational administrators at MoNE, local education authorities, and educational supervisors found it essential that regional education authorities should be established so that some of the authority might be transferred to the regio

Rationale for the Decentralization of Powers

Much of the decentralization which has taken place in the past decade has been motivated by political concerns. According to McGinn and Welsh (1999, p. 27) recent developments in politics, economics, globalization and ICT have heightened the need for decentralization. McGinn & Welsh (1999) and Friedman (2006) argue that especially the economic and financial globalization has weakened central government. McGinn and Welsh (1999) explain this as "supranational organizations have reduced national sovereignty . . . and . . . a shift towards marketed-based decision-making has strengthened local groups." McGinn and Welsh (1999, p. 28) claim that "The emergence of new information and communication Technologies has made it possible to achieve high levels of control over [the] system, with decentralized management." Gershberg and Winkler (2003) claim education decentralization involves improving efficiency, effectiveness and democracy. According to the World Bank (2004) the main advantages of decentralization are education finance, increased efficiency and effectiveness, redistribution of political power, improved quality, and increased innovation.

A number of reasons have been advanced for the decentralization of power. Lewis and Loveridge (1965, p. 23; cit. Maha, 2004, p.181) argued that the first person who becomes aware of the need to make a decision should take action. Similarly, Wolfers et al. (1982, p. 5) stated that decentralization increases the efficiency and the responsiveness of the administrative system by reducing delays and thereby making of decisions relevant to local needs. Educational units that will be established can make the communication lines shorter between the central level and the regional level. Bloomer (1991) noted that local control encourages responsiveness to local needs. Decentralization is also credited with releasing human potential: people respond to increased opportunities to use their talents and energies productively (Bloomer, 1991). Also, decision-making is faster with decentralized management. According to Başaran (2006), the curriculum would be more suited to the students' and communities' needs if decentralized management practices are put into place within the scope of the educational system. On the other hand, decentralization of educational management may have disadvantages as well. Başaran (2006), argues decentralized management forms a new chain of command and brings about standards that cannot be removed in the future. A common problem for all educational systems is the lack of qualified staff at the regional and central level, which may cause problems during the implementation of the decentralized management process (Lewis, 1965).

METHOD

Sample

This study sample was a "purposeful sample" composed of 127 teachers, 142 school administrators, 107 educational administrators (from the Ministry of National Education and provinces) and 30 academic staff (working at the Department of Educational Management and Policy) and four representatives of a nongovernmental organization. All the respondents participated willingly.

Research Instrument

The locus and the domains of educational decisions by category of educational decision vary. The distinction between domains of decision-making in educational systems bears some resemblance to Bray's use of the term "functional decentralization," which refers to the dispersal of control over particular activities (Bray, 1994, p. 819). Based upon OECD's (1992) taxonomy of decentralization, the "Decision Making in Education Questionnaire" (DMEQ) was developed. The DMEQ has six main domains: (a) governing, (b) organizing school, (c) managing human resources, (d) organization of instruction, (e) assessment and evaluation, and (f) resource allocation and use. Within the six domains, altogether 32 types of decisions were examined. The participants were also asked two open-ended questions related to the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization.

Each of the questions in the questionnaire was designed to identify the level at which decisions should be made in the education system (the "level" of decision making) and the way decisions are made (the "mode" of decision making). Four "levels" of decision-making were set out in the questionnaire these include: (a) Ministry of National Education, (b) provinces, (c) towns, and (d) schools.

In consideration of the definition, rationale, and problems indicated by the previous studies related to decentralization of education systems, the researcher made the use of data collected by OECD which compiled comparable information on 31 aspects of educational decisions under four categories of 14 OECD countries during 1990–1991. In the final questionnaire form there were 32 aspects of education-related decisions under six categories. For each locus of decision-making categories, there are four specified levels where decision-making takes place: a) the Ministry, equivalent to central government, b) province level, equivalent to regions, c) town level equivalent to local municipalities, and d) the school level. The upper (central) level is Ministry of National Education and composed of general managers of personnel, inspection, international affairs, and primary and secondary education. The upper-intermediate level represents an appointed provincial educational authority. The lower-intermediate level refers to municipal authority in most countries, as in Turkey, the city or town educational authority. The school level refers to the responsibilities of school principals or head teachers, and a school's governing body.

Procedures

The main questionnaire was sent to 500 people during the 2008-2009 academic year. Each of the participants in the study was mailed the questionnaire with a cover letter describing the study and requesting their participation. The response rate was 82%.

The data gathered in the questionnaires were analyzed in Microsoft Excel® by using a specific formula parallel to the aim of the study. To analyze the data collected by the open-ended questions, content analysis was used. To maximize validity of interpretations, all responses were first examined independently by the author of this study and a colleague with the purpose of summarizing the main ideas into a series of categories. The author of the study and an academic then discussed the categories and came to an agreement on a common set. Three independent judges checked the reliability of the researchers' application of categories.

