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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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

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From the Editors

This opening issue of Volume 23 starts with Nir discussing the compromises in the ethics of educational planning. He emphasizes that a conscientious balance between various considerations and expectations has to be maintained so that the compromises made will be less likely to produce paradoxical plans limiting educational development and progression.

This issue also presents two articles on educational facility planning and two on strategic planning in higher education. The authors of these articles are in the forefront of their areas of specialization and have provided the most updated practical strategies for educational planning.

The article by Earthman and Cash is focused on the impact of school renovation on student academic achievement. They recommend that in order to ease the disruption of school renovation and maintain student progress, faculty could focus upon the necessary elements of the curriculum, increase the use of technology, and provide resources for alternative activities in the classroom to help keep students on task and perform better.

Ford's article on facility planning brings the classroom design and layout issue to the attention of school administrators and teachers. She stresses the importance of examining learning spaces in light of the changing pedagogies that teachers are being encouraged to employ with this current generation of students. She further reiterates that teachers need to be provided with the appropriate resources, including the most effective physical environments and classroom layouts and the training to use those spaces effectively in 21st century learning.

The article written by Immordino, Gigliotti, Ruben, and Tromp is a report of their study on evaluating the impact of strategic planning in higher education. The findings of this study of one intentional model for strategic planning at a state university indicate that the program has been successful not only in assisting departments and programs in developing mission and vision statements, organizational goals, and action plans, but also in disseminating organizational information, promoting participation, incorporating new members, and heightening awareness of strengths and opportunities for improvement.

Finally, the article presented by Rebisz, Tominska and Sikora leads us to the international scene of planning for faculty recruitment and assessment in higher education of Poland and Switzerland. Considering student preferences for faculty teaching qualities and teacher-student relations, college faculty can plan for specific forms of didactic work as needed, and adopt an approach that fosters the building of good relations with students.

Educational planning at any level has not been an easy task. We are sure that readers of this issue will become smarter planners after reviewing the innovative ideas and experiences presented by our intelligent authors. The authors' sharing of their practical approaches has made this journal a distinguished publication for educational planning.

January, 2016

About the Authors

Carol S. Cash has served as a teacher, principal, and central administration officer in the public schools in the USA and overseas and is now Associate Clinical Professor of Educational Leadership at Virginia Tech. She currently serves as the Program Area Leader for the Faculty in Educational Leadership. Dr. Cash has researched and published widely concentrating on the field of school facility conditions and student achievement. She has served as consultant to numerous educational organizations and governmental agencies both in the USA and overseas.

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Educational Planning: The Ethics of Compromise

Adam E. Nir

ABSTRACT

This manuscript focuses on ethics in educational policy planning. Specifically, it raises the question of how policy plan analysis may indicate for planners' ethics in considering that educational planners operate in an environment characterized by a variety of contradicting interests making compromises essential. The manuscript, which offers criteria that may be employed to assess and classify compromises, argues that different types of compromises may serve as proxies for planners' ethics. However, although the evaluation of compromises may produce valuable information, it is important to acknowledge that plans do not reflect the unique circumstances which existed while planning processes were performed. In this sense, an external assessment of planners' ethical conduct is limited. Therefore, it is concluded that much depends on planners' ethical and professional judgment and ability to maintain a conscientious balance between various considerations and expectations so that the compromises made will be less likely to produce paradoxical plans limiting educational development and progression.

INTRODUCTION

Professional ethics and ethical behaviors have become topics of renewed interest over the last decade following research stressing their effect on the behavior and performance of professionals (Elango, Paul, Kundu & Paudel, 2010; GopalaKrishnan, Mangaliso & Butterfield, 2008; Higgs-Kleyn & Kapelianis, 1999; O`Fallon & Butterfield, 2005; Trevino, Weaver & Reynolds, 2006).

In light of their complex knowledge and highly technical skills, professionals represent an authoritative symbol of social responsibility (Raelin, 1991), making their morality an imperative (Higgs-Kleyn & Kapelianis, 1999). Therefore, when lapses in ethical behavior occur, the credibility of the entire profession is endangered (Kerr & Smith, 1995).

Although ethical conduct is considered highly significant for individuals and organizations (Hill & Rapp, 2014), one can find a wide array of conceptualizations attempting to tackle this illusive concept. In general, professional ethics is a set of agreed expectations, setting the boundaries for professional conduct and a desirable course of action in a particular profession or organization. When these expectations are formalized, they become codes of behavior which all professionals sharing a particular occupation are expected to follow. Ethical codes are conventions enabling professionals as well as the entire society to differentiate among wrongs and rights when referring to professional conduct and to attribute accountability and responsibility to individuals. Moreover, ethical codes help managers to avoid hazards associated with immoral actions (Rosthorn, 2000) and to set guidelines that may be used to reward employees (Garcia-Marza, 2005).

The following paper focuses on educational planners' ethics. Assessing planners' ethics creates a unique challenge since the educational realm lacks agreed-upon criteria and expectations which set clear boundaries for planners' professional conduct and for assessing their ethical conduct. Rather, educational planners operate in a highly complicated context, involving a variety of contradicting interests and values. Such circumstances often require compromise, blurring ethical considerations even more. In addition, assessing educational planners' ethics by analyzing educational plans is a difficult task since educational plans do not tell the entire story nor do they reflect the circumstances which lead educational planners to articulate a particular policy plan.

Hence, assessing educational planners' ethical conduct requires the articulation of an analytic perspective, enabling analysis of the quality of compromises characterizing a particular plan. This is the main goal and focus of this manuscript.

ETHICS IN PLANNING

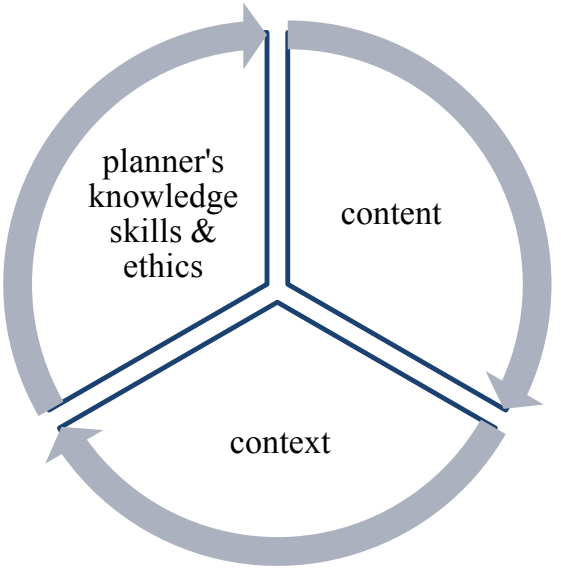
A wide array of criteria associated with the ethical conduct of planners may be found in the literature. One prominent example may be found in the American Planning Association Code of Ethics (AICP, 2005). Among the principles emphasized are consciousness to the rights of others, concern with long-range consequences, commitment to provide timely, adequate, clear and accurate information, the tendency to advance social justice and fairness in dealing with all participants in the planning process (for the complete list of criteria - https://www.planning.org/ethics/ethicscode.htm). Planners are expected to operate in line with these principles and produce plans allowing maximal benefits for individuals, organizations and the society.

While acting ethically seems to be the preferred mode of operation, it is important to acknowledge that the planning process which attempts to rationally bridge between present and future events (Faludi, 1973, p. 1; Inbar, 1985; Scholnick & Friedman, 1993) is often conducted in circumstances that are complex, dynamic and shadowed

by uncertainty and planners are often exposed to contradictory values and expectations. In this sense, planners constantly need to juggle between constraints, expectations and opportunities and, therefore, tend to articulate plans that all or at least most stakeholders may regard as feasible and acceptable. This implies that planners operate under stressful circumstances, often encouraged to compromise and develop satisfying plans which meet some acceptable threshold (Simon, 1978) rather than optimal solutions.

Since planning attempts to achieve some future goal in a particular context, every plan is an expression of three main dimensions: the content, which includes the theoretical and practical knowledge in a specific discipline or area of expertise; the context, representing the unique circumstances in which planning is performed and plans are supposed to be implemented, and finally, planner's knowledge skills and ethics, shaping professional considerations and the quality of professional conduct. This is also the case in educational planning:

Dimensions of the educational planning process



The constraints and limitations often characterizing the planning process and the need to effectively bridge between these three dimensions of the planning process are acknowledged and stated in the American Planning Association Code of Ethics (AICP, 2005):

> "….As the basic values of society can come into competition with each other, so can the aspirational principles we espouse under this Code. An ethical judgment often requires a conscientious balancing, based on the facts and context of a particular situation and on the precepts of the entire Code."

Acknowledging the complexity of the planning process, planners are expected to exercise their ethical judgment when articulating plans (AICP, 2005). This obviously grants planners significant degrees of freedom to choose the preferred mode of operation, values and the goals a plan is expected to attain. At the same time, however, it exposes them to problems and complexities which usually do not have simple or straightforward solutions.

PUBLIC EDUCATION AS PLANNING CONTEXT

Generally speaking, planning is a highly complicated task since planners always experience a discrepancy between what they know and the unknown. Their rationality is bounded (Simon, 1991) by the amount and accuracy of the information that may be used in a given time and place, by their cognitive limitations, and by pressures and the amount of time granted for the planning process. Therefore, uncertainty is an inherent feature of the planning process. This last statement is true in particular when planning is conducted in a social context subjected to the instability characterizing individual behavior and social interactions.

In addition to the constraints and uncertainty which typically face planners, the educational planning process is also affected by the unique circumstances in which planning is conducted. In this sense, any attempt to understand

the unique challenge facing educational planners and to assess their ethical conduct requires mapping the basic features characterizing public education.

Generally speaking, public education features complexity inherent to public schools' daily activities and processes, to the variety of interests and values involved and to the turbulent environment in which schools operate.

Educational issues are mostly "wicked": they are ill-defined; there is no ultimate test for their solutions; they are unique and are often symptoms of other issues (Rittel & Webber, 1973). Educators are held liable for any consequences that follow their actions, since the social tolerance for undesired outcomes and mistakes is low when educational issues are involved. The relation between ends and means tends to be vague (Rose, 1984) and the measures for attaining educational goals are inherently unreliable (Hogwood & Peters, 1985; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984). Therefore, it is often hard to measure and evaluate outcomes and establish clear causality between processes and outcomes. Since least structured problems are more difficult to solve, educational problems are considered frightening and stressful (Leithwood & Stager, 1989), demanding a high level of proficiency (Leithwood & Stager, 1986) from educators and educational planners.

This inherent complexity which follows the variety of inconsistent and contradictory interests facing public schools sets the grounds for a range of dilemmas creating a professional and ethical challenge for educational planners. These dilemmas vary in scope: some are broader and yet fundamental to the very nature of public education (Bradley & Taylor, 2002). Others are specific to particular areas within the educational realm (Shapiro & Stefkovitch, 2000). Both kinds of dilemmas, however, are intertwined and are highly influential in terms of the uncertainty, complexity and challenge they bring to educational planners' daily experiences.

CHALLENGES IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING: A FEW EXAMPLES

Although a wide array of challenges may be found in the theoretical and empirical literature discussing the educational realm, five are of particular significance for educational planners:

No one best way: Public education lacks shared agreement regarding best practices. Rather, what characterizes it is a variety of theoretical and practical perspectives, each offering a different mixture of benefits and limitations. This may be evident in various aspects of the educational process. For example, the variability among children found in every classroom suggests there is not, and can never be, one best way to foster and develop reading and writing (Allington & Cunningham, 2007, p. 66). Moreover, discussions on inclusion policies share the notion that different children have different needs which may be best met in different environments (Clegg, Murphy, Almack & Harvey, 2008). Hence, the appropriateness of different practices is heavily determined by the circumstances and professional considerations as there exists no single best practice that may be applicable to all educational issues, children or situations.

Multiple interests and contradictory expectations: The schooling context is characterized by multiple and contradictory interests that schools are expected to satisfy (Nir, 2000a). The increasing awareness of the public to schooling, the public debate on educational issues, the reports in the media on education and the increased number of educational interest groups which follow the development of a civic society (Rosen, 2001) all contribute to the various expectations schools face. This variety of interests and values produces little agreement regarding desirable ends schools are expected to attain. Hence, it seems obvious that a variety of contradicting interests have the potential to produce conflict and stress for educational planners striving to articulate plans that meet as many needs and expectations as possible.

Equity vs. Excellence: Another major challenge facing educational planners is related to the limited amount of resources often characterizing the public schooling realm (Betts, Rueben & Danenberg, 2000; Bradley & Taylor, 2002). Generally speaking, public education is offered to, and sometimes even forced upon, everyone and is therefore expected to reflect equal investment in every child. Yet, articulating the meaning of equity is rather complicated and may be conceived through different lenses. Equity may imply everyone receives the same amount of resources regardless of individual needs (Paquette, 1998). Equity may also imply each child receives educational services that correspond with his/her particular needs, and, therefore, that some children may receive more resources than others (Jencks, 1988). Choosing between these two perspectives often depends on the way public educational systems view their mission: ensuring that the academic level of all children meets a certain criteria, or ensuring excellence mainly through supporting those who are capable of attaining the highest achievements possible. Typically, public educational systems find it hard to take a clear stand on this matter, therefore allowing differential levels of studies and examinations in a given discipline.

Local, national or global: As the world gradually moves towards globalization, educational planners need to set the balance between the local characteristics of their culture and exposing children to global ideas and perceptions that promote a common denominator among people of different societies and cultures (Astiz, Wiseman & Baker, 2002). However, various global trends, such as international testing, undermine the fragile balance between the national and the global, strengthening the latter, thus creating constant pressure on national educational systems to adopt international curriculum categories and indicators (Priestley, 2002). As a result, national educational planners may often face difficulties to maintain a local perspective more sensitive to students' particular needs and to the national agenda. This may be evident in civic and history education (Law, 2004; Tormey, 2006) and may also be reflected in the way national systems integrate issues of identity and construct their hidden agenda (Gordon, 1984) within the national curriculum. Since the choice between the local and the global inevitably involves political considerations, educational planners may encounter difficulty in creating a defensible balance between the two perspectives when setting a national policy plan.

Political (short-term) vs. professional (long-term) considerations: It is well known that public education is framed according to political ideologies and agendas (Berkson, 1968; Blanco & Grier, 2009; Green, 1997; Lawton, 1992). Educational policies and plans are developed based on contemporary political thought and on governments' interests (McKenzie, 1993; Popkewitz, 2000). Since educational planners at the national level are expected to produce educational plans while operating in a political context, they typically operate at the crossroad between political and professional considerations. When professional considerations dominate, the planning process will be mostly influenced by scientific knowledge and past experiences gathered by professionals (Foster, Placier & Walker, 2002). Such conduct is based primarily on the inherent truths as to what should be accomplished, how, by whom, when and why, being shared by professionals in a particular area of expertise (ibid.). However, when political considerations dominate, educational plans are expected to allow politicians to exhibit some prominent accomplishments within a rather short time frame to serve their desire to get re-elected. These different considerations expose educational planners to a dilemma when assigning for example time perspectives to educational plans. Political agendas are limited by calendars, public interest and the attention of policy-makers and, therefore, tend to change over time (O'Toole, 1989). A variety of empirical works have shown that educational considerations play a major role in the political arena, especially before election time (Monchar, 1981; OECD, 2004; Paul, 1991; Popkewitz, 2000; Stevenson & Baker, 1991; World Bank, 2004). The relatively short life span of political interests implies that any attempt to present some educational achievement is likely to be characterized by a sense of urgency, encouraging planners to assign short time perspectives even when complicated educational issues are involved. However, in considering the complexity of educational issues, such conduct may limit the production of substantial solutions for complicated educational issues (Das, 1991). In this sense, educational planners experience stress which follows the disparity between their tendency to meet political expectations through articulating short-term processes and their professional inclination to set long time perspectives considered essential when attempting to initiate substantial pedagogical and didactical processes (Foster, Placier & Walker, 2002). The urgency associated with educational issues may encourage educational planners to adopt quick rather than comprehensive solutions for complicated educational problems "to maximize the scores on indicators of today's performance" (Kanter & Summers, 1994, p. 224). Such conduct may lead to simplification (Nir, 2000a) evident in the tendency to favor tactical and short-term solutions for "hot" and complex educational issues. Hence, finding the right balance between political and professional considerations creates an ethical challenge for educational planners if plans are likely to offer solutions for highly complicated educational issues and, at the same time, serve the political ambitions of politicians wishing to get re-elected.

Although the challenges described are merely examples, they testify to the unique assignment facing educational planners: setting policy plans in a context characterized by conflicting interests and values while lacking agreed criteria that clearly differentiate right from wrong. These conditions set an unstable basis for decision making and accountability and limit the ability to assess educational planners' ethical considerations and conduct. Moreover, the final product – educational plans – offers only a crude proxy for the various values, considerations and contextual features considered by educational planners while articulating plans. Hence, assessing planners' ethical conduct becomes a rather complicated challenge in considering the lack of objective criteria that may be employed.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING: THE ART OF COMPROMISE

Educational planning, typically taking place in a context characterized by dilemmas and multiple conflicting interests, is obviously not a simple task. In this sense, educational planning may be considered a Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) (Belton & Stewart, 2002) process since there is no single optimal solution for educational problems. Therefore, educational planners must use their personal preferences and ethical judgment while striving to produce plans aiming to satisfy multiple and often conflicting expectations.

It is therefore not a surprise that educational planning involves stress for planners knowing that any plan they produce is likely to satisfy the expectations of some stakeholders and, at the same time, disappoint others. Therefore, educational planners may often be encouraged to compromise in an attempt to reduce their stress and create plans that allow contradicting expectations to converge.

While compromise "is what keeps society from falling apart" (Ricœur, 1991) and therefore may be considered a sensible and pragmatic mode of operation when educational plans intend to meet contradictory agendas and expectations, this strategy is not free of limitations which may undermine ethical clarity.

Initially, compromise is an ambivalent and a boundary concept as it combines opposing notions: a positive notion signalling a willingness for cooperation coupled with a negative notion signalling betrayal of ideal principles and agendas (Margalit, 2010, p. 6).

Secondly, getting along with others and engaging in collective sacrifice through compromises is considered highly valuable for social life and a major social competency. On this basis, it may be morally justified as part of the human survival process. Nevertheless, some compromises may be at the same time lethal for moral life (Margalit, 2010, p. 7), especially if they encourage planners to create plans that meet the lowest common denominator that ultimately harm those engaged in their implementation. It is important to acknowledge that compromises we eventually settle on are our second-best choices, and often not even that (Margalit, 2010, p. 5). Yet, they tell us more about our moral standing than an account of our first priority does (Lipsey & Lancater, 1956).