RESULTS

The findings of the study are presented below. The perceptions of the educational stakeholders' about decentralizing educational decision-making are presented in Table 1.

The first decision categories were about the "governing" of the education system. As can be seen in Table 1, respondents felt that the Ministry should have control over two of the three decisions including determining educational polices and plans, and the organization of education systems. In contrast, implementing educational policies and plans should be transferred to education authority in the provinces.

Respondents preferred that provinces have control over two of the four items related to the "organization of schools" including, establishing and closing down schools, and determining the school calendar. Schools should have control over two of the four organizational items, including determining school vision-mission-aims, and setting rules for student registration and transition.

Table 1:

Combinations of Educational Stakeholders' Perceptions on Locus and Levels of Educational Decision-Making

Locus of Decision-making	Levels of Educational Decision-making								
	Single All respondents (*N*=376)				Combinations All respondents (*N*= 376)				
	MoNE	Province	Town	School	MoNE-province	MoNE-School	Province-Town	Province-School	Town-School
A-Governing									
1. Determining educational policies and plans	229				37				
2. Organization of education systems	228				34				
3. Implementing educational policies and plans		189						46	
B-Organization of Schools									
1.Establishing and closing down schools		193							
2.Determining school calendar		240			34				
3.Determining school vision, mission aims				225	30				
4.Setting rules for student registration and transition				210					26
C- Managing Human Resources									
1. Hiring and firing principals		208			31				
2. Hiring and firing teachers		174			25				
3. Setting work terms for personnel	217				35				
4. Establishing and setting personnel salaries		176			34				
5. Providing in-service training for personnel		197			35				
6. Setting and monitoring discipline polices		169			21	21			
7. Inspection and evaluation of schools and teachers		180						50	
D-Assessment and Evaluation									
1. Setting necessary qualifications (competencies, accreditation)	272				27				
2. Student selections tests and placement	262				28				
3. Setting database system for education and training	196				53				
4. Determining success criteria	181				41				
5. Monitoring and evaluating students achievements				200				56	

E-Organization of Instruction									
1. Setting content of the curriculum	210				53				
2. Determining course names and subjects		214			48				
3. Determining and selecting text books	173				19				
4. Selecting supplementary texts and materials		154							49
5. Setting instruction time		211				27		27	27
6. Providing extra-curricular activities		193							29
7. Deciding teaching and learning methods				194					
8. Preparing and developing education programs		187			43				
F-Resource Allocation and Use									
1. Financing of schools and other buildings	183				27				
2. Financing the maintenance of school buildings (heating, water, etc.)		159			23				
3. Establishing the school's overall budget		175					28		
4. Amount of budget for educational supplies and materials		185			32				
5. Deciding on budget allocation within the school				148				39	
a) Highest results for each level and combinations	10	17	0	5	21	2	2	4	4
b) Total for each level (n = 6332) and combinations (n = 1135)	2151	3204		977	710	48	134	112	131
c) Percentage (%)	34	50.6		15.4	62.5	4.2	11.8	9.9	11.6

Note. Total numbers of opinions exceed 376 since stakeholders checked more than one response in each level.

When respondents were asked about the level at which decisions should be made in the "managing human resources" category, respondents preferred that provinces should have control over six of the seven items including hiring and firing school principals, hiring and firing teachers, establishing and setting personnel salaries, providing in-service training for personnel, setting and monitoring discipline polices, inspection, and evaluation of schools and teachers. Respondents preferred that the Ministry should have control over setting work terms for personnel.

With regard to the "assessment and evaluation" category, respondents generally felt that the Ministry should have major control over four of the five items, including setting necessary qualifications, student selection tests, and placement (such as University Entrance Exam (ÖSS) and primary school Placement Exam (SBS), setting up a database system for education and training, and determining success criteria. Respondents also preferred that schools should have control over monitoring and evaluating student achievement.

As far as the "organization of instruction" category is concerned, the respondents preferred that the Ministry should have control over two of the eight decisions including setting the content of the curriculum as well as determining and selecting text books. Respondents preferred that provinces should have control over five of the eight decisions including determining course names and subjects, selecting supplementary texts and materials, setting instruction time, providing extra-curricular activities, and preparing and developing education programs. Respondents also preferred that schools should have control over only one decision, which is deciding teaching and learning methods.

Respondents generally felt that provinces should have major control over three of the five decisions in the decision categories of "resource allocation and use" including financing the maintenance of school buildings (heating, water, etc.), establishing the school's overall budget, and amount of budget for educational supplies and materials, while the ministry should have control over only one decision, which is the financing of schools and other buildings. Respondents preferred that school should have control over deciding on budget allocation within the school.

In summary, the respondents preferred that provinces should have control over the majority of the educational decisions (17 of the 32 decisions; 50.6%); while the ministry should have control over 10 of the 32 (34.0%) decisions. Meanwhile, the respondents preferred that schools should have control over only 5 of the 32 (15.4%) decisions.

Qualitative Findings of the Study: Advantages and disadvantages of decentralization of educational decision-making

Many analysts and countries have defined the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization of educational decision-making in their own particular cases. In this study, questionnaire respondents were asked "What are some advantages and disadvantages of a decentralized education system?" Analysis of responses suggested themes identified by Bloomer (1991) and Başaran (2006) as the advantages and disadvantages of educational decision-making were similar to the researcher's categories created from the respondents' opinions. In each case, the examples quoted are just the parts of responses relating to the category in question.

Table 2:

Perceived advantages of decentralization of educational decision-making (Open-ended question)

CORE RELEVANT NARRATIVE FORMED FROM QUOTATION (Key content summarized through relevant *quotations* and linked by formulated meaning statements)	EMERGENT THEMES (Initial themes arising within Quotation)	Total Points
-Red tape can be reduced and bureaucratic obstacles can be eliminated. (Teachers, Principals)	1. Bureaucratic obstacles	8
-Local and regional oriented educational services can be produced which are appropriate for their needs. (Teachers, Principals, Educational Administrators, Academicians and Representatives of .NGOs) *-Curriculum may be adjusted accordingly with reference to the needs of the local environment* (Academicians)	2. Regional and local requirements are met	23
Problems can be better detected and solved quickly. (Teachers & Academicians)	3. Identifying and solving the problem	8
Enables local organizations, schools and school communities to participate in educational decisions appropriate for their local needs. (Teachers & Academicians)	4. Participation in decision-making process	4
Resources can be used more efficiently and will prevent extravagancy. (Teachers, Principals & Academicians)	5. Effective and efficient use of educational resources	11
Local organizations' contributions to education and training can be increased. (Educational Administrators) *More realistic educational plans will be prepared and implemented.* (Educational Administrators & Academicians)	6. Local support to educational services	4
-The quality of education and training will increase. (Teachers) *The needs of schools/teachers will be met promptly.* (Teachers). *-Decisions will be applied more practically.* (Principals) *-More functional school calendar can be prepared* (Principals & Educational Administrators)	7. The quality of education and training	7

As can be seen from Table 2, the study revealed that with delegating educational decision-making "regional and local requirements can be met best" by those who have responsibility for implementing the decision and "effective and efficient use of educational resources" can be obtained by giving schools more authority to control educational resources, effective management by "participation in decision-making process" and "the removal of bureaucratic obstacles" were the four major benefits of the decentralization efforts.

Table 3:

Perceived disadvantages of decentralization of educational decision-making (Open-ended question)

CORE RELEVANT NARRATIVE FORMED FROM QUOTATION *(Key content summarized through relevant quotations and linked by formulated meaning statements)*	EMERGENT THEMES (Initial themes arising within Quotation).	Total Points
-Regional differences may harm the unity of the country. (Educational Administrators) *-The national unity and integrity may be harmed.* (Educational Administrators & Academicians)	1. National unity	13
-Unification of education and training can be damaged. (Teacher, Educational Administrators)	2. Unification of education and instruction	14
-Local education administrators are not fully equipped with necessary knowledge and skills. (Teachers, Principals, Educational Administrators, Academicians)	3. Recruitment, selection and appointment of staff:	9
-Local administrators may show favor for their own relatives. (Teachers & Academicians) *-Political and other pressure groups may affect the education system.* (Teachers, Principals, Educational Administrators & Academicians)	4. Political, ideological and local pressure	24
-Local education administrators may not perform their duties well. (Teachers & Educational Administrators) *-Educational administrators are not ready for decentralization and willing to share their power.* (Educational Administrators & Academicians)	5. Use and delegation of authority	14
-Equal educational opportunity may be violated (Students cannot be served with equal opportunities in every region.) (Academicians)	6. Quality of Education and Instruction	10
-It is difficult to stabilize educational finance through local sources due to regional differences. (Academicians & Teachers) *-The financing of education may be expected from parents.* (Academicians)	7. Finance and the use of educational recourses	9

Potential major problems of decentralization efforts as cited in Table 3 include: an increase of political, ideological and local pressure; fear of damaging the national unity or unification of education and instruction; local education authorities not being ready, resource unavailability or insufficiency; lack of commitment by educational administrators; reluctance to delegate; and a lack of qualified staff.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study show that educational decisions should not be made at just one level, and there should be a variety of arrangements for sharing authority for decisions about education between the MoNE, province, municipality, and schools. The educational administrators in the study sample focus mainly on the Ministry-Province-School triangle with respect to decentralization and matters concerning the delegation of power. The most important finding was that respondents preferred that local education authorities should have more control over the majority of items in most of the decision categories except for capital expenditure, assessment and evaluation, and curriculum and instruction. Another interesting finding was that the majority of respondents generally felt that the heads of schools should have less control in most decision categories. One unanticipated finding was that, although the majority of the sample was composed of teachers and school principals, respondents stressed that schools would be a competent authority only on matters of implementation, supervision and assessment, and determination of school policy. This result may be explained by the fact that the lack of qualified staff within the regional and central level may cause problems during the implementation of the decentralization management process.