In realizing that public education is a meeting point for various and at times contradictory interests, educational planners are typically challenged to produce policy plans that would facilitate attaining worthwhile goals rather than provoke resistance likely to undermine plan implementation. However, searching for the right balance between extreme points of view promotes the tendency to compromise, and compromises always represent a deviation from some ideal. In this sense, assessing the ethical conduct of educational planners will always be tricky since there is no single set of interests or values that may be employed as a reference point when the quality of plans is evaluated.

PLANNERS' COMPROMISES: THE THREE PS

The process of educational planning makes compromises inevitable in light of the many contradictory interests that educational policy plans are expected to satisfy. Since plans that are based on compromises always reflect discrepancies from some ideologies, ideals and interests, the ability to assess the quality of compromises becomes crucial in order to evaluate planners' ethical conduct.

Acknowledging that compromises may take various shapes and forms, their qualities may serve as proxy for the different ethical considerations. Specifically, compromises in educational planning may be categorized to three main types, each representing different meaning and implications:

Type A compromise - Progression: A plan based on a type A compromise will reflect a discrepancy from some ideal goals or agendas. However, it will still enable the introduction of radical changes and the advancement of professional goals to an extent considered substantial and beneficial by all stakeholders. Such compromise will enable advancement of individuals, schools and the educational system as a whole and produce in the long run a significant change and worthwhile outcomes. In essence, a policy plan based on such a compromise pushes the educational system forward through the various innovations and improvements it introduces that altogether allow the educational system to perform better.

Type B compromise - Preservation: A policy plan based on this type of compromise mainly reflects the tendency to maintain stability by avoiding potential conflicts. A type B compromise produces a framework that reduces the variance in the processes and actions conducted within the educational system. One immediate expression for this mode of operation may be evident in the conservative nature of the articulated plan. A plan that is based on such compromises puts forward ideas which create the impression that the plan will lead to the best possible outcome considering the numerous contradictory interests and limitations involved. However, this notion is misleading since such plans offer only moderate changes and improvements and are more likely to maintain stagnation rather

than allow educational systems or schools to develop. Such a compromise will promote more of the same strategy and it may therefore make an educational plan dysfunctional in the long run, especially if schools operate in a turbulent and ever changing environment.

Type C compromise – Paradoxical: This type of compromise is likely to follow high pressure resulting of extreme contradictory expectations and sets of values that do not have a point of convergence and, therefore, cannot be easily bridged. Such compromises are self-contradicting and are usually based on false propositions. Therefore, plans that are based on paradoxical compromises will articulate solutions likely to regress the educational system rather than enable its development. In this sense, paradoxical compromises are often destructive. A better explanation is that paradoxical compromises often follow a Golden Mean Fallacy asserting that extreme points of view must be wrong or less relevant and that a middle point between these extremes is always better and truer. Although this may allow the tension educational planners experience to dissolve, setting educational plans based on some average between two or more extreme positions may produce a misleading combination.

Consider for example the attempts to introduce school autonomy policies in centralized structures. If planners need to cope with two contradictory agendas - one fostering the empowerment of schools and another arguing for the need to maintain a strong, centralized control over schools, their tendency to compromise and articulate a policy plan based on some average between these extreme perspectives is more likely to end with paradoxical autonomy: strong deceleration in favor of school autonomy along with strong measures employed by central government to maintain its control (Nir, 2009a). While such plans are likely to have limited effects on schools' autonomy, they are more likely to undermine school-level educators' trust in central initiatives and policy plans (Nir, 2000a; Nir & Eyal, 2003) and, hence, damage rather than promote the qualities of educational systems.

DETERMINING THE QUALITY OF COMPROMISES

Educational policy plans are usually a meeting point for various expectations and, consequently, may follow different types of compromises. Compromises are the result of ethical considerations and, therefore, their assessment may serve as proxy for planners' ethical perspective. However, the question remains: How can the analysis of policy plans indicate the type of comparisons employed and, planners' ethical considerations? What means and criteria may be employed for this purpose? This is a rather complicated challenge since policy plans are an end product providing little information regarding the exact circumstances educational planners faced at the time planning processes were conducted.

Nevertheless, six major aspects may be used to evaluate the type of compromises employed by educational planners:

Time frame: One key issue is the time frame designated for implementation processes. In many cases, pressures encourage planners to articulate short time perspectives for complicated educational processes. As argued earlier, the urgency attributed to an issue or problem may have a critical influence on the solutions planners are likely to offer: the greater the urgency attributed to a specific issue, the lower the chances educational planners will adequately address its complexity by articulating plans that offer satisfactory and long lasting solutions. This conduct leads to simplification since planners artificially diminish the time frame attributed for implementation processes, just in order to satisfy interests and expectations for quick though partial solutions and have their own pressures temporarily reduced (Nir, 2000b).

Resources: Although it seems obvious that educational plans cannot be implemented unless sufficient resources are allocated, planners often face incongruity between the goals a plan is expected to attain and the resources granted for this purpose. In many instances, large scale change is not accompanied by substantial financial commitment to schools by governments which often expect schools and educational systems to improve through better use of the existing resources rather than provide additional ones (Levin, 1998). Hence, planners may be tempted, or at times forced, to compromise and articulate policy plans while realizing that existing resources may hardly be sufficient. This conduct often follows a misleading notion that after implementation has begun additional resources may be allocated by the government to allow for completion. However, it is obvious that the greater the discrepancy between existing and required resources, the more likely a policy plan will produce a paradoxical solution.

Knowledge skills and qualifications: Since the transition from intentions to outcomes involves implementation processes, a significant aspect that planners should take into account involves the knowledge skills and qualifications of district and school level educators in charge of the implementation. If implementation processes require certain proficiencies that educators lack and/or training processes that are long, complicated and difficult, policy plans are less likely to meet their articulated goals. Such discrepancies decrease the likelihood a policy plan will enable an educational system to progress. Rather, they reflect a paradoxical compromise since the chances of plans meeting their articulated goals are low.

Contextual considerations: Policy planning in education takes place in a political, social, economic and cultural context. Although unique contextual features are often ignored when educational reforms are considered, the significance of the context for organizational behavior constantly gains recognition. Through establishing a frame of reference for individuals who share a given culture (Wentworth, 1980, p. 84), the context creates what may be termed as the "relevancy zone," articulating an arena for human interpretation and behavior (Nir, 2009b). The context presents an agreed-upon version of reality created through individuals' interactions in their social environment and, therefore, serves as a facilitator for human interaction. Hence, the context may be viewed as a membrane that absorbs changes and maintains meaning (ibid.). Its significance is high not only in determining the appropriate qualities for a particular culture and social setting, but also in influencing and adjusting everything that goes through it (Goffman, 1961, p. 33). In this sense, policy planners should look at the extent to which the articulated plans correspond to the features of the context in which they are supposed to be implemented. The degree of discrepancy between the plan qualities and the cultural and social qualities of the context in which it is supposed to be implemented may testify to the type of compromise planners adopted. A large discrepancy will indicate a paradoxical compromise since the chances such a plan will produce substantial results and change are rather low.

The goals-processes relation: An often conducted compromise in planning processes may be found in the discrepancy between the articulated goals and scope of the processes intended to meet them. As indicated earlier, educational goals and objectives tend to be rather complicated. Therefore, attaining them depends on the quality and scope of educational processes. Since educational planners often operate in circumstances characterized by conflicting interests, urgency and pressures, they may be tempted to compromise and assign processes that are weak in terms of their potential to produce substantial outcomes that meet the articulated goals. A compromise leading to a large discrepancy between the quality of processes and the goals these processes are expected to satisfy is misleading since it is not likely to allow for the attainment of goals to an extent that would be considered significant.

Values: Values are the building blocks of policy plans and, therefore, highly influential for the quality and essence of plans. However, educational planners operate in an environment characterized by different and at times contradictory moral and ideological perspectives and, as a result, often lack a solid and agreed upon set of values they can use as reference while planning. In many instances, they need to juggle in search of a compromise that would allow bridging between different value systems. This challenge fosters the need to compromise between professional and political values as well as between values held by various stakeholders striving to restructure the educational system. Educational planners, for this reason, may be tempted to produce policy plans that embody contradictory sets of values. Such conduct makes implementation impossible, paradoxical and misleading and may lead the implementation processes to a dead end.

THE ISRAELI NATIONAL TASK FORCE FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCHOOL AUTONOMY: AN EXAMPLE

The usefulness of compromise analysis may be demonstrated by looking at the policy plan articulated by the Israeli National Task Force for the Advancement of Education. The National Task Force for the Advancement of Education in Israel was appointed by Limor Livnat, Minister of Education, Culture and Sports, with the support of Prime Minister Ariel Sharon and Finance Minister Binyamin Netanyahu. It began its work in October 2003. The Task Force was charged with conducting a comprehensive examination of the Israeli educational system and recommending an inclusive plan for change – pedagogical, structural and organizational – as well as outlining a means of implementing it. Educators from academia and the schools, economic and legal experts, corporate executives, and public figures comprised the Task Force. The Task Force formed 12 professional committees made up of more than 100 professionals, each of which addressed a different major topic. After 15 months of work, the committees submitted their recommendations to the Task Force which compiled an intermediate report. A final

report was published a few months later. The final report presents an analysis of the Israeli educational system, a proposed vision, and a detailed description of the national policy plan with an outline for its implementation (State of Israel, 2005).

The appointment of the National Task Force took place approximately six years after the Ministry of Education began the implementation of a School-Based Management (SBM) policy. This initiative followed past unsuccessful efforts to decentralize the Israeli educational system and increase school autonomy. It is worth mentioning that previous initiatives had little effect on the centralized nature of the Israeli educational system mainly because of the *centralization trap* (Nir, 2006) evident in the contradicting tendencies to delegate authority to schools and, at the same time, to maintain substantial central control in schools (Nir, 2003a; 2003b). The Task Force, even so, decided to embrace the SBM policy along with its guiding assumptions in recognizing the benefits embedded in school empowerment for students, local communities and the educational system as a whole.

Nevertheless, an analysis of the Task Force recommendations concerning school autonomy reveals a number of compromises that follow the inclination to reconcile between these contradicting tendencies. These compromises raise some doubts regarding this policy plan's potential to promote school autonomy and may therefore serve as a proxy for planners' ethical considerations.

First example: The glass ceiling for school empowerment

A basic assumption in the proposed reform is that the status of schools and the national schooling system must be strengthened:

*"...Strengthening the status and autonomy of school - **Maximum** pedagogical, administrative and budgetary autonomy **for the schools**, led by principals as the leaders of the educational activity, will enable the schools to realize their commitment to high-quality educational activity* (Intermediate Report, p. 9).

*"....We highly value significant improvements in the nature and performance of schools and kindergartens and the **significant empowerment** of those who are at the center of the educational activity* (Final Report, p. 14).

*".... **Maximum** pedagogical, administrative, and budgetary **autonomy** for the schools, led by the principals as the leaders of the educational activity, will enable the schools to realize their commitment to high-quality educational activity....the school shall select its employees* (Final Report, p. 15).

Can we conclude based on these statements that policy makers responsible for the articulation of the national reform actually intend to promote school empowerment and hand school level educators full authority for the various processes conducted in their schools? Other messages in the report suggest differently.

One example may be evident in the limited degrees of freedom teachers and school principals are likely to have and their limited ability to shape school goals according to their educational agenda and needs of the local community they serve:

"....The Ministry of Education will set measurable indicators for the entire system and will update them every three years (Intermediate Report, p. 12).

"...The Ministry of Education will determine, with the approval of the National Council for Education, measurable objectives for the entire educational system. These objectives will reflect the priorities and policy of the Ministry of Education. These objectives will be set for a period of five years and will be updated every year. They will serve as the annual objectives for the educational system (Final Report, p. 165).

"...under the new organization, the Ministry of Education will become a body which sets policies, finances, sets standards and ensures that they are carried out (Final Report, p. 28).

Hence, along with the messages emphasizing the significance of school autonomy, other messages stress the central role of the Ministry of Education as the body that determines goals priorities and performance standards.

Other messages reflect the restrictions on school principals' authority:

*"...teachers' work conditions and salaries will be set according to **collective agreements**. Setting special contracts will be allowed only in special cases..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 11; Final Report, p. 23).

*"...School will be granted full flexibility in running its budget **provided its conduct meets the obligatory policy** and assignments set to the school..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 55).

*"...School will have autonomy in using its budget **in the frame of the obligatory policy** set by the Ministry of Education and the regional educational administration..."* (Final Report, p. 78).

*"...**most** of the authority in the areas of pedagogy, budgets and personnel will be transferred to schools..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 10).

*"...Schools and kindergartens are at the center of the educational activity and they are the ones who are responsible for the education in the state. As an expression of trust in their ability and as means for their improvement, **most** of the authority and resources should be transferred to school principals and to school and kindergarten teachers..."* (Final Report, pp. 23; 78).

It is evident that the commitment to transfer **full** authority to the school level stated in the committee's Intermediate Report is moderated. The final report states that **most** authorities will be transferred to schools which will be subjected to various requirements set by the Ministry of Education and the regional educational administration.

Second example: The boundaries of flexibility

Another principle emphasized in the report that is central to school empowerment involves the proximity between decision makers and local circumstances as means to increase the relevancy of decisions to local expectations and needs. This principle is clearly stated in both - the intermediate and the final report:
"...schools need to be empowered....based on evidence coming from many studies showing that granting schools wide authorities allow decision making processes to take into account students' particular needs and promote educational achievements" (Intermediate Report, p. 32; Final Report, p. 53).

Did policy makers involved in the articulation of the final report ensure that school principals are left with sufficient authority, allowing them to design their school's pedagogy based on their professional judgment and local needs? A deeper look at messages that appear both in the intermediate and the final report suggests that this principle is only partially maintained:
"....the school administration has the autonomy to determine the organization of studies and to set the educational and pedagogical modes of operation in accordance with students' needs ***as long as the obligatory policy is kept****, both the national and the local one*…." (Intermediate Report, p. 53).
"....the educational institution is responsible ***to meet the objectives set for it*** *and for the achievements of its students"* (Final Report, pp. 40; 70).

Schools' ability to make decisions that are mostly influenced by students' needs is rather limited since schools are obliged to follow a core curriculum as a means for obtaining their budgets: *"...the school curriculum will be based on the comprehensive national curriculum which includes a core curriculum and other programs allowing deepening and expansion in particular areas that may be selected by schools*…." (Final Report, p. 83).

Moreover, schools may encounter difficulties conducting differential programs inspired by local needs since they are forced to conduct pedagogical and didactical activities that are based on obligatory national standards: *"...****one obligatory standard for all*** *derived from the core curriculum: what every student should know, understand and be able to perform..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 48)*...."****standards for achievements and expected students' skills will be defined*** *according to the core curriculum and according to the entire curriculum for all educational stages...."* (Final Report, p. 22)*...."we are not hesitant* ***to set clear objectives for achievements and accomplishments*** *of the educational system that will be anchored by public standards and used to test the entire educational system and each of its components...."* (Final Report, p. 58).

In fact, the Task Force policy plan grants school principals the freedom to conduct unique educational processes only after they meet the demands set by the obligatory national curriculum: *"...the school principal as the pedagogical leader of his school is responsible together with the entire administrative staff to decide, in collaboration with the school management and pedagogical council, what complementary educational programs will be taught in school in addition to the core curriculum*…" (Final Report, p. 116)*...."Based on the core curriculum the standards and the high demands for achievements, every educational institution should be granted full autonomy to determine its pedagogical and educational perspective..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 36).

It appears that the obligatory curriculum and standards leave school principals the freedom to choose generally the teaching methods, provided that students' achievements are in line with the standards set and determined by the centralized Ministry of Education:*..."it is possible to force the school to follow the educational policy and meet the obligatory standards but it is important to limit intervention as much as possible and allow schools to decide how these objective will be met..."* (Final Report, p. 111).

Although the report stresses the significance of flexibility and schools' ability to make decisions based on local needs, the requirement to act in accordance with an obligatory core curriculum and meet central standards significantly narrows schools' degrees of freedom. Schools are left with a rather limited authority to determine how processes intended to meet these centrally determined objectives will be designed and conducted.

Third example: Unifying the different

One of the main arguments in favor of decentralization and the empowerment of schools is that decentralized systems are better able to address variance and meet the different needs of students and the various expectations of members of the community they serve.

This issue was not overlooked by members of the National Task Force who emphasized the importance to conduct diverse educational processes in a democratic society such as the Israeli one, which continuously absorbs

immigrants and is comprised of groups of different social and cultural backgrounds:*"....Nationalism and pluralism: being a democratic country, the Israeli educational system should give expression to the variety of cultures, ethnic groups and streams comprising the Israeli society…*" (Intermediate Report, p. 34; Final Report, p. 56).

The report further stresses that the educational system is expected to assist in *"...closing the gaps among different parts of the society, lowering the walls between different social groups and promoting solidarity and social cohesiveness among all Israeli citizens… all this should be accomplished without discrimination or obliteration of unique views and perspectives…"* (Intermediate Report, p. 35; Final Report, p. 56).

Yet, along with the messages stressing the importance to maintain the uniqueness of the different social groups comprising the Israeli society, the report also brings other messages which are quite different, raising doubt regarding the ability of public schooling to give expression to the unique and the different:
"...in the entire world, the blessing embedded in liberalism and in educational approaches that are less strict ***has its price which is not a simple one****..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 26; Final Report, p. 47*)...."Israel is a heterogenic society...we estimate that the large number of sectors and streams in education* ***is a central problem*** *for the educational system, being a divisive factor in the social-cultural tissue; it causes the loss of solidarity and partnership in the Israeli society and is a source for a large waste of resources"* (Intermediate Report, p. 28; Final Report, p. 49).

To avoid paying this "not simple" price and the "large waste of resources," the report suggests having a core curriculum: *"...we recommend expanding the core curriculum by adding clear definitions of contents based on educational objectives..."* (Intermediate Report, p. 47)*...."the core curriculum is a consolidating basis for all the different streams in the country and it creates a common denominator for all students both in the conceptions, contents and values and in their thinking and learning skills"* (Final Report, p. 86)*...."clearer definitions of contents that are based on the educational objectives which determine what each graduate of the Israeli educational system must know and understand will be added [to the core curriculum]"* (Final Report, p. 87).

These statements show that paradoxically, in spite of the need to serve students coming from different social and cultural backgrounds, the Task Force articulated a policy plan fostering a core curriculum and unified standards that pays little attention to the unique and the specific.

SUMMARY

In terms of the previously presented criteria, the policy plan set by the National Task Force articulates a set of paradoxical compromises which attempt to find a midpoint between the tendency to promote school level autonomy and, at the same time, to maintain central control over schools. Specifically, it is evident that these compromises attempt to bridge between different value systems, between the tendency to enforce central objectives and the tendency to allow locally initiated processes, and between contextual features of which the centralized nature of the Israeli governing bodies is the most dominant one. However, the tendency to walk between the drops and search for some mid-range mode of operation as a means to avoid potential conflicts seemed to encourage the National Task Force members to articulate a policy plan comprised of a gentle fabric of contradictions and compromises which typically limit development, progression and the realization of the plan's objectives. Consequently, it appears that the committee members' great devotion to their mission on the one hand and their awareness of the issues' complexity on the other hand encouraged them to articulate a set of compromises that unintentionally seem to undermine their initial intentions and ethical considerations. An analysis of the compromises made on each of the six parameters described – time frame, resources, knowledge skills and qualifications, contextual considerations, the goals-processes relation and value system, is useful although not sufficient when attempting to assess planners' ethical conduct.