The most striking result to emerge from the literature review is that in 21 OECD countries, among the 32 educational decisions, only the "assessment methods of students' regular work" is made at basic education schools in Turkey (Gershberg & Winkler, 2003). Based on an overall analysis of the findings, it can be said that educational administrators are not willing to transfer authority and responsibility to the provinces, towns [municipalities] and schools. These results are in contradiction with the aim of decentralization, which is delegating decision making to those who have responsibility for implementing the decision and giving schools more authority to control educational resources (Bloomer, 1991). This finding may be explained by a number of different factors. Educational administrators may have misconceptions and lack information about decentralization and the delegation of power; the Ministry not being ready to delegate, unavailability or insufficient resources, lack of commitment by senior administrators, inadequate incentives, lack of qualified staff at lower levels and an overall reluctance to delegate.

Research findings have important implications for the Turkish Ministry of Education. The results of the study indicate that the educational stakeholders suggest the provinces and the Ministry are the competent authorities regarding decision making for the basic principles and characteristics of education. Since Turkey has a highly centralized education system, it is necessary to be more careful when decentralizing the system. As mentioned earlier by Bloomer (1991), any system of educational management depends on effective monitoring, even in highly centralized systems. Although the recent development in ICT has altered the advantages and disadvantages of both the centralization and decentralization, as indicated earlier it is necessary to have qualified staff at the regional and central levels during the implementation of the decentralized management process. This is not an easy task, as Bray (1996) points out, a decentralized management experience without providing the school principals and educational administrators the necessary skills and knowledge can bring about demands that cannot be met by the education administrators. One interesting issue that emerges from these findings is that without having the necessary knowledge and understanding about decentralization, the educational administrators at the sub-units may not accept the authority and responsibility that will be transferred to them with the implementation of decentralized management.

The respondents in the present study pointed out that creating a balance between the central government (MoNE) and the local education authorities in terms of sharing educational decisions is crucial. In order to achieve this, Fiske (1996) noted, the necessity of having consensus about a shared vision for the educational decentralization reform between the stakeholders of education suggesting the

following eight steps: a) identify stakeholders and their interests, b) build legitimate interests into the model, c) organize public discussion, d) clarify the purposes of decentralization, e) analyze the obstacles to decentralization, f) respect the roles of the various actors, g) provide adequate training, and h) develop a monitoring system. Further research on this topic needs to be undertaken before the association between centralization and decentralization is more clearly understood by the local community as well as the nongovernmental organizations. Further study with more focus on the readiness of local management authorities is therefore suggested. Conyers (1982) summarized her observations on decentralization of education in the developing countries. Education planners and policy makers in Turkey can take them into consideration. These are as follows:

1. Even though decentralized management of education seems to achieve many targets, it should not be seen as a tool for solving all the problems.
2. The targets to be reached with decentralization are related to the type and level of decentralization.
3. Most of the targets planned to be achieved with decentralization, for instance development of rural areas and participation of community, cannot be achieved with only decentralized management.
4. Depending on the education systems and problems of the countries, decentralized management itself can cause problems.

Considering the mentioned-above comments, decentralized management alone cannot be thought as a solution if the decision-making, authorities, and responsibilities are not shared between different levels of the system and are not made clear. As many analysts pointed out, decentralization aims at increasing responsibilities for efficient resource management and improvement in the quality of education at levels below the central level. However, decentralization also calls for greater responsibility for policy making and implementation monitoring at the central level, in particular, by the Ministry of Education.

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REVISING POLICY ON PLANNING SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE IN THE UNITED STATES

C. Kenneth Tanner

ABSTRACT

Thomas R. Dye (2005) stated, "public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do" (p. 1). While there are many other definitions, this popular characterization of governmental policy in the United States is more than adequate to consider the rules, regulations, and actions of people surrounding the complicated issues related to building public schools. This definition, according to Dye, indicates that public policy regulates conflict within a society, organizes society to carry on conflict with other societies; distributes symbolic rewards, materials, and services to members of society; and extracts money. Consequently, public policies may regulate behavior, organize bureaucracies, distribute benefits, or extract taxes--singularly or all at once (Dye, 2005, p.1). This article considers policies that guide the various stages of educational facilities planning. Analogous to Dye's definition, policies regulate the behavior of the educational bureaucracy and distribute benefits and services, including the extracted taxes, to build schools. In particular, the emphasis in this commentary is on which policies describe and explain the divide between what the public wants its school buildings to be, what it pays for, and what it finally gets when construction is finished.

One conclusion from this review of planning activities is that stakeholders are rarely included in the development and design of schools in the United States. Another conclusion is that federal, state, and local governments have allowed for-profit business to dictate school design, regardless of whether it facilitates the curriculum or not. Frequently, school buildings from the for-profit sector, where stakeholders are ignored, result in simple, bland prototypes; they do not reflect community values, and their form does not follow functions to be achieved within the educational system.