In realizing that a policy plan is a conglomerate of various considerations and compromises, it is important to acknowledge that each particular compromise may not make a plan counterproductive or dysfunctional. Rather, it is the combination of compromises that may eventually result in a paradoxical and dysfunctional policy plan. Since it is the sum total of compromises that determines the extent to which a plan is paradoxical and dysfunctional, the evaluation of compromises must move from the inductive to the deductive level so that the entire set of compromises can be evaluated simultaneously.

Moreover, in considering that educational planning is often conducted in a context characterized by various and contradictory interests, it is important to acknowledge that the analysis of plans will always be at best a proxy for educational planners' considerations and ethics. This may be better understood in considering that plans offer little information, if any, regarding the circumstances that existed at the time educational planning processes took place. Although an analysis of policy plans does allow assessing the types of compromises performed to some extent, it is impossible to reconstruct the complete scope of circumstances planners faced while planning. Therefore, assessing

the degree to which the compromises made were intended to facilitate the planning process or to enable to best serve the various interests involved is in fact limited. Much depends on planners' idiosyncratic perceptions and professional judgment.

Since educational planning is the art of compromising, the ability to assess externally planners' ethical conduct through the evaluation of compromises is rather limited. In this sense, educational planners' ethical judgment and their ability to maintain a conscious balance among various considerations and expectations while compromising is what makes their professional conduct ethical. Therefore, the professional training of educational planners should not focus solely on professional knowledge and practical skills which planning processes require. Rather, much emphasis needs to be placed on ethical judgment and on individual capacity to cope with pressures. These will allow planners to better cope with circumstances characterized by multiple contradictory interests and pressures, will increase their awareness of the negative implications that follow paradoxical compromises and will increase the chances that articulated plans will be based mainly on progressive compromises rather than on paradoxical ones.

As argued earlier, it is the combination of compromises that may eventually lead to a paradoxical and a dysfunctional policy plan. It is therefore not surprising that more than a decade after this policy plan was official declared, the Israeli educational system still maintains its centralized nature and school autonomy remains relatively limited in spite of the strong governmental support and the intensive coverage this policy plan received from the media.

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Planning For A School Building Renovation

Glen I. Earthman and Carol S. Cash

ABSTRACT

Many school systems in the United States face the prospect of renovating existing buildings rather than constructing new facilities because of budgetary limitations and constraints. The least disruption to the educational process when a building is scheduled for renovation is to move the student body to a vacant building. This option is not available to the vast majority of school systems and the student body must remain in the building while the renovation takes place. Students are moved from space to space in the building as renovation takes place. Obviously the renovation process is a disruption to the educational process. Some research substantiates this assertion (Maxwell, 1996). She found that the student achievement scores dropped during the period of renovation in both the third and sixth grade mathematics and reading scores. The student scores increased when the students returned to newly renovated buildings. There is some recent research, however, that indicates student performance during the renovation process is not as disrupted as previously thought. Mayo (2010), Norman (2014), and Thompson (2014) investigated the influence a renovation had upon student achievement while enrolled in a building during a renovation. They compared student scores during three time periods – pre-renovation, during the renovation and post renovation. All of the researchers found there was no significant difference in student scores during all three phases of the renovation process. Additional research (Wheeler, 2014) suggests that teachers may be doing something to keep student performance at a high level during a disruption of the educational program. In Wheeler's study of teacher reaction to such a disruption, teachers suggested that close collaboration, focusing upon the necessary elements of the curriculum, increased use of technology, and collaboration of faculty to provide resources for alternative activities in the classroom might help keep students on task and perform better. Such activates on the part of the faculty might ease the disruption of a renovation and maintain student progress.

INTRODUCTION

School systems throughout the United States face the need to renovate existing buildings that have reached the age when improvements to the building are needed. The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) estimated that 53% of all school buildings in the country need major repairs, renovation, or modernization (Alexander & Lewis, 2014). This includes the renovation of the major systems of the school building such as HVAC, Lighting, Electrical, and Plumbing systems. Improvements in all of these systems are normally included in a renovation or modernization project.

The NCES also stated that the average number of years since the construction of the main instructional building in the local school system is 44 years (Alexander & Lewis, 2014). This means that many of the school buildings are in that stage of life where major improvements are needed. During the lifetime of these buildings many have not had a major renovation, which makes these buildings more of a concern to educators.

Even as school buildings age, the buildings apparently serve a vibrant community containing a significant student population. Thus these schools are needed in the community to accommodate the student population. The alternative of constructing new facilities or finding different educational spaces is apparently not open to school authorities.

In addition, the condition of these school buildings is such that they need some sort of renovation or modernization. A school building that is of this age would most certainly be a prime example of a building in need of major improvement. Aging schools normally do not contain the building elements necessary for a proper learning physical environment to serve today's students (Earthman, 2013). Or if they do have such elements they are in need of modernization to bring these elements up to current standards.

The financial burden of improving schools that are in need of renovation or modernization is estimated to be approximately $197 billion dollars (Alexander & Lewis, 2014). This amount is calculated in 2013 dollars. By the time such improvements could be planned, designed, and constructed, the amount could be much larger than the original estimate.

Local and state budgetary constraints and debt limits have curtailed the construction of new facilities in many localities. These constraints and the aging of existing buildings create problems in housing students in adequate facilities. In response to these needs, local school systems have engaged in more renovation projects in the last few decades than in previous periods of time (Abrahamson, 2014).

The ideal situation during a renovation project for an existing building would be to move the student population to a different building that is vacant. Moving the students would provide for the least disruption of the learning process and the least exposure of students to the hazards of construction (Earthman & Draeger, 2001). Many

times, however, the renovation process must take place when students are still housed in the existing facilities because there is no vacant place to put students while the building is being renovated. Thus, students are subjected to the disturbances of not only movement, but of noise, dust and in some cases un-wanted interaction with construction workers. The renovation process thus creates a considerable disturbance to both the educational program and the learning process in which students engage.

In most situations students must still occupy the building while a major renovation of a school building proceeds. This means that student classes are moved, perhaps more than once to parts of the building that are not being renovated or where renovation has been completed. This necessitates the movement of students throughout the building to vacate spaces so that workers can proceed with the renovation. Such movement of large sections of students serves to disrupt the educational process. The constant shift of students creates a less than desirable learning environment (Earthman & Draeger, 2001).

RESEARCH ON RENOVATIONS

The renovation process does have an influence upon the student body of the school, but in what manner does the renovation process influence students? The question then becomes whether or not the renovation process has an influence upon student performance. The research dealing with the process of renovating school buildings is very limited. What few studies that are known deal with the relationship between a renovated school building and student achievement. The most cited work to date was completed by Maxwell in the state of New York (1996). More recently three studies dealing with the possible influence a renovation process has upon student achievement were completed. The first of these studies was completed by Mayo in 2012 in middle schools of Virginia. This study was followed by two replications of his study. One was completed in the elementary schools (Norman, 2014) and the final study was on the high school level (Thompson, 2014). It is unusual to find studies that are closely related that expand the level of knowledge to the three nominal levels of education in this country. Therefore, it seems very appropriate to examine the findings of these studies, especially when the findings of the three studies are basically the same. This kind of replication adds considerably to the knowledge base concerning the possible influence school buildings have upon the users of the buildings.

A major concern of educators is how much disturbance the renovation process will have on the learning of students and what can be employed to minimize any interruption in learning. Research has been conducted to provide some insight to educators regarding the influence the renovation process will have upon student learning. There is some early research that suggests that the renovation disruption might diminish student learning during the renovation process (Maxwell, 1996).

Maxwell investigated the possible influence the renovation process might have upon student learning (1996). She completed a case study of three elementary schools in the Syracuse Public Schools to determine the influence a renovation project might have on student achievement scores while the students are in the building being renovated. During the period of the renovation, student scores in mathematics and reading dropped, but returned to previous levels upon completion of the renovation. The decrease in student scores was not statistically significant, but there was a clear trend in the direction of decreasing student scores. This led her to surmise that "Subjecting students and teachers to the noise and confusion of a building undergoing major renovation may result in decreased student academic performance."(p. 9)

Recent Research

Recent research seems to indicate that student learning may not diminish during the renovation process (Mayo, 2012 Norman, 2014; Thompson, 2014). These researchers investigated the possibility that an interrupted physical environment might have a negative influence upon student learning. In these studies student performance on standardized academic tests during the pre-renovation, the renovation, and post-renovation periods was used to determine influence. In all three studies, the researcher did not find a significant difference in student scores during the three periods of assessment when compared to the state average student scores.

Mayo (2010) investigated this relationship with students in the middle schools of Virginia. He identified 10 school buildings that had a complete renovation of the four major building systems – Thermal control, Lighting, Acoustical control, and Plumbing (p. 46). He used the student scores in reading and mathematics as dependent variables to represent achievement. Mayo had to use the student scores of different student populations over the years of the renovation process in order to have a measure during the three periods of the renovation. To control for the possibility of a different population for each of the phases of the renovation, he compared the percent of minority students and the percentage of low income students in each of the various student populations. In addition, he controlled for the quality of teaching staff in the school over the period of time by comparing the percentage of highly qualified teachers in each school (p. 70). He found that the three demographic variables did not significantly differ over the years of the

renovation. He then assumed that the various student populations occupying the school during the renovation were similar and felt confident in comparing the means of student scores over the period of the renovation (p.70).

Mayo (2010) used a 1 X 3 ANOVA to determine if a significant difference in student scores existed over the period of the renovation. He compared the student scores in reading and mathematics over the pre-renovation, the renovation, and post-renovation periods and could not find a significant difference in the scores at the .05 level of confidence (p. 70). He further compared the scores of the students in the 10 renovated school buildings to the state means of scores during the period of time of the renovation. This was done to determine if there was a variance between the relationship of the school student scores and the average of the state student scores. He found no significant difference between the school and state student scores indicating a constant relationship over the renovation period (p.73).

Mayo (2010) concluded that there was no significant difference between student achievement scores when compared over the three periods of a renovation process. However, he also stated that a statistical difference was found in the student scores in reading between the pre-renovation period and the post-renovation period indicating that students in the newly renovated school performed better than before the renovation.

Elementary School Research

Norman (2014) replicated the Mayo study with students on the elementary school level with 15 school buildings that had a complete renovation. She used the same three demographic variables that Mayo used to determine if the composition of the different classes was basically the same. She found no differences in the percentage of minority students, low-income students, or the quality of the teaching faculty. The assumption was made that while her student populations were different, they were demographically similar. She used the same statistical analysis that Mayo used to determine if there was a difference in student scores in reading and mathematics over the period of the renovation of the building (p. 57). An ANOVA was used to determine if there was any difference. She could not find any difference in student scores at the .05 level of confidence. These findings were similar to those that Mayo (2010) found and reported.

When Norman compared the student scores involved in the renovation to the mean scores of students on the statewide level, she did not find any statistical difference. The relationship between student scores and the state means of student scores did not vary over the period of the renovation indicating a comparative stability.

One interesting finding that Norman (2014) expressed had to do with the difference in pre-renovation and post-renovation scores in mathematics and reading. She observed that when comparing the pre and post renovation scores in mathematics there was a 5.17% increase in student scores, whereas there was a decrease of 5.73% in the reading scores (p.73). She stated that perhaps there were other variables involved that could account for this difference in student scores. She observed that, "…other variables dealing with the specific instruction of mathematics content were involved. Variables such as the use of research based instructional strategies, backwards planning, and quality lesson design, and the nurturing environment of school."(p. 73) She suggested that these practices might help to explain this difference.

High School Research

Thompson (2014) completed a replication of the Mayo study on the high school level. He used the 11th grade student scores in Algebra I and reading as measures of student achievement. He also used the same demographic variables of percentage of minorities, percentage of low-income students and the quality of the teaching faculty to compare the student population composition. In the case of the demographic variables, he found no significant difference in the composition of the various student populations during the renovation process indicating that the composition of the various student populations remained the same over the renovation process.

Thompson used an ANOVA to compare student Algebra I and reading scores during the three stages of a renovation. He found no statistical difference in student scores, indicating that student scores remained stable during the three renovation process. This would suggest that the disruption of a renovation process while students were in the building would not influence student achievement. He also compared the student scores to the statewide means of student scores to determine if there was any difference in the relationship between the two scores. He found that there was no significant difference in relationship over the period of the renovation. These findings confirmed what Mayo 1996) and Norman (2014) found in their analyses.

Thompson (2014) reported an increase in the student scores in the Algebra I assessment in the post-renovation phase compared to the student scores in the pre-renovation assessment. This increase amounted to 8.35 points. This is reflective of what Norman found in her comparison of mathematics student scores and lends credence to the suggestion that teachers might have employed improved teaching strategies in mathematics and Algebra I that resulted in improved student performance.

The findings of these three studies seem to indicate that the renovation process may not have as much of an influence upon student achievement as Maxwell (1996) had suggested in her findings. The disruption of the daily schedule in the school may not be as pervasive as previously thought. The findings of these studies conducted on all levels of education are compelling evidence that students and teachers are able to successfully survive the unpleasantness of a renovation process.

Mediating A Renovation

Such findings as reported in these studies help school authorities in planning for a renovation. The research informs authorities that the renovation process might not have the negative influence upon student learning that has been perceived. Further there is some research that indicates what teachers can do to minimize the influence a different and disturbing environment might have upon student learning (Wheeler, 2014).

Wheeler (2014) investigated the disruption of the learning environment when moving students from a modern school building into an antiquated school facility. A middle school student body was moved from a modern middle school building to an outdated high school building to accommodate a displaced high school student body. For three years, the middle school population was housed in a school building that had been vacated several years previously because it was deemed inadequate to support a modern high school program. During that time, students were taught in classrooms and laboratories that were over 50 years old and were designed for a high school program of that time rather than a modern middle school program.

It might be expected that the student achievement assessment outcomes should have decreased during that period of time that students were housed in inadequate learning spaces. Such was not the case. The students in the middle school performed just as well on standard assessments as they had performed before the move and also after they were returned to the modern middle school building. Acknowledging this student phenomenon of maintained performance in adverse building conditions, Wheeler investigated the possibility that perhaps the faculty might have employed different or new teaching strategies to produce the student outcome.

He developed a survey instrument designed to query the teaching faculty about their classroom activities during the three year period in the inadequate facilities. The instrument generated both quantitative and qualitative data to permit the teachers to express themselves about their activities. Wheeler asked the teachers to enumerate their activities relating to classroom instruction and any out of classroom activities in which they participated that were different from previous years while in a modern facility.

Although a disruption of this sort does not emulate a renovation process, it does resemble the type of displacement students experience in a renovation process. Student felt the same type of displacement in both situations. In all of the research studies included here there was a problem of adequate space, but in the renovations students and teachers have to contend with the constant noise of construction. Disrupting noise in the classroom is very detrimental to student learning. Nevertheless, the findings of the Wheeler (2014) study do give educators some remedies that can be used to modify the influence a renovation might have upon student learning. Wheeler found that the faculty can do some things that will help student go through a disruption in the educational program.

Other Research Findings

Wheeler (2014) found that teachers expressed themselves as being able to stress a cooperative spirit among faculty members, students, administrators, and community members. The spirit of cooperation was found throughout the faculty members and they felt that everyone wanted to cooperate with them and to help them. This seemed to unite the faculty in a willingness to overcome any difficulties they might face. A cooperative spirit also permeated the student body. The principal even reported a decline in disciplinary incidents over the three year period. This same spirit of cooperation and collaboration might well have been in place during the renovations investigated in previous studies.

The faculty reported that throughout the years they concentrated on the essential parts of the curriculum and provided for individualized instruction of students to insure student satisfactory progress. The teachers apparently realized that they would have to overcome some inadequate measures such as limited physical space, limited instructional space because of bussing students in and out of a different community, and out-of-date classroom amenities. They stated that by concentrating on the essential elements of the curriculum and giving individual instruction where needed, they would best serve the students' needs. Teachers also commented that more technology was available to them, and that they utilized that technology better while in adverse facilities.

Wheeler (2014) reported five major findings from the survey instrument that perhaps helped the students to succeed in their academic progress over the years. The first was that instructional content was condensed, focusing on the necessary content related to the Standards of Learning assessment of the state. Second, teachers were able to put technology to better use than before, and that seemed to assist students in their studies. Teachers reported a closer collaboration among the faculty during the time in the old building than in previous years. The teachers reported that the

more cooperative spirit among the faculty helped them greatly. Teachers seemed to feel that everyone was cooperating with them, especially the central administration personnel and the members of the community. This resulted in a greater sense of community among all segments of the school population.

The overall finding in Wheeler (2014) was that an increased effort on the part of the teachers to design lessons that concentrated on the necessary components of the curriculum and a modification of classroom activities as a result of limited space helped the students maintain a high level of performance. In addition, the availability and use of additional technology enabled the teachers to keep students on task and achieve better on statewide assessments (p. 69). These are most certainly sound prescriptions that teachers can put to use to perform more effectively and for students to improve their learning, especially under adverse building conditions such as the renovation of a school building.

DISCUSSION

Although Mayo (2012), Norman (2014), and Thompson (2014) did not find that the renovation process impaired student test results, one should not assume that the renovation process does not have any influence upon students and teachers. The process of renovation of a school building does have an influence upon students and teachers in several different ways that these researchers did not attempt to take into consideration. The work of these researchers endeavored to examine how the process of a complete renovation influenced student achievement, and the only way that this could be done was by examining the test scores of several student bodies. In their studies these researchers controlled for possible changes in the student population to endeavor to seek a comparable student population. In each of these comparisons of student scores to state student scores, there was no significant difference for each student population. This indicated that the renovation process did not have as much influence as it was thought to have. In essence the renovation process and all that entails does not seem to have as much influence upon student scores as assumed. Perhaps examination of a student body that undergoes a renovation process for several years, which is not uncommon, might produce different results.

While teachers through extraordinary efforts might help ameliorate the difficulties of a renovation process, they are not capable of completely reversing the unsettling results of a major building change on student achievement. One might assume from Wheeler's work (2014) that teachers can make up the difference poor building conditions effect upon students, but this would be a wrong assumption. Moving a student body into an old building after being in a modern building is different than being housed in a school building during a renovation.

Repeated research has demonstrated that poor building conditions have a negative influence upon student achievement (Edwards, 1992; Cash, 1993: Earthman, Cash, & Van Berkum, 1995: Hines, 1996; Lanham, 1999; .Crook, 2000; Bullock, 2007; O'Sullivan, 2006; Fuselier, 2008). A renovation process is different than a building in poor condition. Each of the researchers cited above explicitly state the difference between the two in their studies. A renovation is a process that can be observed, and perhaps its influence upon users of the building can be measured. A school building in poor condition is quite another matter, and the influence poor building conditions have upon student performance is well documented. The Mayo (2012), Norman (2014), and Thompson (2014) studies measured the influence the renovation process had upon successive student populations.

CONCLUSION

Renovation of a school building while students occupy the structure presents problems for school authorities. Students are subject to the disruption of the educational program and the noise and confusion of the actual construction process. In addition, there is always the possibility of physical danger to students. School authorities must plan carefully for a renovation to reduce these possibilities as much as possible. There is also the disruption of moving students from one part of the building to another to accommodate construction work. This leads to a possible disruption of the learning process or at least compromises in how students learn.

Equipped with the knowledge that the renovation process might not have as much of an adverse influence upon students as previously thought, plus the knowledge that the faculty can do much to ease the stress and disruption of the renovation process, school authorities can plan a renovation of an existing building with confidence that potentially adverse effects on student learning can be ameliorated with effective planning and teacher performance.

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Planning Classroom Design and Layout to Increase Pedagogical Options for Secondary Teachers

Angel Ford

ABSTRACT

The places where high school teachers teach have a relationship with what and how their students learn. Certain aspects of the physical environment have been examined for decades, such as those that affect basic physiological needs including but not limited to climate control, air quality, appropriate lighting, and cleanliness. In addition to these needs, it is important to examine learning spaces in light of the changing pedagogies that teachers are being encouraged to employ with this current generation of students. Pedagogies are continually being added to and adapted; however, improvements in the physical environment are not always considered components of these curriculum adjustments. Without the proper facilities, teachers are limited in the pedagogical techniques they can utilize. As teachers are being required to differentiate teaching strategies, they need to be provided with the appropriate resources, including the most effective physical environments and classroom layouts and the training to use those spaces effectively. Continued studies are necessary to elucidate evidence for those aspects of the physical learning environment that are most effective for aiding in 21st century learning.

INTRODUCTION

Research continues on what teaching methods are most effective and what the condition of the physical learning spaces have on the occupants. Research focused on both effective pedagogies and operational learning spaces could increase the likelihood of student success. This paper will look at the needs of 21st century learners and the changing teaching techniques being promoted to address those needs. The focus will then turn to the benefits of considering the learning spaces in conjunction with the needs of the students and the pedagogies that could be most beneficial to them.

Educational spaces are increasingly deemed as important to academic success (Cleveland & Fisher, 2014). Evidence shows that educational building conditions affect student and teacher performance and behavior (Cash, 1993; Earthman & Lemasters, 2011; Lemasters, 1997; Uline, Wolsey, Tschannen-Moran, & Lin, 2010). Such evidence supports Maslow's (1943) theory of motivation, in that, until certain conditions and physiological needs are met the impulse to learn becomes of secondary importance. A study from Finland demonstrates that even students recognize these basic needs must be taken care of before they can focus on learning (Makela, Kankaaranta, & Helfenstein, 2014). Even though such studies that examine the fundamental needs of school occupants may continue to contribute to the literature, studies that investigate specific features of learning environments that support modern pedagogical techniques could fill a gap that currently exists. The value of including available educational facilities in curriculum considerations raises awareness of how classroom design encourages or inhibits teachers' choices and abilities to utilize a variety of pedagogies.

The changes in pedagogies are critical because secondary students, sometimes referred to as *millennials,* are no longer learning effectively from simply reading materials and receiving lectures (Elmore, 2010). Teacher-centric lessons are being phased out and classrooms designed for such teaching strategies no longer provide the best learning environments. Put another way, as teachers are encouraged to update pedagogies to be more student-centric, classrooms need to be adapted to allow for such changes.

Studies that examine teaching techniques other than the traditional teacher-centric methodologies have provided evidence that students can, at times, demonstrate significant improvements in their academic success when being taught by a variety of methods (Caballero et al., 2014). Studies that investigate the effective pedagogies as well as relevant physical environments for those pedagogies, can help teachers inform their choices of instructional methods. Evidence-based planning of pedagogies and physical environments may allow for a higher level of academic success.

Educators base curriculum development on many factors, one of which is the classroom space available (Parkay, Anctil, & Hass, 2010). Many teachers attempt to adapt their teaching methods without the ability to change their physical classroom environments and layouts. This inability to modify the physical learning space is a constraint to curriculum design and pedagogical choices (Cleveland & Fisher, 2013). Teachers in a study by Fuller et al., (2009)

affirmed that new school buildings with "novel condition(s)… invite pedagogical innovation" (p. 344). When strategies are employed to utilize, construct, or renovate schools for 21st century teaching and learning, teachers are empowered to expand their toolbox of teaching techniques as a result of more flexible spaces.

A valid concern raised by educational stakeholders when deliberating changes to school learning environments is that school facility improvement projects can have high costs. Much unnecessary spending could be prevented with the identification of best practices and low-cost yet highly effective options (Cleveland & Fisher, 2013). When looking at the usefulness of school innovations, debate abounds on how to evaluate the school buildings, specifically those facility aspects related to 21st century teaching and learning (Cleveland & Fisher, 2013). Cleveland and Fisher (2013) stated, "(A)pproaches to evaluations that attempt to assess the effectiveness of physical learning environments in supporting pedagogical activities are in their infancy and require further development" (p. 24). The creation of a systematic approach to identify and evaluate best practices in this area would help prevent unnecessary building renovations or construction costs for changes that may not hold much advantage to increased pedagogical advancements and student achievement.

The continued approach of maintaining traditional teacher-centric classroom settings allows the learning spaces to "dictate" what pedagogies the teacher can use (Pearlman, 2010). The request or even the requirement of teachers to use new pedagogies without changing the physical environment to actually enable them to effectively employ these same pedagogies could be frustrating at best, at worst could influence teachers to leave the profession. Fuller et al., (2009) suggested that research should "(T)ease apart which elements of a new or renovated school prove to be most motivating" (p. 346). Teachers with enhanced classroom spaces could feel more motivated and empowered in their roles.

STUDIES ON SCHOOL FACILITIES

Numerous Studies have provided overwhelming evidence that the physical environment affects teaching and learning (Cash, 1993; Earthman & Lemasters, 2011; Lemasters, 1997; Uline, Wolsey, Tschannen-Moran, & Lin, 2010). The following history represents only a sampling of studies available. In the early 1990s, Cash (1993) introduced a theoretical model of how the physical building comes to be in the current condition and how the building affects students' academic achievement and behavior. Cash (1993) stated, "A student may assume the faculty and staff of a poorly maintained building will accept or expect a lower standard of behavior and a lesser effort in academic achievement" (p. 1). Cash (1993) also developed the Commonwealth Assessment of Physical Environment (CAPE), which has been used in a number of studies where assessments of the conditions of school facilities were employed. Cash (1993), suggested that a minimum seven elements need to be considered when examining the effects of school buildings on students: lighting, acoustics, climate control, color, building age, density, and aesthetics.

Lemasters (1997), completed a systematic synthesis of studies pertaining to color, maintenance, age, classroom structure, climate control, density, noise, and lighting in educational facilities. Lemasters (1997) examined how different studies had discovered relationships between these building elements and student achievement and behavior. In 2006, Earthman created an instrument, My Classroom Appraisal Protocol © (MCAP), that measures teachers' perceived attitudes about their physical working conditions. A study utilizing the MCAP provided evidence that the physical work environment of teachers does appear to have an effect on their attitudes (Earthman & Lemasters, 2009). Leigh (2012) used the MCAP and the CAPE for a study that found elementary teachers' attitudes correlated with the condition of the school building. Earthman and Lemasters (2011) went on to establish a theoretical framework to consistently examine the condition of schools and effects of school conditions on both teachers and students.

Tanner (2008) found statistically significant relationships between student outcomes and the design of school buildings. He suggested that future research be conducted to look deeper into the particular aspects of school designs that affect student achievement. He also acknowledged these types of studies might be expensive and time-consuming; nevertheless, he expressed that such studies would be meaningful and helpful to each generation of students. Uline et al., (2011) suggested a relationship exists between schools with disorder and neglect and a climate where students feel social disorder and even fear. Uline et al., (2011) also found evidence to suggest physical school buildings can have an influence on teachers' choices to work or not to work in certain schools.

Tanner and West (2011) conducted a study on the effect of school size on academic outcomes. Overall, the results did not show a statistical difference in the academic success of the students based on school size alone; yet, Tanner and West suggested measuring with other indicators outside of academic success, such as absenteeism and

involvement in extra-curricular activities, to get a clearer picture of overall effects. Another suggestion was to investigate the effects of overcrowding in schools as opposed to school size (Tanner & West, 2011).

These studies show evidence that the physical school building has effects on students and teachers. However, further research is needed that will identify the most effective building elements or features for 21st century teaching techniques. Such studies will be valuable for stakeholders and decision makers when they consider school building design, planning, and funding. Effective school building improvements could motivate teachers and students and ultimately increase academic achievement.

NEEDS OF STUDENTS

A few key ways that this current generation of students learn is through interaction, collaboration, increased autonomy, and technology (Elmore, 2010). Evidence shows that they learn best if they experience something, rather than just listening to lecture (Elmore, 2010). Active ways of learning are not easily fostered in traditional classrooms with four or five rows of desks and a chalkboard in front where the teacher spends the majority of the time lecturing. In general, pupils are not as motivated to learn if they are asked to sit still at a desk and listen to direct instruction (Elmore, 2010). Lemley, Schumacher, and Vesey (2014) stated, "The attention spans of 21st century students are shorter than previous generations of students, they multitask more, and they are accustomed to having 24-hour access to information" (p. 105). Students are more motivated if they can use technology, discuss ideas and concepts openly in their classrooms and, at times, work with their peers (Elmore, 2010).

Contemporary students are very relational and team-oriented and benefit from group learning (Elmore, 2010; Rickes, 2009). They are also more likely to explore critical thinking skills if they are in an environment where they feel comfortable, and where they believe the teacher is open to innovative or creative ideas (Mathews & Lowe, 2011). Such environments promote relationships and autonomy, which help to increase academic success.

Twenty-first century teens use technology in almost every aspect of their lives and most of them know more about technology than many of their teachers and parents (Elmore, 2010). Pearlman (2010) stated, "At home they are likely to be equipped with computers, Internet access, iPods, and smartphones. At school, they typically sit at small desks, push a pencil or pen, and do worksheets" (p. 119). Another way to look at this phenomenon is that students no longer rely on teachers to give them information; rather, they obtain it for themselves via the Internet (Elmore, 2010). Teachers will be most effective if they adjust some of their classroom strategies when including technology in the classroom, such as becoming more of a facilitator, and placing more of the responsibility for learning on the students (Martinez & Schilling, 2010).

The proliferation of technology use in the day to day lives of students can cause traditional classroom activities to be less interesting. Rickes (2009) stated, "Technology and pedagogy are converging. Given their comfort level with technology and penchant for team-oriented behavior, millennials are substantively changing instructional space—as well as the very nature of instruction" (Rickes, 2009, p. 12). Capitalizing on their natural affinity for technology, students need to be taught how to use technology for business and industry, not just for entertainment (Kumar, 2013).

Students learn best through active learning and in environments that promote relationship building, teamwork, and give them a sense of autonomy. They also learn well through the use of technology since they are more comfortable using it than any generation has ever been. The pedagogies and learning spaces play a critical role in either meeting or not meeting the needs of millennials.

CHANGING PEDAGOGY TO MEET THE NEEDS OF 21st CENTURY LEARNERS

After exploring the needs of current pupils, the next step is to consider the different types of pedagogies necessary to meet those styles and needs. Nevid and Jaramillo (2011) stated, "(R)eaching and teaching millennial students challenges us to adapt our methods to the learning needs of students today. By interacting more with our students and lecturing less, we can create a more dynamic learning environment to help our students become more effective learners" (p. 56). High school educators cannot continue to teach as they always have and expect their students will continue to be engaged and successful. Kumar (2013) stated, "Textbook-driven, content driven, and focused teacher centered, paper and pencil education needs to be discarded" (p. 2).

One example of a pedagogy that is currently being promoted is that of Project-Based Learning (PBL). Bell (2010) stated, "PBL is a student-driven, teacher-facilitated approach to learning" (p. 39). Students solve "real world problems" using a variety of learning techniques (Bell, 2010, p. 39). PBL prepares students for activities they will encounter throughout their lives. Not all of the skills students glean can be assessed through standardized tests; nevertheless, studies have provided evidence that students being taught through PBL are scoring higher on such tests than those students being taught through a lecture-based curriculum (Bell, 2010). Students using PBL are also more

motivated (Bell, 2010). Students who are more motivated are more likely to remain engaged in lessons. A teacher-centric approach can result in passive learning; however, PBL engages students in active learning, affording them skills much needed in the 21st century (Bell, 2010). Technology is an important part of PBL, and therefore guiding students to use it appropriately—within parameters and safety guidelines—is an important task of teacher-facilitators (Bell, 2010).

The "Flipped Classroom" is another teaching strategy that may improve learning (Roehl, Reddy, & Shannon, 2013). Flipping a classroom means that class time is used for active learning and the students do the passive learning outside of class, such as reading or watching videos of their assignments (Roehl et al., 2013). Students' attention can be caught through the strategy of flipping the curriculum (Roehl et al., 2013). Active learning is accomplished through pedagogies that focus on keeping the students active and engaged and through requiring the students to take ownership of their own learning (Roehl et al., 2013).

Teaching and learning should look different in 21st century schools. Rather than traditional teacher-centric instruction there should be, "students writing journals online, doing research on the Internet, meeting in groups to plan and make their websites and their digital media presentations, and evaluating their peers for collaboration and presentation skills." (Pearlman, 2010, p. 123). When discussing modern educators, Pearlman (2010) suggested that once they accept the effectiveness of changing their teaching methods they will quickly desire changes in the physical learning spaces.

CHANGES IN THE PHYSICAL CLASSROOM

The next logical step is to ponder learning spaces that will be the most accommodating (Lemley et al., 2014). Rickes (2009) stated, "Instructors are interested in shifting seamlessly from a didactic approach to a hands-on demonstration, all in the course of the same class—and same space. This type of hybrid teaching space requires a considerable increase in square footage, sending space planning guidelines into a tailspin" (p. 13). Learning spaces need to be changed, yet, with best practices established, the "tailspin" may be avoided through a systematic list of improvements or changes. Many classroom layouts and designs have remained constant since the Middle Ages (Park & Choi, 2014). Unfortunately, this is the case even though evidence has demonstrated other layouts may be more effective in increasing classroom engagement and interactions (Park & Choi, 2014). The contemplation of the physical environment in conjunction with the curriculum design is not a new concept. Fuller et al., (2009) reminds us that John Dewey saw decisions about curriculum closely intermingled with the physical design of the available learning spaces.

Evidence shows that 21st century learners benefit from changes in pedagogy, and it is increasingly becoming clear that certain approaches to pedagogy, such as those needed for PBL, flipped classrooms and other types of active learning are difficult within the constraints of traditional classroom environments (Duncanson, 2014). When classrooms are not conducive to forms of active instruction, teachers resort to lecture-based teaching and avoid the more active techniques. It will not be effective to encourage or require high school teachers to utilize new pedagogies without also supplying them with appropriate learning environments to do so successfully. Learning spaces should be seen as features of curriculum and instruction and adjustments should be made in the design process of these spaces (Kumar, 2013).

Rickes (2009) stated, "Because Millennials prefer to learn and work in teams, small group rooms are needed that can be used as a breakout space during class or for study and project work after class has ended" (p. 12). A traditional classroom setting can at times be adapted for students to work in groups, though, more optimal arrangements can be created to accommodate student collaboration as a beneficial instructional technique. Active learning classrooms need to be flexible and allow for group work and many different activities at the same time (Roehl et al., 2013). Evidence shows that flexible classroom spaces help teachers utilize a number of pedagogies and modalities of learning (Duncanson, 2014; Fuller et al., 2009). Flexible learning spaces with increased opportunities for social interactions are an important element of a learning environment that encourages students to relate to others and also have a sense of autonomy (Lemley et al., 2014). Planning for learning spaces should be based on evidence from rigorous studies about the effects of facilities, for example, the strong evidence that flexible learning spaces have a positive effect on learning.

One avenue to increase classroom flexibility is to expand classroom space. Simply having enough spaces allows for teachers to diversify their teaching methods (Duncanson, 2014). Duncanson (2014) stated, "The lack of large spaces for student work forces the teacher to schedule all events in a one-size-fits-all modality" (p. 31). The effort of getting rid of clutter in classrooms can create more floor space and make the space more conducive to learning (Duncanson, 2014). Administration can encourage decluttering by offering training on effective use of classroom space and by providing teachers with places outside of classrooms for storage of necessary items (Duncanson, 2014; Fuller et al., 2009). Providing teachers with more space can improve the teaching and learning environment. Millennial students benefit from being able to move around and work in groups, both groups within classrooms and groups between

classrooms. Simply moving desks around may not be the best answer; and neither will the construction of new state-of-the-art buildings and/or classrooms if teachers are not trained how to utilize these spaces. Not only do the learning spaces need to be adapted, teachers also need training on how to best arrange their classrooms and utilize these arrangements effectively (Mercier, Higgins, & Joyce-Gibbons, 2014).

New designs that allow for more peer interaction and move away from a teacher-centric layout can be challenging to teachers (Mercier et al., 2014). These new layouts can encourage off-task behaviors. Pearlman (2010) discussed an updated classroom that "is populated by work tables and rolling chairs, not individual students' desks" (p. 124). Not all teachers are immediately comfortable with these changes and may need additional support or training to be effective in these environments (Mercier et al., 2014). Along with encouraging teachers to use varied active-learning pedagogies and providing new classroom designs, teachers will need to be equipped with updated classroom management techniques. Teachers that feel supported, prepared, and empowered may more effectively use the pedagogies necessary for the academic success of their students.

Another important aspect of learning spaces is the inclusion of technology. Parkay et al., (2010) stated, "Curriculum decisions are now influenced by technology in ways unimaginable fifty years ago, and the next fifty years promise changes equally dramatic" (p. 310). Parkay et al., (2010) went on to state that technology is changing how much and how fast students can obtain and utilize information and this change should govern the setup and the design of classrooms. The increase in the use of technology requires that teachers are able to move freely around the room to help the students harness the overwhelming amount of information available (Elmore, 2010; Lemley et al., 2014). Teachers helping students with technology may require one-on-one work, or small group work where the teacher guides step-by-step through the process. Appropriate monitoring can only occur in a classroom that is conducive to the teacher moving around and among the students. Simply put, active learning and use of technology within the classroom require changes in classroom layouts (Pearlman, 2010).