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

The economic stimulus package proposed for school infrastructure in 2009 required more strict guidelines for spending than prior policies. Serious questions have arisen from citizens and political leaders about the banking, insurance, and automobile worlds that took "bailout" money and then continued operations as usual – sometimes worse than that which led to the need for bailout in the first place. Taxpayers in the United States do not support new money being poured into failing business models. Neither should the public be content and allow old educational facilities planning methods to soak up federal bailout money for the educational infrastructure. The field of education is just as likely to continue to employ incorrect planning models as did the automobile, insurance, and banking industries, which initially avoided sound business models in favor of business as usual – policies that led to failure. Recommendations made in this article are intended to head off imprudent spending in educational facilities planning, design, and construction by paying attention to both the process and product in a multi-billion dollar business that has largely ignored teachers, students, stakeholders, and sound planning practices over the past 20 years.

Conducting research only in the United States, the researchers at the School Design and Planning Laboratory (SDPL, 2009) have learned to question many of the planning and building practices that have dominated recent planning and school construction activities. After reviewing policies from several states regarding the development of schools, it is safe to conclude, along with the SDPL research results, that the educational planning, design, architectural, and construction business in the United States operates under flawed policy, which allows bad decisions by school boards and state departments of education.

Looming large is the fact that school planning and design have been dominated by for-profit businesses operated by planning and architectural consulting firms, the majority of which are controlled and made up of white, upper middle-class males in the United States. This group has done limited data-based research, making it difficult to find credible evidence on solid educational facilities planning and design in the United States. Case studies and opinion appear to be the leading types of information

released to the public regarding educational facilities planning. After an opinion article is published, it is often cited as research – fiction masked as fact. Further, the ugly spiral of half truths spawned from the original published article, often moves beyond fiction to oxymoron status by authors labeling the half-truths as "best practices research." As a result, research on school facilities planning and design can get very fuzzy very quickly. Perhaps the best legitimate initial research that influenced school design in the late 1900's came from the field of environmental psychology, which produced several quantitative studies that may have been utilized by some schools and far fewer for-profit operations (see, for example, Sommer, 1969, 1983). A review of the few published works on the educational facilities planning process and research in that field may be found in Tanner and Lackney (2006). Other excellent publications on the process of educational facilities planning have been written by Greenman (1988), Sanoff (2000), Earthman (2000), and Olds (2001).

Given that the for-profit business sector has been paid by school boards to plan, design, and build schools, the blame for poor schools and failing infrastructure lies partially at the feet of educational leaders and school boards. Notwithstanding, the educational system and for-profit business share equally in the demise of quality school design leading to poor student achievement in the United States. Taxpayers who have supported bad educational policy on school facilities planning must also admit their share of blame. The educational system includes colleges and universities that educate and train school leaders. Very few colleges and universities offer courses or formal training in educational facilities planning and design. The process of how to design a school is ignored in the formal education of school teachers and leaders, so this aspect of the planning, design, and building process, by default, has been given over to the for-profit sector, which usually knows little about the school's philosophy, its curriculum, teaching and learning methods, or how the physical environment influences learning and behavior.

The general policy context for developing educational facilities in the United States includes the school boards, educational leaders, the colleges and universities, for-profit planning and architectural firms, and the taxpayers (Figure 1). School boards are policy-making bodies that influence the entire school culture. They are governed by local, state and national guidelines. Educational leaders work for the school board and carry out board policy; they may have some influence on board decisions. Planners and architects work for the board of education, and like educational leaders, may influence decisions. In fact, it is not unusual for the architect to influence educational decisions that should be made by educators – school design, for example. Colleges and universities rarely give educational leaders enough training to deal with educational facilities planning issues so, by default, the educational leaders give the job to architects or planners that are controlled by architects (existing policy in most states permits this activity). The taxpayers are included in the circle of influence because they, and educational leaders, have allowed a horrific planning process to evolve in the name of expediency, which includes prototype schools, little to no stakeholder participation in planning and design, and rapid, substandard construction processes. Too often teachers and students are totally ignored in the educational facility planning process, and relevant research is replaced by best practices, which may not be best practices at all. Figure 1 reveals the interactions described above. From the diagram, note that local school planning, design, and construction fall mostly under the gray areas of control provided by state departments of education, with some federal oversight. Local and state codes for construction are necessary, and must be followed regardless of the school's plan.