ADAPTING CLASSROOM DESIGN AND LAYOUT

Administrators may or may not have the ability to change the structural or built layout of the learning spaces within their buildings; however, most could allow and even encourage teachers within utilizing these spaces to experiment with classroom decorations, and layouts that have been found to be effective with a variety of pedagogies (Cheryan, Ziegler, Plaut, & Meltrzoff, 2014). Since millennials have a desire to trust those in authority such as teachers, creating an atmosphere in the classroom that encourages open communication can be an important aspect of encouraging such interactions. The physical environment can affect the atmosphere and has been referred to as the symbolic environment (Cheryan et al., 2014). Creating a warm, inviting, atmosphere within the classroom may take an investment of time and even some resources or funding; however, the changes could be accomplished on a teacher workday and on an established budget. Some of the changes in décor, such as painting the walls in a color other than white (Grube, 2014; Tanner, 2015), or decorating the walls with posters that are encouraging to both genders and all nationalities (Cheryan et al., 2014) have been found to have a positive effect on the learning environment and require only a small investment of time and money.

The layout, which also affects the atmosphere, can be more complicated to change depending on the space available, the furniture available, and the number of students that needed to utilize the space. Two classrooms of similar size may have to accommodate class sizes that differ by ten students or more. All efforts should be made to keep the number of students per classroom as low as possible for a variety of reasons including the idea that the ability for teachers and students to move around has been shown to increase comfort and student success (Tanner, 2015).

As stated earlier, simply increasing the open space available could be beneficial. This may take creativity and the removal of items from the rooms; however, the effort could pay off in a learning space more conducive to learning in the 21st century. Administrators could encourage teachers to remove all unnecessary furniture such as bookshelves that could be moved to storage, or multiple filing cabinets that could be combined. Not every teacher may readily possess the skills needed to open up floor space; however, could be aided by a peer, administrative leadership, or professional development.

The traditional classroom, as shown in figure 1, does not allow for easy movement and only allows for limited peer interaction. Educators that are trying to incorporate more active learning pedagogies will do well to avoid such a layout (Park & Choi, 2014). Traditional classroom layouts have areas, such as those near the front and center, that are more conducive to teacher student interaction and have been shown to produce higher academic achievement (Park & Choi, 2014).

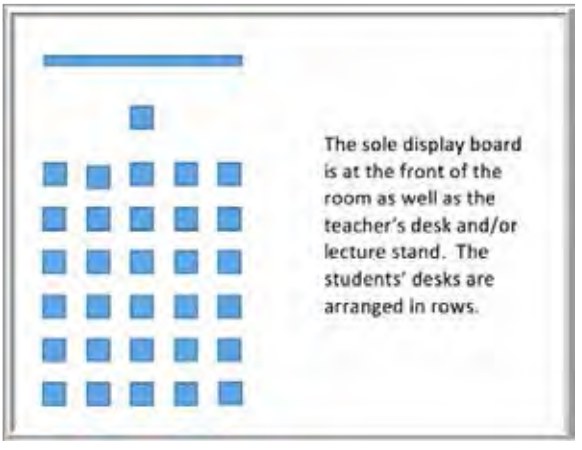

Figure 1. Traditional classroom layout. A display board is placed in the front of the room, a teacher desk is placed near the front and the student desks are arranged in rows facing the front.

Active learning classrooms or ALCs, such as those displayed in figure 2 and 3, do not have predefined areas that are inequitably positioned (Park & Choi, 2104). ALCs increase teachers' interactions with all of their students, not just those sitting in the front few rows. Teachers can easily move around the room and visit different tables throughout lessons and individual or group work. College students learning in classroom layouts intentionally set up for active learning have shown increased academic achievement as well as increased interactions between students and more creative ideas (Park & Choi, 2014).

Classrooms set up for active learning are more conducive to group discussions and small group work. They also open up the pedagogical options for teachers to have different students working on different types of tasks at the same time. Different activities and learning can be taking place at each table. These types of layouts can encourage Project-Based-Learning (PBL), which is one teaching technique that is highly effective with millennials. If technology can feasibly be incorporated into the classroom layout/design it could be highly beneficial for the various display boards to be connected to computers for students to utilize them for group work such as that required with PBL. Such technology incorporations would also open up the movement that the teacher could allow for him or herself and for student engagement as well.

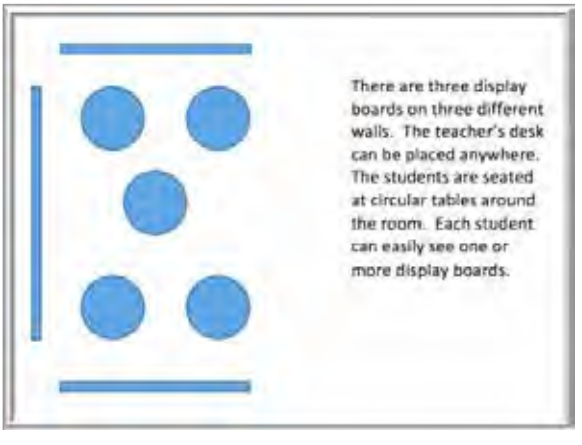

Figure 2. Active learning classroom (ALC) using round tables and additional display boards.

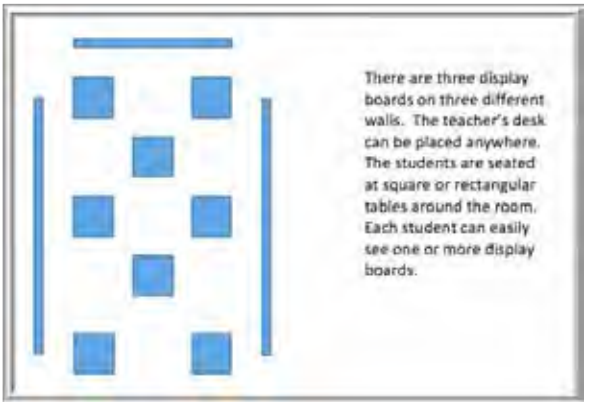

Figure 3. Active learning classroom (ALC) using square or rectangular tables and additional display boards.

The layouts represented in figure 2 and figure 3 would require replacing student desks with tables and obtaining and installing additional display boards in the classroom. Other arrangements can be made if the purchasing and replacement of desks cannot be accommodated or additional display boards cannot be acquired. These arrangements would consist of working with the current furniture and attempting to create an arrangement that would still encourage increased interactions between the teacher and the students and between the individual students. Semi-circular arrangement of desks, even if two rows were necessary, may create a layout more conducive to whole class discussion. If the desire is to create a layout for small group work the desks could be temporarily placed in a face-to-face layout to create make-shift tables of various sizes. Even though rearranging is not optimal it may be well worth the additional effort and time to create a physical arrangement where students can learn in a manner that is more comfortable to their learning styles.

Once décor or layout changes have been made to a classroom, it is critical that both the positive and negative effects be assessed (Cheryan et al., 2014) in order to provide information on whether or not the changes should remain, whether or not additional changes should be added, or whether or not the design and layout should be completely revamped. Teachers will need to find out what works for them and what works for their students. The main point is to try different layouts that may improve in the delivery of the materials through allowing for the use of a variety of pedagogies and to no longer allow the classroom layout and design to dictate what types of interactions and movement can be incorporated into the lessons.

CONCLUSION

Evidence shows that varied teaching methods can have a positive effect on learning. Data demonstrate that physical school building conditions affect learning. Research that examines the interaction between pedagogical choices and the physical learning spaces could provide information that would increase the effectiveness of planning, designing, and utilizing learning spaces. Such studies might also provide information about the limitations some classroom designs impose on teachers' ability to utilize certain pedagogies.

With changing standards and increasing expectations for educators to differentiate pedagogies, questions arise. Are teachers given adequate and appropriate resources, including the best physical environment? If teachers are expected to provide an environment where relationships can be built and students can work together in groups, construct projects, experience project-based learning, and have access to a technology-rich curriculum, are teachers given the right equipment and support? Are teachers provided with the physical environment to encourage all these aspects of 21st century learning without losing instructional time to moving furniture and "making do" with less than optimal resources? In order to support pedagogies that are friendly and beneficial to this generation of students, it is imperative to understand that physical learning environments must be adapted (Pearlman, 2010).

Facility design and renovation decisions need to be based on evidence, as these changes can come with high financial costs. As administrators attempt to answer these questions, evaluations of school buildings are needed to examine whether or not the available physical spaces allow for the pedagogies that are being encouraged (Cleveland & Fisher, 2013). Duncanson (2014) stated that current classroom layouts over-ride the decisions teachers make about

pedagogies. Teachers become frustrated and are less likely to embrace the creativity that would help them be effective with new pedagogies (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

High school teachers will benefit from being empowered to align their pedagogies with the needs of their students and to do so with the appropriate resources, including the best physical environment and the training necessary to work in the new environment. Continued studies into the best aspects of effective learning spaces will benefit both the teachers and the students. These facility changes will not happen quickly, and best practices may evolve as the students change. Ample evidence exists that educators cannot continue to teach as they always have, and the environment needs to adapt along with the new teaching methods. Students are learning differently. Teachers need to teach differently. Learning spaces need to be adapted accordingly.

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Evaluating the Impact of Strategic Planning in Higher Education

Kathleen M. Immordino, Ralph A. Gigliotti, Brent D. Ruben, and Sherrie Tromp

ABSTRACT

Strategic planning can be broadly defined as a process used by organizations to define strategy and provide direction regarding future decisions. Grounded in the organization's mission and vision, it is widely recognized as fundamental to an organization's success over time. A growing number of higher education institutions are incorporating strategic planning processes at the institution-wide level, or for individual schools or programs. While there are multiple models of strategic planning, many of which include a periodic review of the resulting goals and objectives, there are few, if any, assessments of the impact of the process itself. This study of one intentional model for strategic planning at State University indicates that the program has been successful not only in assisting departments and programs in developing mission and vision statements, organizational goals, and action plans, but also in disseminating organizational information, promoting participation, incorporating new members, and heightening awareness of strengths and opportunities for improvement.

INTRODUCTION

With its range of missions, multiplicity of stakeholders and distinctive shared governance structures, higher education is a unique industry requiring special considerations when it comes to strategic planning. In his seminal work on academic planning, Keller (1983) set the stage for a new approach to management and organized change in higher education; campuses across the land are being pressed to inquire "What business are we really in?" and "What is most central to us?" and "How shall we proceed?" (p. 72) In direct response to the host of challenges facing institutions of higher education, strategic planning is critical. While there are multiple models of strategic planning, many of which include a periodic review of the resulting goals and objectives, there are few systematic assessments of the impact of the process itself. This exploratory study evaluates the effectiveness of one model for strategic planning at State University[1]. As will be offered throughout this essay, there is initial evidence that a structured strategic planning process involving a broad group of participants can have a positive influence on the organization in many ways.

STRATEGIC PLANNING

Strategic planning is defined by Allison and Kaye (2005) as "a systematic process through which an organization agrees on – and builds commitment among key stakeholders to – priorities that are essential to its mission" (p. 1). Rowley and Sherman (2001) similarly define it as "a formal process designed to help an organization identify and maintain an optimal alignment with the most important elements of its environmental set" (p. 328). These definitions, and others in the literature, depict strategic planning as an intentional leadership tool for setting future organizational directions in a dynamic environment through a process that takes account of – and ideally engages–key stakeholders.

Organizational mission and vision lie at the center of strategic planning, and the process provides space for active consideration of the organization's raison d'etre. Bryson (2011) suggests strategic planning is "a deliberate disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization (or other entity) is, what it does, and why it does it" (p. 26). It challenges all involved to simultaneously consider both "who we are" and "who we want to be." For Dooris and Rackoff (2012), assessment, planning, improvement, and resource allocation reflect an institution's values, vision, mission, and goals. Similarly, Bryson (2011) captures the importance of mission, vision and values during the process. An organization's mission reflects its unique identity and serves as the foundation on which to build a strategic planning initiative.

A number of models for effective strategic planning currently exist. Hunger and Wheelen (2010) posit four essential elements in the process which include environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and evaluation and control. Allison and Kaye's (2005) model includes seven phases: 1) get ready, 2) articulate mission, vision, and values, 3) assess your situation, 4) agree on priorities, 5) write the plan, 6) implement the plan, and 7) evaluate and monitor the plan. As these models indicate, strategic planning calls for a

[1] State University is used as a pseudonym for a large, public state university situated in the Northeast United States.

review of both internal strengths and weaknesses and external threats and opportunities. Despite individual differences, existing models share much in common, including clarification of mission, analysis of internal and external influences, identification of core organizational issues, development and selection of strategic imperatives, and implementation of strategic goals (Burkhart & Reuss, 1993; Pfeiffer et al., 1986; Roberts & Rowley, 2004). Another heuristic framework for many strategic planning models includes four phases: analysis, formulation, implementation, and evaluation. A number of texts also address common pitfalls and issues that might interfere with or emerge from the strategic planning process, including a lack of institutional support, a lack of flexibility within the plan itself, a limited amount of time dedicated to the initiative, and a failed transition from planning to implementation (Allison & Kaye, 2005; Mintzberg, 1994).

STRATEGIC PLANNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

As Tromp and Ruben (2010) note, strategic planning is a complex process for most organizations; "the challenge is particularly formidable in higher education, where there are generally few carrots and sticks available to leaders as incentives (or disincentives) and where the communication and organizational challenges are far from trivial" (p. 4). According to Sevier (2000), "While most administrators and faculty intuitively understand the need for strategic thinking at one level, they are often unsure what strategic thinking really is, how it might benefit an institution, or even how to begin" (p. 2). It often appears that the organizations most in need of strategic planning can be the most resistant to the process. Moreover, if the aim is to meaningfully explore questions of purpose and direction, broad engagement of the faculty and staff is essential.

Strategic planning in higher education is not a new phenomenon, yet it continues to grow across all types of colleges and universities. Dooris, Kelley, and Trainer (2004) identify a 1959 meeting of 25 campus planners at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology as an important historical marker. The focus of this meeting, and other strategic planning initiatives during that time period, was centered on organizational facilities during an era of rapid expansion (Dooris, Kelley & Trainer, 2004, p. 6). Massive changes in the second half of the twentieth century led to an evolution of strategic planning initiatives in higher education. By the time of Keller's (1983) writing on academic planning, strategic planning had emerged as an influential practice in higher education. Interest in strategic planning in higher education continues to increase and the group of 25 campus planners from 1959 had grown to 4,200 active members of the Society for College and University Planning by 2004 (Dooris, Kelley, & Trainer, 2004).

An estimated 70 percent of colleges and universities in the United States engage in some form of strategic planning (Sevier, 2000). It is expected to grow in importance, particularly in light of recent assessment and institutional effectiveness trends (Flynn & Vredevoogd, 2010). In this current era of complexity and rapid change, Hunt, et al. (1997) extol the importance of strategic planning in the academy, saying "higher education leaders cannot control the future, but they should attempt to identify and isolate present actions and to forecast how results from actions taken now can be expected to influence the future" (p. 14).

Current strategic planning initiatives in colleges and universities attempt to address these questions as it relates to the purpose, adaptation, and efficiency of higher education as an institution. Tromp and Ruben (2010) describe strategic planning as "the means by which the most effective organizations establish priorities and goals and coordinate their efforts to anticipate, direct, and manage change" (p. 7). These planned change initiatives challenge organizational stakeholders to simultaneously look back and look ahead in order to identify core priorities.

Ideally, the planning process is a deliberate community-wide initiative which articulates future strategic direction(s) for the college, university, school or program. Wilson (2006) encourages an approach to planning that is both communicative and participative, as exemplified in a recent strategic planning initiative at Cleveland State University (Kogler Hill, Thomas, & Keller, 2009). Additionally, calling for a more iterative strategic planning design in higher education, Chance (2010) points to the limitations of traditional linear and prescriptive approaches to strategic planning. The strategic planning process may align with alternative self-assessment opportunities for the institution, including the preparation for accreditation visits (for example, Middle States Commission on Higher Education) (Dodd, 2004) and award applications (for example, Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award program) (Jasinski, 2004; Ruben, et al., 2007). As one example, Penn State University uses an "integrated planning" approach to connect strategic planning with budgeting, enrollment management, and human resource planning (Sandmeyer, Dooris, & Barlock, 2004). Northwestern University and its Feinberg School of Medicine intentionally linked their strategic planning efforts with changes in their budgeting structure in order to better align with their institutional mission (Haberaecker, 2004). At the University of Wisconsin-Madison, the strategic plan was deliberately infused throughout the organization, particularly during two accreditation cycles (Paris, 2004).

Beyond identifying strategic priorities and charting a course of action, a critical follow-up stage is implementation of the plan—and it is in the implementation that colleges and universities often have particular

difficulties. Indeed, our institutions and our colleagues seem more enthusiastic about brainstorming and envisioning possibilities, than in the difficult and laborious activities associated with the systematic follow-through that translates ideas into realities. An increased emphasis on implementation has led to a shift in vernacular from "strategic planning" to a larger "strategic management" approach in some texts—management, of course, being a not-all-that-welcomed term among academics. Rowley, Lujan, and Dolence (1997) suggest that successful implementation of a strategic plan in higher education is linked to a sound planning process. Rowley and Sherman (2002) offer a number of recommendations for campus leaders to consider when implementing strategic change in their institutions. An effective approach to organizational leadership lies at the core of many of their recommendations. Strategic planning has "to be carefully situated within the models of thought and responsibility of educational communities" (Morrill, 2010, p. 55). Recent strategic planning trends in higher education are subject to criticism for threatening established forms of governance or for distracting organizational stakeholders from the "real" issues at stake in higher education (Birnbaum, 2001; Rowley, Lujan & Dolence, 1997; Wilson, 2006). It can be argued, for instance, that the emphasis on collaborative focus and direction, may come at the risk of individual autonomy. For these reasons and others, organizations with rich historical narratives and traditions may often be resistant to the increased emphasis on strategic planning, but it is widely acknowledged that traditional approaches to organizational strategy formulation and implementation are simply not sustainable in today's increasingly complex, competitive and regulated higher education environment.

THE CHANGING NATURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PLANNING

Numerous texts address the complex issues facing the entire system of post-secondary education including, but not limited to, the rising cost of higher education, new federal policies and initiatives, increasing competition, shared governance, public accountability, advancements in technology, the growth of online education and massive open online courses, educational quality and assessment, and student accessibility and satisfaction (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004; Rhodes, 2001; Rowley, Lujan, & Dolence, 1998; Tierney, 1998; Zemsky, Wegner, & Massy, 2005). Sevier (2000) identifies nine "megatrends" impacting the higher education environment, including the impact of technology, the changing nature of today's – and tomorrow's – students, the cost to attend college, increased competition for donated dollars, changing college curriculum, growing competition of non-college delivery options, changing societal expectations, a shift in power structures, and "blur," an accelerated and unprecedented rate of change (p. 10). Pressures in all of these areas continue to mount, and these trends inform the ways in which colleges and universities approach strategic planning and live out their mission(s).

Within the context of the emerging realities of higher education, and with no implied denigration of the critical work of colleges and universities, Ruben, Immordino and Tromp (2009) assert that "Higher education is a business… and that business can be described as the production, dissemination, translation and use of ideas, and the cultivation of learning and learners" (p. 225). As higher education evolves, so too must the internal policies, practices, and expectations within the academy. Their argument is consistent with Keller's (1999) work on the "third stage in higher education planning." Keller encourages institutions of higher education to consider "adaptive structural changes," while calling into question "the basic features that we have come to regard as fixed since the 1890s" (p. 4). This emphasis on academic planning, structural change, and the adoption of business practices in colleges and universities emerges at a time when higher education in the United States is in flux. As the literature suggests, this current period is marked by ambiguity, complexity, and rapid change in higher education requiring colleges and universities to think deliberately about their future. For Dooris, Kelley and Trainer (2004), "the soul of strategic planning is this human capacity for *intentionality* – this ability to formulate goals and proceed toward them with direct intent". (p. 5) Commitment to furthering one's mission calls for dedicated and visionary leadership. Strategic planning, in the context of organizational change and transformation, provides a unique opportunity for leaders to emerge and excel.

STUDY CONTEXT

The State University Center for Organizational Excellence (COE) [2] was established in 1993 as an outgrowth of concerns regarding the operation of the university and the perceptions of internal and external stakeholders (Ruben, 2005). The specific impetus for the development of COE was a university-wide faculty and

[2] The Center for Organizational Excellence (COE) is used as a pseudonym for a research center that provides programs and consulting for units across State University.

staff committee report on administrative efficiency, which made a number of recommendations for improving the effectiveness of the institution, including:

1. Create a more welcoming environment,
2. Introduce technological innovation to enhance service and efficiency,
3. Establish enhancing user-focused systems and processes,
4. Improve collaboration and communication, and
5. Establish a university program for continuous improvement

COE was created specifically to help address these general goals. As COE began to formulate its vision for how it could help create an increasingly service-oriented institution, the following aspirations were articulated for key constituencies, all of whom maintain a stake in the organization:

- Students: Pleased to be attending their college or university; feeling they are valued members of the community with the potential and support to succeed
- Families: Proud to have a family member attending their college or university; recommending the institution to others
- Alumni: Actively supporting the institution and its initiatives
- Employers: Seeking out graduates as employees; promoting the college or university among their employees for continuing education
- Colleagues at other institutions: Viewing the college or university as a source of intellectual leadership
- The public: Valuing the university as an essential resource; supporting efforts to advance excellence
- Faculty: Pleased to serve on the faculty of a leading, well-supported institution, enjoying respect and recognition locally, within the state, nationally, and internationally
- Staff: Regarding the institution as a preferred workplace where innovation, continuing improvement, teamwork, and excellence are guiding values in all facets of the work of the institution

Early on, COE developed a guiding philosophy and a methodology for approaching the work of organizational development within the university. Fundamentally, this approach involves the identification of best practices and standards of excellence in higher education, but also in other sectors (including business, healthcare, and the public sector) and the translation of these characteristics into the language and culture of higher education and; more specifically, the culture of State University. In addition to this translation process, COE is committed to the development of programs, models, and approaches to improved excellence in higher education based on expressed and/or anticipated need. COE continues to provide ongoing support to a wide variety of units across the State University system; to serve as an incubator for new initiatives; and to provide an organizational development research and development center for the higher education community nationally.

COE has continued to evolve by adjusting its models, approaches, and services to changing needs within the university, and changing practices and approaches within the field of organizational development. Colleges and universities today face unprecedented challenges. Our leaders are being asked to achieve high quality, innovate, operate with efficiency and effectiveness, graduate increasing numbers of students, and incorporate increasingly sophisticated technology—and to do so in a way that will successfully address the workforce and civic leadership needs of today and tomorrow. In prior decades the institutional progress needed to sustain these challenges could be achieved through modest changes and localized improvement initiatives scattered throughout an institution. Today, the scope and magnitude of institutional needs requires more comprehensive, systematic and transformational approaches to organizational design, planning, and improvement—and perhaps most of all, it requires knowledgeable, dedicated and skilled leaders to guide these efforts. The primary focus of COE today is to provide programs and consulting services in organizational assessment and change, strategic planning, and leadership advancement for academic, administrative, and academic health sciences leaders. This study will relate directly to the strategic planning efforts of COE.

THE STRATEGIC PLANNING FRAMEWORK

The State University Center for Organizational Excellence (COE) provides strategic planning facilitation to schools, departments, and programs, as well as other colleges, universities, and affiliated organizations using the *Strategic Planning in Higher Education* framework (Tromp & Ruben, 2010). This framework provides a blueprint for a comprehensive approach to strategic planning that can be applied regardless of the size or structure of the organization (See Figure 1).

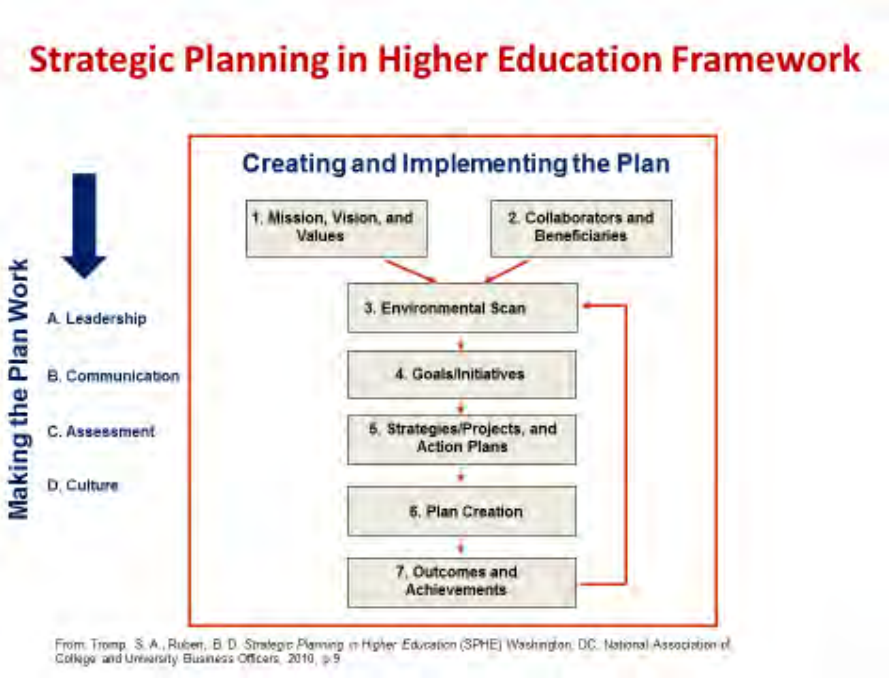

Figure 1: Strategic Planning in Higher Education Framework (Tromp & Ruben, 2010)

The SPHE framework consists of seven major planning phases: 1) mission, vision, and values, 2) collaborators and beneficiaries, 3) environmental scan, 4) goals, 5) strategies and action plans, 6) plan creation, 7) outcomes and achievements (see Figure 2). The inclusion and application of four cross-cutting imperatives - leadership, communication, assessment, and culture – differentiate it from other models.

Mission, Vision, and Values	Defining the reason for the organization's existence, the desired future state of the organization and the principles and perspectives that guide and influence daily work and the organizational culture
Collaborators and Beneficiaries	Identifying the major stakeholders and their needs, expectations, and satisfaction levels
Environmental Scan	Considering the social, economic, political, regulatory, technological and cultural environment in which the organization functions including assumptions and potential challenges
Goals	Identifying the organization's broad, high level ambitions
Strategies and Action Plans	Formulation of the specific, detailed ways in which goals will be fulfilled and through which the approach and concrete activities needed to transform the organization will be executed
Plan Creation	Creating a document that clearly articulates the organization's plan and serves to inform, influence, anchor, and guide the organization's future
Outcomes and Achievements	Translating goals, strategies, and action plans into tangible and meaningful measures that can be used in monitoring outcomes and milestones and for assessing the ultimate impact of the planning effort

Figure 2. Major Planning Phases in the Strategic Planning in Higher Education model (Tromp & Ruben, 2010)

Underlying this framework is the recognition that the process of planning is equally as important as the plan itself, particularly in higher education, given the inherent challenges. The multiplicity of stakeholders in particular along with the expectations for shared governance is a significant factor in obtaining a successful outcome in strategic planning efforts. There is a critical need to gain support and commitment in order for plans to be effectively translated into practice. The SPHE model developed by COE pays particular attention to organizational culture and developing a culture of assessment. These four imperatives of the planning process, leadership, communication, attention to culture, and assessment, are especially critical given the challenging nature of higher education. The focus of each imperative includes the following:

- Leadership – creating an environment for collective engagement in planning, implementation and change.
- Communication – creating and supporting investment and interest in the planning process, its progress, and its outcome.
- Assessment – promoting the important role evaluation plays in successful change
- Culture – understanding habits, history, traditions, and the natural resistance to change

It is somewhat unique in broadly engaging faculty and staff in the entire strategic planning process. A representative COE strategic planning engagement consists of several phases: meetings with leadership to establish goals for the planning process; the development, distribution, and analysis of pre-planning surveys of faculty, staff, and other stakeholders which become the basis for issue identification; a day-long facilitated planning retreat; a written report providing feedback on the information developed during the retreat and any outcomes; post-report debriefing with leaders; and as-needed follow up and assistance.

STUDY DESIGN

COE is committed to the assessment and improvement of its programs and processes and regularly collects information pertaining to satisfaction with its services from institutions, departments, schools, campuses, and organizations with which it has worked. To facilitate a more in-depth assessment of the impact and perceived benefit of COE's strategic planning services, the Center conducted a detailed survey of six departments and programs for which COE facilitated planning over the previous three years. The departments included in this analysis are a cross-section of those who participated in a strategic planning process. The selected units were chosen deliberately to be representative of each type of State University program: academic, administrative, service, and professional.[3]

The survey consisted of both a Likert scale and open ended comments. It was grounded in a client satisfaction survey used by COE, and expanded for purposes of this study to address key measures of the success of the strategic planning effort. The study sought to learn:

- What were the outcomes of the planning effort in terms of understanding, communication, and understanding of mission, vision, and goals
- What was the perceived value of the model and the facilitated retreat process, and
- What actual progress was made toward implementation of goals established during the process[4]

The survey was sent to the primary clients, who were the administrative heads or chairs of each department. While the questions used were common to all respondents, each survey was customized to include the actual goal statements developed by that department during their COE-facilitated planning session as a point of reference is assessing progress and outcomes.

OVERALL ASSESSMENT

When asked to provide an overall assessment of the value of the strategic planning session, five of the six respondents said it was "extremely valuable" (2) or had "a lot of value" (3); one respondent said that it had "some value." Respondent comments on the benefits of participation in the strategic planning session can be categorized as[5]:

Clarification of mission, vision, and goals

- Clearer sense of our strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats.
- Developed a better mission statement coupled with explicit vision and goal statements.
- Formation of a strategic plan for the department.

[3] The programs surveyed are represented in the report using randomly assigned letters.

[4] Surveys were distributed electronically, with a 100% response rate.

[5] Comments are paraphrased to preserve the anonymity of individual commenters.

- Changes made and in process should enable [Program] to meet current challenges.
- Development of positive ideas.
- Recognition of limitations.
- Assistance with developing clear goals.

Value of engagement in the process

- An opportunity for new staff to participate in the process.
- Improved understanding of elements needed to achieve goals.

Establishment of shared priorities

- Provided us a focus.
- Priorities were established through group consensus.
- Created a concrete plan of action.
- Knowledge of the unit.
- Good sense of camaraderie, good social event.
- Increased awareness of goals.

Ability to communicate organizational value

- Gave us a vehicle to "sell" ourselves to others.
- Able to reward hard working staff members with promotions under reorganization.

Facilitated progress

- Some key task forces and committees were formed and launched.

ASSESSMENT OF STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS COMPONENTS

COE's strategic planning model includes components that focus on development of a mission statement, vision statement and values; analysis of organizational strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats; development of goals; and preparation of specific strategies and detailed action plans to implement the goals. The survey assessed each of these components.

Mission and Vision Statements

The planning process includes review and/or revision of the existing mission statement, or development of a mission statement if none existed, and development or revision of a vision statement, defined as a statement of the department/program/organization's aspirations. Respondents to the question "What value or benefits were realized through the process of identifying and discussing the vision statement?" said:

- [Program] had grown in its programs since the last session and hence we need[ed] to develop a vision that represented all of the programs currently housed within the center. The session allowed for the new team members and programs to have a say in developing the vision which transferred into buy-in for the vision. It also flushed out some issues that need[ed] to be addressed and identified common threads among programs.
- Helped us think more broadly about our vision for [Program].
- Helped members of our community to understand difference between mission and vision statements.
- People became more aware of commonalities and differences/I am not sure it was helpful.
- Not clear. Not clear that anyone has read it, but we do use it on some documents/Not totally clear of the benefits as they are hard to quantify. We have it and periodically note it when discussing departmental activities or initiatives.
- A reminder to those that were involved in the development of the vision statement of our focus and educated new members of the board or guests on our vision.

All respondents indicated they have subsequently taken steps to disseminate the vision statement within the organization, with some citing multiple means.

Dissemination to internal audiences

- All staff have received the statement.
- We published our strategic planning report and distributed to faculty, staff, and students, and the Dean.
- Discussed with faculty at meetings.
- The outcome of the session was disseminated in 20-page, 9-page, and 1-page formats.
- The vision statement was discussed, given out, and revised. It is now included in a department brochure and at the end of every department PR presentation we make.

Dissemination to external audiences

- We have printed it on the back of our business cards.
- Trade show booths, newsletters, email blasts.
- It is posted on our website.

All six respondents agreed that the strategic planning process heightened their awareness or improved their understanding of organizational strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The degree to which they felt it impacted awareness varied; half said that it heightened awareness "extremely" (1) or "a lot" (2), and half said that it did so "some" (2) or "a little" (1).

Goals

An anticipated outcome of any strategic planning process is the development and prioritization of goals to support the mission and further the vision. Participants offered these responses to the question "How effective was the Strategic Planning session in helping you to identify clear priorities and achievable goals?"

- Very helpful. Again, new staff needed to be brought into the fold and the session allowed for that to happen. The growth of the program since then [has] required us to put our priorities elsewhere and thus we were not able to focus as much as we would have liked on other areas.
- Very effective. Kept us focused and on task as far as our efforts to grow.
- I believe the strategic planning sessions were very effective.
- The planning was OK but continued guidance and consultation would have been needed to lead to clear progress.
- SP session was very useful for prioritizing. Follow through was not great. Culture of department takes long to change. Most faculty still focus mainly on individual research programs, not department as a whole.
- Very effective.

One important measure of the effectiveness of strategic planning is the subsequent implementation of goals developed in the process. Many factors, such as leadership support, funding, or changes in mission can impact the ability to achieve goals despite the best intentions; still, the degree of progress achieved speaks to the impact of the planning process.

Each department/program was provided the list of goals established during their planning process. On a scale ranging from "significant progress" to "no progress," respondents were asked to indicate the degree of progress made toward achieving those goals since the session (Figures 3 & 4).[6]

Program	Number of Goals Established	Significant Progress	Some Progress	Minimal Progress	No Progress	No Longer a Goal
A	6		2		4	
B	5	1	4			
C	6	3	1	1		1
D	7	1	2	3	1	
E	6	2	3	1		
F	3	2	1			

Figure 3: Progress Toward Identified Goals by Program

Of a combined thirty-three goals established by the six programs, significant progress has been made toward nine (27%); some progress has been made toward another thirteen (39%). Minimal progress has been made toward an additional five (15%). There are five goals toward which no progress has been made; four of those five are in the same department/program. One goal was removed by the establishing program.

[6] Each program is represented by a letter. The numbers refer to the goals established for that individual program.

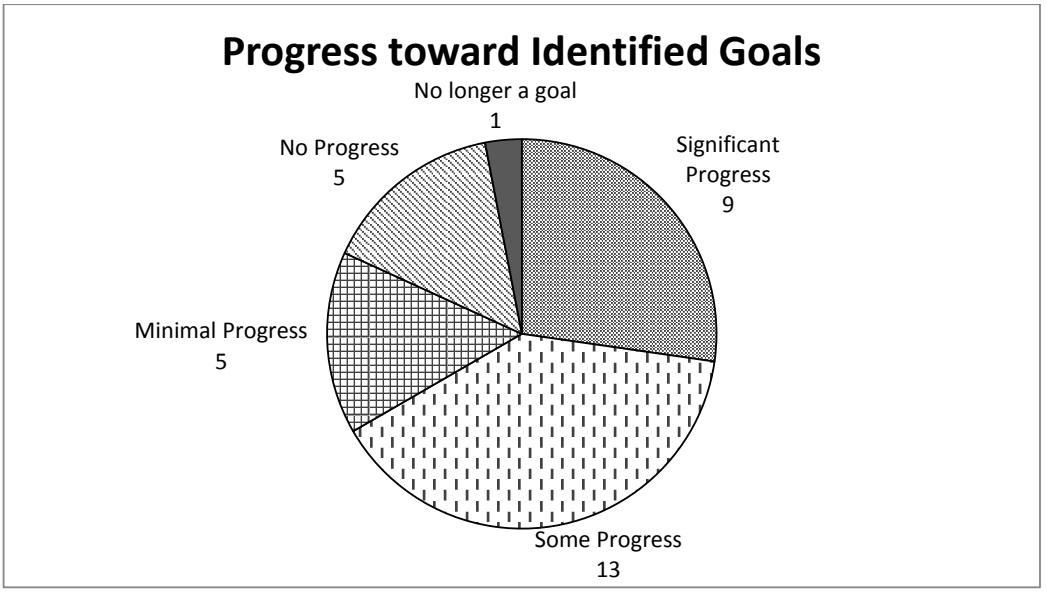

Figure 4: Progress Toward Identified Goals by Measure of Progress (n=33)

Goal identification and prioritization is followed by development of detailed strategies and action plans for implementing the highest priority goals. Respondents were asked to select the statements that indicated how they utilized the strategies and action plans in their efforts towards achieving identified goals (Figure 5).[7]

To outline steps toward reaching a goal	3
To identify individuals and/or teams who could contribute to reaching a goal	5
To consider the financial resources needed to achieve a goal	2
To identify products or deliverables associated with a goal	3
To establish a time frame for implementation	1
Did not use the action plans	1
Other	2

Figure 5. Utilization of Strategies and Action Plans

Facilitators and Barriers

Critical to assessing goal implementation is the identification of facilitators that support implementation and barriers that impede implementation, as they may be mitigating factors in evaluating the effectiveness of goal realization. Respondents were asked to identify, from a list provided, those factors that facilitated success in achieving their goals. The following chart (Figure 6) shows the frequency with which each factor was selected.[8]

Committed leadership	5
Shared vision of a goal	4
Teamwork/sharing of responsibility	3
Time allocated to working on goal or priority	2
Clear plan for implementation and success	1

Figure 6. Factors Facilitating Goal Realization

[7] Multiple responses could be selected.
[8] Multiple responses could be selected

Two other possible choices, "availability of funding" and "availability of material resources," were not selected by any respondents.