Figure 1: The Policy Making Context for Developing Educational Facilities
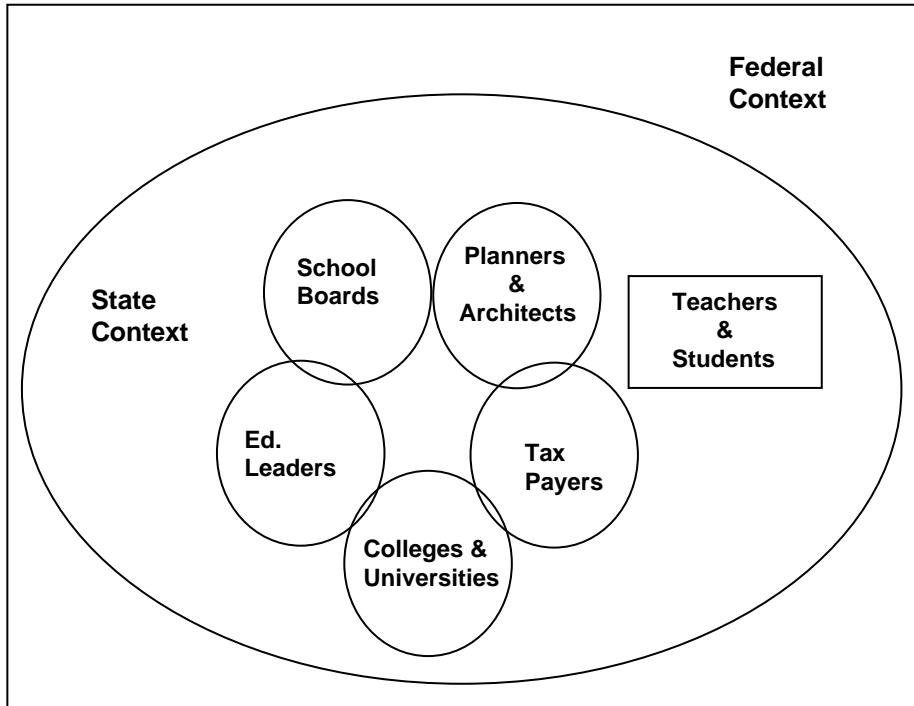
Few schools have been constructed to the satisfaction of educators. Some major complaints, backed up by research findings, are that schools often are not built to the scale of the student (age appropriate heights and dimensions), and students in these schools do not have adequate space for learning and circulation (Meek, 1995). Natural lighting is poor, or nonexistent in many classrooms, although such lighting has been shown to positively influence student productivity (Heschong Mahone Group, 1999; Tanner, 2009a).

One cause for the inadequate school facility is that the people who use the facility are, for the most part, ignored during the process of developing educational learning environments (Figure 1). This oversight may be caused by the perceived need to rush toward school construction, sanctioned by poor educational planning at the state and local levels, and ignorance about participatory processes and school design on the part of educational leaders and school boards. Often educational leaders and school boards have not exhibited knowledge or patience to utilize group process techniques needed to build schools. They most often ignore participatory design principles which include the discovery process so that everyone may "take part", going from awareness to understanding, taking understanding to the actual physical design based on priorities, and escalating to implementation – taking the process to what people want and how the building will look (Sanoff, 2000).

Thus, the lack of stakeholder participation is a major contributor to the building bad schools. All too often school boards ignore teachers, students, and parents, or allow only a cameo role suggested by the for-profit businesses that have taken over most of the school development in the United States. Dealing with stakeholders on a serious level takes up more time than the for-profit businesses and uneducated school leaders have been willing to expend.

SOME FACTS AND FICTION ABOUT THE EXPECTED PRODUCT *(STUDENT OUTCOMES)*

The SDPL (2009) has completed research that goes beyond case studies, best practices, and statistical relationships by identifying the effects of the school environment on student outcomes. Since 1997, the

SDPL's research agenda has been described as *The ABC's for Upgrading School Environments*, where we have continuously looked at the affective, behavioral, and cognitive dimensions of student learning and linked these factors, through sound statistical methods, to the physical environment of the school. Repeated studies at the University of Georgia have found significant relationships between the physical environment of the school and student outcomes such as achievement and behavior (Tanner, 2006, 2008, 2009a).

Throughout the United States, many students are crammed into deteriorating schools that need billions of dollars in repairs, renovations, or construction (National Center for Educational Statistics; 2000, 2003, 2007). If we follow the currently prevailing policies of planning and designing public schools in the United States, and if the needed change is attempted through these old policies on building and renovating schools, there is little hope that our county will ever come out of the educational slump plaguing most public schools. This is because one of the last research frontiers in education is the school facility and how it affects student learning and behavior. We are just beginning to discover how the school facility influences student learning. But, following the old policies on educational facilities development will only lead the educational system to implode under failed planning, design, and construction practices of recent years. Currently, there are quotes of *fiction, facts, and costs* being spread throughout the media:

Fiction

Parents, students, and teachers do not know what they want. However, architects and planners do know what facilities are best for teaching and learning, (although they can't site any defensible research).

Minimizing community input about school design and construction will save time. Parents, students, and teachers just get in the way of bringing the school in under cost and delay the time lines.

Smaller classes are best for student teaching and learning. Ignore the number of students per usable square foot.

Involving the community and stakeholders requires only one or two brief meetings. Lead clients to think that they had a part in developing the school. Group process requires too much time.

Windows in classrooms waste energy and money and cause distractions for students. By keeping students from looking through windows to the outside, their attention can be focused on the teacher. Schools without windows and natural light are less expensive to operate and more energy efficient.

Students perform just as well in a dull school as a fancy school; and the teacher-centered method of teaching is adequate (sitting in straight rows and listening to teachers lecture). The design of the school does not matter, so build the school as cheaply as possible and eliminate frills and aesthetics.

Facts

Well-designed classrooms influence how children learn and bring aesthetics to a traditionally dull atmosphere. This is partially true as we have hard evidence on certain design features, but the statistical data are thin regarding aesthetics, although we wish it were not (SDPL, 2009).

President Obama proposes to enhance schools by making the technology and the Internet available to all students. This may be one of the most important gifts students ever receive from the public school system. Our research on school design and after school programs supports the use of technology as an effective influence on student learning (Tanner, 2006).

There is a growing body of evidence showing that improving classrooms influences student performance positively. SDPL research supports this aspect of the President's policy agenda (SDPL, 2009).

Students attending crowded schools and classrooms have lower academic performance. This relates to the notion that "smaller is better and larger is worse," but smaller and crowding must be clarified (Wohlwill and van Vliet, 1985). Student population density, not whether the school is small or large, is one significant aspect of planning in need of explanation to policy making groups. We have no solid evidence based on hard-data research to prove that small schools are better or that large schools are bad (It is the wish of the author that we could prove that smaller schools are better, however). Swift (2000) found that students attending schools having more that 100 architectural square feet per student scored

significantly higher on standardized tests.

As emphasized above, there exists very limited hard evidence indicating that smaller class sizes or schools actually help to improve student outcomes across all socioeconomic (SES) classes. Achilles, Finn, and Bain (1998), in their classic study, found that smaller classes were helpful to children in inner-city schools. This statement may not apply to students of all SES classes, however. The SDPL has reported data showing that ample space and circulation patterns correlate with improved standardized test scores across all SES classes (Tanner, 2008).

Principals in primary and secondary schools note that deteriorating conditions interfere with learning (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2007). Power outlets are scarce in older schools, and may impede the use of technology.

Older schools frequently have mildew and mold in the walls and carpeted floors, due to leaking roofs. This triggers allergy and asthma problems, even when the floors are cleaned regularly.

Many hallways in schools across the United States are dark and narrow, not to mention crowded, facilitating behavior problems such as bullying and fighting. Freedom of movement is necessary to foster positive student outcomes.

The Cost

While there are many published cost estimates, no one knows exactly how much money is needed to restore broken schools and build new, adequate learning environments. By starting with a set of sound policies and procedures, not heretofore uniformly employed, we can make a positive difference in planning and constructing appropriate learning environments.

While simply estimates, the projected cost of upgrading schools ranges from $200 billion to $400 billion as reported by the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and the Council of Educational Facility Planners, International (Tanner, 2008). Local and state governments and private businesses must share these costs. The federal dollar, alone, will not solve the problem. In general, federal dollars account for only a small portion of construction and other school needs. State and local governments almost always spend a higher percentage on school construction than the federal agencies.

Federal agencies should consider supporting local school construction with low cost bonds. This would be a sound approach to get the school planning and construction jobs done according to better policy, especially if local governmental agencies are willing to change current policies and procedures.

School facilities planning, design, and construction may begin upon the release of federal financial stimulus monies. Yet, jumping to construction without serious planning is a waste of money and not even a short-term "fix."

A PROPOSED POLICY IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS FOR UPGRADING SCHOOLS

Non-profit educational organizations must take authority over for-profit organizations to demand that any new educational building, by necessity, accommodates the educational functions set forth by the relevant educational community. This is not going to be easy as there are too many players who think they know what is needed by educational institutions (see for example Figure 1). The for-profit organizations say, "Let us tell you what you need, because we can save you money, and we know because we do this for a living." The for-profit organizations often deliver dated educational specifications and a school design previously stored in a drawer or on a computer hard drive that will be presented to the community after going through perfunctory planning meetings, and at a reduced percentage of normal architectural charges. The non-profit educational organization is used to being told what to do by polished salespeople from the for-profit businesses. *So, educators are conditioned to say: "we get what we get and should be glad to get it; and of course, we saved money since we received a discount on the architectural and design fees."*

Table 1 provides suggestions to ensure that architectural form follows educational function – thus, letting the educational program dictate school design. Educational decision makers should demand that form to follow function in the facility planning process.

Table 1:
Develop an Educational Program that Dictates School Design – Form Follows Function

- In the pre-planning stages, demand that curriculum experts define current and future educational trends.

- Identify current and future teaching and learning styles that will be experienced in the new school facility.

- Know the current and expected demographics of the school.

- Review data-based research on how the educational environment influences student outcomes and be very cautious about best practices (Always ask: *whose* best practices and know if the practices may be generalized to your setting).