Four respondents identified additional facilitators, specifically:

- Felt need for change, especially among staff
- Help with media resources from national association

When asked to identify the major facilitator, four of the six programs selected "committed leadership," while two selected "shared vision of a goal" and "teamwork/sharing of responsibilities." Five of the six said that the same facilitating factors applied to all of their goals.

Respondents were also asked to identify the challenges or barriers they experienced in pursuing realization of the established goals (Figure 7). These challenges are not unique to strategic planning at State, but reflect common pitfalls to strategic planning identified by Mintzberg (1994) and Allison and Kaye (2005).

Lack of commitment or motivation	4
Insufficient time	3
Insufficient funds	3
Competing or conflicting priorities within the unit	3
Insufficient knowledge regarding implementation of priorities and goals	2
Lack of accountability within the unit	1

Figure 7. Perceived Barriers to Goal Realization

Three other possible choices, "complexity of organizational structure," "change in leadership," and "insufficient leadership support," were not selected by any respondents.

When asked which factors posed the biggest challenge or barrier, three of the six respondents identified "insufficient time." Other factors identified as the biggest challenge were "competing or conflicting priorities within the unit" (2), "lack of commitment or motivation" (2), and "insufficient funds" (1). One program added "lack of staff" as an additional choice, saying that they had lost over 50% of their staff in one semester. Four of the six respondents said that the same challenges applied to all goals.

Respondents were evenly divided on the question of whether the strategic planning process adequately considered the challenges to be faced in achieving the goals. Those who said the process did not adequately consider the challenges offered the following ideas for improvement:

- Need for more work beyond sessions wasn't emphasized enough
- Ongoing support and consultation at some level

Other Findings

Three of the six programs have updated their strategic plans since their planning sessions; two indicated this was a continuation of what had been done in the planning session. Of the three who had not updated their plans, two agreed that they would benefit from future strategic planning sessions.

Other Comments:

Difficulty in implementing plans

- One of the challenges I had as a leader was to decide which priorities could and should be tackled first, developing an understanding of how to continue to progress toward goal achievement with multiple competing priorities, delegating responsibility, and follow-up. I left the session amped up to conquer the world and tell the [Program] story. Then reality and life crept in and things came to a screeching halt. On a positive note, we have recently dusted off the report, we are reviewing it with current leadership to ensure it is still current, and we are looking at trying to accomplish one or two of the goals that we believe are doable; tackling them one at a time. There is hope!
- Need for follow-up to review plan every year is needed.
- Cooperation was not sufficient to allow coherent action in some goals. In one goal we were stymied by external university politics.
- Task forces and committees were set up but follow through was weak on many initiatives.

Need for ongoing support

- I believe some ongoing consultation needs to be included.

Benefits of facilitation and participation

- The session was great and well facilitated.
- [The facilitator] did a fantastic job with our group and helped us through a tedious process with a great deal of finesse and style.
- Glad we did it. We need lots of new blood in our department.

CONCLUSIONS

While the survey findings are important for the applied work of the Center for Organizational Excellence, this study also offers an appropriate post-test for strategic planning processes in multiple types of educational institutions. The implication is that a structured strategic planning process involving a broad group of participants can have a positive influence on the organization in many ways. With very few exceptions, the study participants, who represent a diverse set of academic, administrative, service and professional programs, indicate that the facilitated strategic planning model and retreat process had value for them and for their departments, programs, and organizations. More specifically, the results indicate that the strategic planning program has been successful not only in assisting departments, programs, and organizations develop mission and vision statements, organizational goals, and action plans, but also in disseminating organizational information, promoting participation, incorporating new members, and heightening awareness of strengths and opportunities for improvement. Because results were disseminated throughout the organizations, the positive outcomes associated with participation in the planning process impact both current and future participants. Notably, the only recommendation for improving the process is the addition of post-retreat consultation to support the implementation of action plans.

This study considers issues related to both plan development and plan implementation. It suggests that while development of a plan with actionable goals is important, follow-up assessment of goal implementation is also critical. Achievement of goals requires those engaged in the planning process to anticipate, consider, and plan for approaches and activities that will serve as facilitators in the implementation process, and for ways to mitigate those factors that will act as barriers to goal realization. This finding of the current exploratory project point to the importance of follow-up assessment as a way of both advancing dialogue with key planning stakeholders and improving the ways that planning is accomplished in the future.

The Center for Organizational Excellence has evolved to meet the unique needs and expectations of the State University community and continues to adapt to changes in the higher education landscape. Caution should be exercised in efforts to generalize the results of this study to other strategic planning programs or their outcomes, because of the limited number of participants and the specific structure of the COE program. While they may not apply to all such programs, these findings capture important themes related to the strengths and challenges of any strategic planning process. The themes that emerge from the survey responses point to the importance of the strategic planning process, particularly in the context American higher education. Typically characterized by a culture of collaboration, decentralization, and shared governance, the process of strategic planning in colleges and universities proves to be as important, if not more important, than the plan itself. Similar research, focusing on the impact of other strategic planning programs—with similar goals and structure, or variations thereof, would be very useful. Additional longitudinal research could further enhance efforts to identify the long-term benefits of strategic planning initiatives. The process of strategic planning is ripe for future qualitative and quantitative analysis.

More generally, the study points to the value of research efforts aimed at assessing and improving organizational intervention efforts such as strategic planning programs. The benefits include providing input for program improvement, a better understanding of the unique challenges to strategic planning in higher education, as well as evidence of the potential value and return on investment of such programs—a topic of interest to those who facilitate these kinds of programs, as well as to leaders throughout the organization.

Excellence in higher education seldom results by simply collecting talented faculty, staff and students to pursue their own individual goals. Rather, excellence is far more predictable when faculty, staff and students share a common vision of where they are headed, see opportunities that can derive from working together, and become committed to collaboration in pursuit of common aspirations. Because higher education, as a sector, faces unique challenges including broad missions and a multiplicity of stakeholders with differing priorities, achieving these outcomes requires leaders who are adept at engaging their colleagues in envisioning and creating a collective future, who know how to make good use of planning models to facilitate but not overly script or stifle the creative energies of colleagues, who can inspire their colleagues to create institutions, organizations, and programs that become far more than would be possible with only the simple sum of their individual talents. This exploratory essay seeks to unpack the value of the strategic planning process in higher education – a process that both engages a wide variety of organizational stakeholders and often influences the very direction of the organization. As college and university

leaders continue to wrestle with the nuances of strategic planning within the context of higher education, we would encourage additional research that studies the impact of the process on planning itself.

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Planning for Faculty Recruitment and Assessment in Higher Education: Considering Student Preferences for Faculty Characteristics in Poland and Switzerland

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ABSTRACT

When characterizing a professional academic teacher, we should consider all the expectations that university teachers face. These can relate both to their academic work, various forms of didactic work and the building of relations with students. Exploring and defining the factors relevant to the ways in which lecturers effectively influence the educational process seems to be indispensable, especially in the context of planning for the employment of professional academic staff with the appropriate competences and approach to work, and, above all, their positive attitudes toward students. It is therefore as important to plan the employment of academic staff, based on the information acquired in the evaluation process, as it is to plan well for courses adjusted to a given educational level. In this sense, it is very helpful to examine students' expectations of their teachers relating to teaching qualities and teacher-student relations. This knowledge can help teachers plan for specific forms of didactic work as needed, and adopt an approach that fosters the building of good relations with students, based on the well experienced master-pupil formula, involving mutual respect, understating and partnership. The purpose of the current study is to present the results of research regarding students' preferred characteristics of academic teachers. The study was conducted at the Faculty of Education, University of Rzeszow (PL) and the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences of the University of Geneva (CH). The comparative research involved a sample of 413 full-time students, 268 from a Polish university, and 145 from a Swiss university. The result of data analysis indicated that as far as the characterization of an academic teacher is concerned, students from the two universities expressed different priorities. The differences are not even subtle as the two groups chose to give precedence to different qualities. A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the variable that differentiated the significance of individual factors was the level of study.

INTRODUCTION

There is a great deal of discussion in today's world about the future of higher education, new curricula, educating students and the quality of education (Altbach, Androushchak, Kuzminov, Yudkevich, & Reisberg, 2013; Lambert & Butler, 2006; Rege Colet, 2010; Romainville, 2013; Sursock & Smidt, 2010; Thieme, 2009; Vijaykumar & Lavanya, 2014; Wit, 2011; Woźnicki, 2012; Zgaga, Teichler, & Brennan, 2013). It is postulated that a university should be a place in which people are able to achieve the goals of developing comprehensively to become ready and well-equipped for adult life, responsible and engaged in their surroundings with the knowledge, competences and attitudes appropriate to their social environment and the requirements of the job market. Academic teachers are to a large extent responsible for realizing these goals effectively (Calderhead, 1997; *Just-in-time teaching*, 2010; Lavoie & Roth, 2001; Saroyan & Frenay, 2010; Woźnicki, 2013). After all, the motivation to learn, their comprehensive development, future maturity and ability to adapt to the needs of an increasingly demanding world ultimately depends largely on the students themselves (Brown & Atkins, 1988; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2004; Rhoades, 2012; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Lecturers play a significant role in preparing graduates for entry to the job market. Educational programs have the important tasks of teaching both theory as well as professional practice and, perhaps more than anything, competences in building interpersonal relationships and mutual understanding, which lead to an ability to cooperate in different aspects of life (Grygiel, Humenny, Rębisz, & Klimczak, 2010; Lenoir & Vanhulle, 2006; Tardif, Marcel, Dupriez, & Perisset Bagnoud, 2010).

Currently, among the most important elements of university development strategy are well operated human resources management and teacher evaluation policies, which can be used as tools in raising the quality of teaching. They are both factors to consider when introducing changes to the reorientation of universities towards initiating student-focus and building a competitive advantage over other institutions.

As Mischke (2006) observed, the process of academic teacher evaluation is a wide-ranging, difficult and often complicated task. The large number of scientific publications devoted to this issue is certainly testimony to its complexity. In fact, almost two thousand publications discussing related problems were available worldwide towards the end of the last century (McKeachie & Kaplan, 1996).

Charles Woodruffe (2000) distinguished three objectives of teacher evaluation: (1) choosing the best candidate for a vacant position, (2) selecting the best career path for a teacher already employed or evaluating a teacher's capacity for professional progress, as well as identifying teachers that should be dismissed, and (3) discussing a teacher's strengths and weaknesses for professional development.

The first two objectives are very similar, as the methods used in their application are designed to serve as an element of candidate selection through the evaluation of characteristic competences that every teacher employs to perform a specific set of tasks. This is a summative evaluation aimed at providing data to be used to decide on personnel issues, such as employment, promotion, salary and awards (Felder & Brent, 2004).

The third objective is grounded in so-called formative evaluation based on the information gathered from student questionnaires and/or observations by affiliated lecturers. It focuses on the diagnosis of a teacher's predispositions as well as strengths and weaknesses for professional development. The intention is to determine the most effective path for adjusting and developing teachers' personal didactic competences to the university's requirements. The main aim of teacher evaluation is not to help the university in making personnel decisions but to assist a specific academic teacher in meeting the teaching demands they are facing (Woodruffe, 2000). In formative evaluation, the didactic process itself is both the starting point and the goal (Felder & Brent, 2004). The twofold character of an academic teacher's work should not be ignored here. After all, academic and teaching functions require two different sets of competences, which require two different evaluation approaches (Mischke, 2006).

When characterizing professional academic teachers we must bear in mind all the expectations they face, including demand for academic work, preferred forms of teaching and relations with students. Research shows that the stimulation of a student's learning interest depends on a lecturer's personal competences, the teaching style, teaching involvement, overall approaches, methods and other teaching aids used (Boyer, 1997; Herda-Płonka, 2013). Professional lecturers strongly engaged with students, create an appropriate environment for students to feel supported and more motivated to learn (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005).

The perception of a lecturer as a passionate teacher with a true vocation is important. Passion is understood as love for the subject and enthusiasm as a component of it, which later translates into force of persuasion (Fried, 2001). As Andrzej Rozmus says, "students will respond best to a lecturer who *is crazy about his subject area, or even just one of its elements, so the engagement of the lecturer with the subject is crucial"*(Rozmus, 2013, p. 126). This kind of involvement fosters a special teacher-student relationship, even capable of breaking through the students' lack of interest or challenging attitudes (Boyer, 1997; Dumont, Rochat, Berthiame, & Lanares, 2012; Piejka, 2008; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005).

The profession of academic teacher has been studied in Poland and other countries for years. These studies aim at defining the most useful personality traits, types, models and ideals and teaching styles as well as exploring the actual behaviors and attitudes. Research shows that students place varied demands on teachers, depending on their age and their experience in their studies. During their first year at university, students expected lecturers to introduce them to studying and to be familiar with the problems of young people. As far as teaching was concerned they expected the knowledge conveyed in the teaching process to be well selected and accessible. They thought that, at this stage, a lecturer should use examinations to review the taught materials and to display empathy and broad-mindedness rather than elevate expectations. The approach of more advanced students was different. They placed much higher demands on academic teachers in terms of their professionalism, breadth of knowledge supported by familiarity with the latest research and innovations, and their actual application (Rokitiańska, 2003).

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Taking into account that students' expectations towards teachers differ by age and years of study and also considering their realization of their preferred qualities at a given stage of education, educational planners can plan for the needed format of teaching, adopting certain attitudes and building good relations with students on the basis of mutual respect. The objective of this paper is to examine the students' preferred characteristics of academic teachers in the context of: (1) relations with students, (2) performance of academic and teaching work, and (3) teacher personality traits in the Faculty of Education, University of Rzeszow and the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences of the University of Geneva.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants and their demographics

Our research involved 413 full-time students from the BA and supplementary MA programs (268 from the Faculty of Education at the University of Rzeszów and 145 from the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences at the University of Geneva). We conducted our survey between November 2013 and June 2014. We chose purposive sampling with students participating on a voluntary and anonymous basis.

The specific educational character of the course determined the sex of our respondents: at the Polish university 95% (*n=255*) of the respondents were women, and at the Swiss university the equivalent figure was 88.3% (*n=128*).

The distribution of our respondents at the two universities, as far as the degree studied, showed that undergraduate students were slightly overrepresented (57.8%) at the Polish university in relation to post-graduate students (42.2%). The situation was reversed at the Swiss university, at which only 22.3% of respondents were BA students and 77.7% studied for their MA. Significantly, almost 80% of Polish respondents were students of the two higher years of a BA degree, whereas in the MA program, students of the last year represented 42.5% of all respondents. A similar situation occurred in Switzerland with almost 78% of respondents were from the higher years of a BA degree, with first year students representing only 22% of all respondents. The largest group of respondents among the students from Geneva (53% of all respondents) was those who had just began their MA course.

Certain differences were noticed in the context of students' place of origin. Most (over 88%) of our Polish respondents came from villages and small towns. The equivalent figure in Switzerland was much lower, 57.4%. Moreover, among Swiss respondents over 39% were residents of cities with over 100,000 inhabitants and the corresponding figure in the Polish context was only 7.1%. Parents' education is also a variable worth attention. The education of the parents of our Polish respondents from the University of Rzeszów is characteristic of this part of Poland and is well within general indicators. Most parents were educated to the vocational (46.1%) and secondary (24.2%) levels. College and higher education was represented at similar levels, i.e. 11.5%, whereas 6.7% of our respondents' parents were educated to the primary and incomplete primary level. It should be noted that the distribution of educational level of parents by sex is slightly different from the previously presented (averaged) results. The mothers of our Polish respondents were better educated than their fathers. Women were more frequently educated to higher, post-secondary or secondary level than men, i.e. almost 14% of mothers completed higher education compared to less than 9% of fathers; college education was completed by 13.4% of mothers and 9.7% of fathers and secondary education 28.7% of mothers and 19.8% of fathers. When it comes to the education of our Swiss respondents' parents, our data differ considerably from those of Poland, in spite of the fact that the Swiss model of vocational studies is very different from the Polish, vocational studies are popular in Switzerland. In fact, there are at present very few vocational schools in Poland and emphasis is placed rather on post-secondary general education (EU et al., 2012; European Commission, Education, & Eurydice (Brussels, 2013). Swiss youth have a whole array of vocational schools on offer which equip them with the knowledge and qualifications necessary from the point of view of the job market (Filliettaz, 2008; Strahm, 2010). In the case of the Canton of Geneva (French-speaking region), where we conducted our research, significantly more parents of Swiss respondents were educated to the higher education standard - almost 29%. Post-secondary and secondary schools were completed by 14.4% and 6.7% respectively. 37.5% of the Swiss parents completed vocational education, and 12.5% of all Swiss respondents admitted to their parents having finished primary school or not completing primary education. It should be noted that the distribution of the level of education by sex is also different from the previously presented (averaged) figures. The mothers of our Swiss respondents were less frequently educated to a higher education level than their fathers, i.e. 26% of women held degrees compared to 32% of men, whereas secondary education yielded similar results in case of both fathers (6.7%) and mothers (6.7%). Fathers were more frequently educated to the vocational level (40%) compared to mothers (slightly over 37%).

Measuring Instrument

The tool we used was a questionnaire prepared especially for the needs of our research, consisting of 36 proposed qualities that an academic teacher should have. The catalogue of teacher's personal qualities included in the questionnaire was created on the basis of similar lists commonly found in the literature on the subject (Bogusz, 1996; Das, Mpofu, Hasan, & Stewart, 2002; Dróżka, 2001; Dumont et al., 2012; Haber, 1996; Hatem et al., 2011; Kane et al., 2004; *L'évaluation de l'enseignement par les étudiants approches critiques et pratiques innovantes [Teaching Evaluated by the Students, Critical Approaches and Innovative Practices]*, 2009; Marczuk, 2001; McLean, 2001; Penar-Zadarko, Binkowska-Bury, & Marć, 2008; Rumiński, 1996; Serow, 2000). The 36 qualities have been divided into 3 groups: Group I – *preferred university teacher qualities in the context of relations with students* (8 qualities), Group II - *preferred university teacher qualities in the context of the teacher's own scientific/didactic work* (13 qualities) and Group III - *preferred university teacher qualities in the context of personality traits* (15 qualities) - see: Table 1.