- Complete educational planning and concept design before employing an architect or design team. Therefore, the non-profit tells the for-profit organization what functions are to be accommodated by the design (form) of the school.

- Since architectural fees are in the range of 6% to 10% of the total cost for building a school, reduce the architect's load by shifting more activities into planning. Lower the architect's percentage and reduce the architects workload and responsibilities.

- Revise state and local policies governing architects, and give control of school design to qualified educational planners and decision makers.

- Set aside approximately 1% of the expected project cost for pre-planning and concept design at the educational organization's level, and allow no interference from the for-profit industry. Stay away from influence outside education in planning for school learning environments.

Through continuous use, revision, and work with students and school systems in applying various planning models (Earthman, 2009; Tanner & Lackney, 2006; Sanoff, 2000; Castaldi, 1994; Clay, Lake, & Tremain, 1989), the SDPL has developed and implemented a hybrid of paradigms labeled Focused Strategic Planning (FSP) (Tanner, 2009b). Perhaps this five-phase strategy could be employed to upgrade the educational facilities planning processes in the United States.

In applying the model, the problem is presented to stakeholders as follows: *Develop a facilities plan for a school of your choice.* The five phases are:

Phase I: Develop a focused mission statement for the educational facility. First, determine the number of students for which you are developing the facility. Next, study the organizational level (lower, middle, or upper school). Assuming familiarity with traditional strategic planning, and how to select, organize, and orient team members, *develop a mission statement that will complement the school program (its curriculum) and its context*. The mission will probably be a complementary part of the larger vision and mission already established by the school. The mission statement in the FSP process should focus on the physical environment.

Phase II: Construct "Surprise-Free" scenario statements about the educational facility. Assuming the trends and issues discovered in the environmental scans (a separate survey prior to FSP) are valid, *develop a list of assumptions about what the school should look like in 5-10-20 years*. For example, "Each student will be provided ample space for learning," and "The school population, within 10 years, will increase by X%."

Phase III: Develop design goals for the educational specifications. Review the results of Phases I

and II. Link the surprise-free scenario statements to *design goals for the educational specifications.* For example: "Allow at least 39 square feet for each student and teacher in classrooms to better implement the constructivist learning and teaching philosophy."

Phase IV: Advance from goals to concept design. *Sketch learning spaces* that include the design goals for the educational specifications developed in Phase III. Now, following Sanoff's (2000) participatory design principles, go from awareness to understanding and actually develop a physical design based on priorities. This activity reflects what the people want and shows how the building will look.

Phase V: *Translate the Concept Design into a Schematic Drawing.* Describe and explain to the stakeholders and governing board the relationships among the schematic drawing and design goals, addressing teaching and learning philosophy facilitated in the various spaces. Show how the educational function influences the physical design of the school.

Figure 2, depicts a model in which concept design or FSP fits into the typical policy on building or remodeling schools. The section of the flowchart depicted in figure 2 described as FSP or Concept Design is missing from planning models in many states studied by SDPL (Tanner, 2009a). This conceptualization is based on the ideas and materials presented in Table 1.
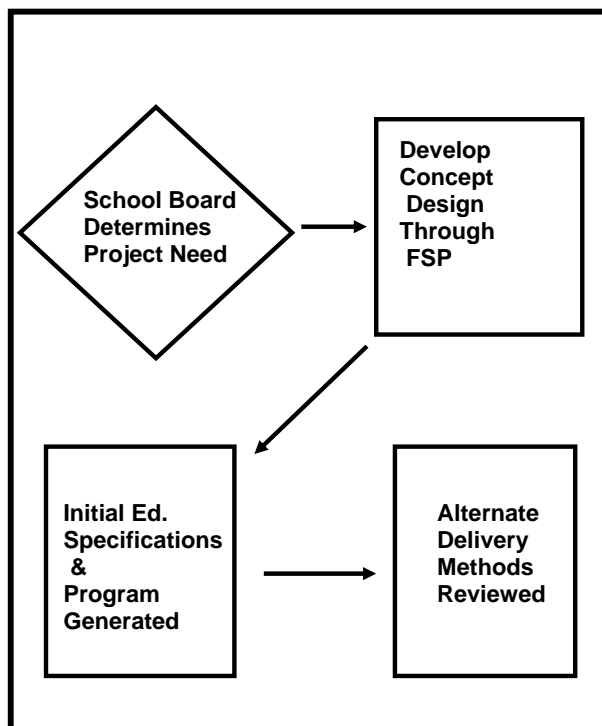

Figure 2. A Modification of Existing Policy to Ensure Better Student Outcomes

The FSP procedure encourages community participation, while minimizing duplication of planning efforts. Hopefully, teachers and students will become part of the planning and design teams funded by the 2009 U.S. economic stimulus package. This focused strategic planning procedure is a radical policy change for many school districts in the United States who have elected to build prototype schools and allowed for-profit organizations to dictate the type of school they build. The modification of the existing policy structure found in Figure 2 facilitates the ***change*** that President Obama endorsed!

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