Table 1. The breakdown of preferred university teacher qualities

Group 1 – preferred university teacher qualities in the context of relations with students	**Group 2 -** preferred university teacher qualities in the context of the teacher's own scientific/didactic work	**Group 3 -** preferred university teacher qualities in the context of personality traits
1. *respecting student rights*	1. *punctuality*	1. *self-confidence*
2. *kindness*	2. *objectivity*	2. *honesty*
3. *patience towards students*	3. *consistency*	3. *broad-mindedness*
4. *understanding*	4. *conscientiousness*	4. *modesty*
5. *availability (easy contact)*	5. *being always prepared for classes*	5. *intelligence*
6. *being challenging to students*	6. *having theoretical knowledge*	6. *self-control*
7. *having ability to motivate others*	7. *having practical knowledge*	7. *responsibility*
8. *respecting other people's arguments and views*	8. *creativity*	8. *authenticity*
	9. *being communicative*	9. *straightforwardness*
	10. *using foreign languages*	10. *prudence*
	11. *participation in the international scientific cooperation network*	11. *being cultured/well-mannered*
	12. *good appearance*	12. *ability to admit mistakes*
	13. *taking care of professional image and the image of the university*	13. *being cheerful/smiling*
		14. *having a sense of humor*
		15. *empathy*

The questionnaire was then entered to the Lime Survey software (on-line questionnaire), which was used as the data collecting tool. Students could assign a value to each of the 36 qualities using a sliding scale (from 0 to 100, where 0 meant insignificant and 100 very significant) by responding to the following questions:

1. *To what extent should these be qualities characteristic of the university teacher **in relations with students?*** (8 qualities)
2. *To what extent should these be qualities characteristic of the university teacher in the context of her/his **performance of scientific and teaching work**?* (13 qualities)
3. *To what extent should these **personality traits** characterize the university teacher?* (15 qualities)

RESULTS

Preliminary analysis

Data analysis enabled us to establish a general ranking of the qualities of academic teachers desirable among our Polish and Swiss respondents. Distribution of the ten most preferred teacher qualities by Polish respondents is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Ranking of the 10 most preferred teacher qualities at the Faculty of Education of the University of Rzeszów (PL) in the opinion of students (*n=268*)

The place in the ranking	Preferred teacher qualities
1.	*having practical knowledge* (93.15)
2.	*respecting student rights* (92.86)
3.	*honesty* (92.37)
4.	*respecting other people's arguments and views* (91.76)
5.	*being a cultured/well-mannered person* (91.57)
6.	*being communicative* (91.46)
7.	*being able to admit mistakes* (91.30)
8.	*intelligence* (89.43)
9.	*objectivity* (88.84)
10.	*kindness* (88.25)

Note: Quoted in brackets are the mean values of the quality - from 0 to 100, where 0 meant insignificant and 100 very significant

The following, on the other hand, were considered to be the least important features (the place in the ranking is given in brackets): *participation in international scientific cooperation networks (36), use of foreign languages (35), good appearance (34), modesty (33), being demanding (32) and straightforwardness (31).*

Our Swiss respondents considered the following ten qualities to be most important in university teachers as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Ranking of the 10 most preferred teacher qualities at the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences at the University of Geneva (CH) in the opinion of surveyed students (*n=145*)

The place in the ranking	Preferred teacher qualities
1.	*being communicative* (91.93)
2.	*respecting other people's arguments and views* (90.44)
3.	*being able to admit mistakes* (89.67)
4.	*respecting student rights* (88.80)
5.	*always being well prepared for classes* (87.24)
6.	*having theoretical knowledge* (87.20)
7.	*objectivity* (87.14)
8.	*having practical knowledge* (86.97)
9.	*having the ability to motivate others* (86.51)
10.	*honesty* (86.23)

Note: Quoted in brackets are the mean values of the characteristic - from 0 to 100, where 0 meant insignificant and 100 very significant

The least important features were thought to be (the place in the ranking is given in brackets): *good self-presentation (36), use of foreign languages (35), taking care of professional image and the image of the university (32) and modesty (31).*

Main analysis

In order to simplify the interpretation of results we used exploratory factor analysis, which allows for a reduction in the number of dimensions subjected to further analysis. This analysis allows us to discern "deeper" structures i.e. factors, which are the source of answers given by the respondents. An essential element of this analysis is to determine the number of factors. The criteria which can also be used in this regard are the eigenvalues of factors greater than 1.0 and a scree plot. The determining criterion should always be the factual interpretability of the results obtained (Agresti, 2009; Ostasiewicz, 1999; Yanai & Ichikawa, 2006).

For the analysis of data obtained in the Faculty of Education, University of Rzeszów the scree test indicated a choice of five factors, and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 of seven factors. A five-factor solution seemed to be a better choice for the substantive interpretation of the results. The factors convey over 55% of the information included in the evaluation of 36 questions. The model matrix for the Polish respondents is presented in Table 4.

The five factors can be interpreted as:

- **Factor 1 – *Self-presentation - interpersonal attractiveness*** (good appearance, use of foreign languages, participation in international scientific cooperation networks, prudence, taking care of professional image and the image of the university, responsibility, self-confidence, modesty, straightforwardness, self-control, authenticity, having theoretical knowledge);
- **Factor 2 – *Creating and maintaining relationships with students*** (understanding, kindness, patience with students, availability/easy contact, respecting student rights);
- **Factor 3 – *Compliance with previously imposed formal requirements*** (consistency, punctuality, conscientiousness, objectivity, being demanding, always being well prepared for classes);
- **Factor 4 – *The ability to build sympathy and trust*** (the ability to admit mistakes, being cheerful, smiling, being cultured/well-mannered, having a sense of humor, honesty, having respect for other people's arguments and points of view);
- **Factor 5 - *Expertise and professionalism – practical approach*** (creativity, having practical knowledge, being communicative, intelligence, empathy, ability to motivate others, being tolerant).

Table 4. Model matrix - Polish respondents (*n=268*)

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
good appearance	.764	.143	-.132		
prudence	.691		.124	.143	
use of foreign languages	.658			-.332	.220
participation in international scientific cooperation networks	.658			-.404	.182
responsibility	.594		.167	.347	
taking care of professional image and the image of the university	.586	.193	.167		
straightforwardness	.541			.170	
self-confidence	.537	-.111			
modesty	.529				
self-control	.459	.159		.273	.104
authenticity	.392		.232	.278	.192
having theoretical knowledge	.336		.134		.163
understanding		.802	-.145		
patience with students		.726	-.178		.162
kindness		.683		.183	-.172
availability/easy contact		.534	.206	-.236	
respecting student rights	-.117	.338	.115	.115	.138
consistency	.141	-.122	.690		.158
punctuality	.189		.638		
conscientiousness	.225	.143	.577		
objectivity	-.114	.224	.553	.214	
being demanding		-.130	.518		.128
always being well prepared for classes	.281		.370		.156
having respect for other people's arguments and points of view		.211	.264	.240	.135
the ability to admit mistakes				.497	.325
being cheerful, smiling	.293	.135	-.324	.435	.266
being cultured/well-mannered	.322		.214	.413	.116
having a sense of humor	.280		-.386	.401	.298
honesty	.138	.118	.224	.400	.236
creativity		.119		-.128	.751
having practical knowledge			.108		.599
being communicative		.218			.516
empathy	.265	.152	-.123	.117	.380
intelligence	.197		.109	.165	.380
ability to motivate others		.151	.264		.368
being tolerant	.250	.196		.161	.256

Note: $p < 0.05$

The same statistical analysis was applied to the replies given by respondents from Switzerland. Considering the data obtained at the Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences at the University of Geneva, the scree test indicated a choice of five factors, and eigenvalues above 1.0 were attained by eleven factors.

It is important to note at this stage that a five-factor solution was also adopted in this case for better interpretation of the analysis, having taken the evaluation of 35 qualities into consideration. Unfortunately, one of the features – *having theoretical knowledge* – was omitted from the analysis as factor loadings at this feature were higher than 1 ($\Lambda > 1$)).

The 5 factors mentioned above convey almost 48% of all information included in the evaluation of 35 qualities. The model matrix for our Swiss respondents is presented in Table 5. These five factors can be interpreted, similarly to the Polish circumstances, as:

- **Factor 1 – *Self-presentation - interpersonal attractiveness*** (use of foreign languages, participation in international scientific cooperation networks, taking care of professional image and the image of the university);

- **Factor 2 – *Creating and maintaining relations with students*** (being tolerant, respecting student rights, kindness, empathy, patience with students, understanding, respecting other people's arguments and views, self-control, availability/easy contact, good appearance);
- **Factor 3 – *Compliance with previously imposed formal requirements*** (conscientiousness, responsibility, punctuality, being demanding, self-confidence, always being well- prepared for classes, objectivity);
- **Factor 4 – *The ability to build sympathy and trust*** (having a sense of humor, being able to admit mistakes, authenticity, being cultured/well-mannered, being cheerful, smiling; honesty, prudence, straightforwardness, modesty, intelligence);
- **Factor 5 - *Expertise and professionalism – practical approach*** (creativity, being communicative, having the ability to motivate others, having practical knowledge).

Table 5. Model matrix - Swiss respondents *(n=145)*

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
having a sense of humor	.757		.116		-.161
being able to admit mistakes	.566	.131	.152	-.277	.221
authenticity	.534	.152		.114	.114
being cultured/well-mannered	.516			.203	
being cheerful, smiling	.497	.217	.136		
honesty	.457				.415
prudence	.429	.262			.142
straightforwardness	.415		.177		.391
modesty	.397		.148		.349
intelligence	.334			.182	
being tolerant	.144	.605			
respecting student rights		.600	-.133		
kindness		.588			-.160
empathy	.186	.562		.234	-.178
patience with students		.557	.133		
understanding	.204	.501	.136		-.101
respecting other people's arguments and views		.432	.104		.207
self-control		.398	.118		.348
availability/easy contact	-.149	.288			.225
good appearance		.261		.172	.131
creativity	.294		.691	.115	-.188
being communicative			.668		-.124
having the ability to motivate others		.133	.563		
having practical knowledge			.462		.180
use of foreign languages				.748	
participation in international scientific cooperation networks			.116	.683	
taking care of professional image and the image of the university	-.164	.196	.128	.274	.200
conscientiousness				.301	.559
responsibility	.257	.120			.522
consistency					.480
punctuality	.101		.112	.112	.438
being demanding		-.128	.169	.169	.417
self-confidence		.135	-.146		.369
always being well- prepared for classes			.357		.363
objectivity			.162		.298

Note: $p < 0.05$

It is worth noting that the groups of characteristics that comprise each factor are to a large extent similar in both surveyed populations. A few of the features that have been included in the factors separated in the Swiss research complement the proposed name of the factor.

The reliability analysis has been carried out for the scales comprised of characteristics for which factor loads have been at their highest for a given item. The scales are characterized by good reliability. In most of them Cronbach's alpha is close to 0.8. Only in factor 4 for the answers of our Swiss respondents Cronbach's alpha was a little lower at 0.6. This is resulting from the fact that the scale is made of only 3 items (See Table 6).

Table 6. Reliability of the scales based on the factor analyses

	Cronbach alpha (PL)	Cronbach alpha (CH)
Factor 1 – *Self-presentation - interpersonal attractiveness*	0.89	0.85
Factor 2 – *Creating and maintaining relations with students*	0.77	0.78
Factor 3 – *Compliance with previously imposed formal requirements*	0.81	0.70
Factor 4 – *The ability to build sympathy and trust*	0.83	0.60
Factor 5 - *Expertise and professionalism – practical approach*	0.79	0.75

In order to capture the differences in the importance attributed by the different groups of respondents to individual factors (groups of academic teacher's qualities), we have conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The analysis allows for the verification of hypothesis about the existence in the population of variations in the level of researched phenomenon in the studied groups (Dodge, 2008; Rubacha, 2008).

The results of our own research conducted at the University of Rzeszów show that the respondents at the Faculty of Education, University of Rzeszów indicated mainly those qualities that refer to high level of expertise and professionalism of academic teachers (Factor 5) and their ability to build and maintain good relations with students (Factor 2). Among the 10 most frequently mentioned qualities, the most popular was *having practical knowledge* (standard significance of this characteristic on a scale from 0 to 100, 0 indicating negligible, and 100 very important, was slightly more than 93 points). It is also worth noting that the top 10 most desirable qualities involved as many as 6 related to the ability to maintain good relations with students (Factor 2), including developing mutual liking and building trust (Factor 2). Among them (the place in the ranking is given in brackets): *respecting student rights (2), honesty (3), respecting other people's arguments and views (4), being cultured/well-mannered (5), ability to admit mistakes (7), kindness (10).*

The univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicates that the variable that differentiates the attributing of significance ($p < 0.05$) to individual factors (groups of features) is the level of study (Table 7). At the undergraduate level (BA), the respondents assigned more importance to the qualities conveyed by Factor 1 - *self-presentation, interpersonal attractiveness* ($p < 0.001$). The importance of these features decreases noticeably with every year of study. Students of the final years of MA studies assigned more weight to the qualities grouped in Factor 3 - *compliance with previously imposed formal requirements* ($p < 0.001$).

Table 7. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) – Polish respondents

	Level of study	N		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Factor 1	BA	155	Between groups	.104	1	.104	.114	.736
	MA	113	Within groups	241.865	266	.909		
	Total	268	Total	241.969	267			
Factor 2	BA	155	Between groups	2.166	1	2.166	2.556	.111
	MA	113	Within groups	225.422	266	.847		
	Total	268	Total	227.588	267			
Factor 3	BA	155	Between groups	17.356	1	17.356	21.997	**.000**
	MA	113	Within groups	209.878	266	.789		
	Total	268	Total	227.234	267			
Factor 4	BA	155	Between groups	1.870	1	1.870	2.335	.128
	MA	113	Within groups	213.045	266	.801		
	Total	268	Total	214.915	267			
Factor 5	BA	155	Between groups	.893	1	.893	1.067	.303
	MA	113	Within groups	222.638	266	.837		
	Total	268	Total	223.531	267			

Note: $p < 0.05$; Factor 1 – Self-presentation - interpersonal attractiveness; Factor 2 – Creating and maintaining relations with students; Factor 3 – Compliance with previously imposed formal requirements; Factor 4 – The ability to build sympathy and trust; Factor 5 - Expertise and professionalism – practical approach

Also in case of the Swiss students, in order to capture the differences in the importance attributed by the groups of respondents to individual factors (groups of academic teacher's characteristics), we also conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Dodge, 2008; Rubacha, 2008).

The respondents from Geneva, similarly to the Polish students, indicated mainly those qualities that refer to the academic teacher's expertise, professionalism (Factor 5) and the specification of formal requirements (Factor 3). On the other hand, they also noted the value of features responsible for building and maintaining trust (Factor 4) and good relations with students (Factor 2). Out of the 10 most frequently mentioned qualities, *being communicative* comes first (standard significance of this trait on a scale of 0 to 100, where 0 meant irrelevant, and 100 very important, amounted to almost 92 points). Given the linguistic diversity of Switzerland and the existence of the four official languages of French, German, Italian and Romansh, it seems that the highest position of this characteristic in the case of Swiss respondents is understandable (Rege Colet, 2010, pp. 43–60). It is also worth noting that out of the first 10 qualities most desirable in academic teachers four were linked with the teacher's expertise, professionalism (Factor 5) and clarity of formal requirements – Factor 4 (the place in the ranking is given in brackets): *always being well prepared for classes (5), objectivity (7), having practical knowledge (8), having ability to motivate others (9).* The next 4 features in the first 10 are related to maintaining good relations with students (Factor 2) with developing mutual liking and trust (Factor 4). Among them were *respecting other people's arguments and points of view (2) being able to admit mistakes (3) respecting student rights (4),* and *honesty (10).*

The univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) performed on the Swiss data indicates that the only variable differentiating the attributing of significance ($p < 0.05$) to individual factors (groups of features) is also, as their Polish counterparts, the level of study (Table 8). At the undergraduate level (BA), the respondents from Switzerland, in contrast to their colleagues from Poland, assigned more importance to the characteristics conveyed by Factor 2- *Creating and maintaining relations with students* ($p < 0.027$) whereas the importance attached to these qualities decreases with every year of study.

Table 8. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) – Swiss respondents

	Level of study	N		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Factor 1	BA	87	Between groups	.059	1	.059	.070	.792
	MA	58	Within groups	120.513	143	.843		
	Total	145	Total	120.571	144			
Factor 2	BA	87	Between groups	3.694	1	3.694	4.631	**.033**
	MA	58	Within groups	114.071	143	.798		
	Total	145	Total	117.766	144			
Factor 3	BA	87	Between groups	.712	1	.712	.903	.344
	MA	58	Within groups	112.776	143	.789		
	Total	145	Total	113.488	144			
Factor 4	BA	87	Between groups	.788	1	.788	1.021	.314
	MA	58	Within groups	110.335	143	.772		
	Total	145	Total	111.123	144			
Factor 5	BA	87	Between groups	.445	1	.445	.549	.460
	MA	58	Within groups	116.087	143	.812		
	Total	145	Total	116.533	144			

Note: $p < 0.05$; Factor 1 – Self-presentation - interpersonal attractiveness; Factor 2 – Creating and maintaining relations with students; Factor 3 – Compliance with previously imposed formal requirements; Factor 4 – The ability to build sympathy and trust; Factor 5 - Expertise and professionalism – practical approach

It needs to be emphasized that despite the over-representation of women among our respondents (95% of the Polish and 88.3% of the Swiss respondents were women) data analysis taking into consideration this category of variable (sex) has not yielded a statistically significant difference between the opinions of students of both levels in the institutions investigated. This also regards other categories of variables (parents' education and place of residence). The variable differentiating the ascribing of significance to factors (groups of qualities) was only the level of study.

DISCUSSION

The comparative nature of this research prompted us to carry out a brief comparative analysis of the results obtained in the Polish and Swiss context. To capture the statistically significant differences in the responses, we used the univariate analysis of variance method. The collected data were compared in three sub-categories: features that should characterize an academic teacher in relations with students, in scientific and didactic work and the teacher's personality traits.

The conclusions yielded by the analysis of our research materials demonstrate that students from the two universities expressed different priorities in the characterization of an academic teacher with the initially proposed characteristics. The differences are not even subtle as the two groups chose to give precedence to different qualities.

In the Polish University these are mainly: *having the practical knowledge, respecting student rights, honesty, respecting other people's arguments and views, and being a cultured/well-mannered person*. They prefer the model of a university teacher who possesses practical knowledge applicable in everyday life, behaves respectfully towards students and is cultured and well mannered. Furthermore a vast majority of students expect their relationships with teachers to be close and friendly based on mutual understanding and trust. Our research also shows that the significance of a teacher's qualities preferred by the Polish students changes with each year of their education. The more senior and experienced they are, the less importance they attach to *self-presentation – interpersonal attractiveness* (Factor 1), attributing more relevance to the characteristics linked with knowledge, skills and competences which will help them be competitive in the job market in the future (Factor 3).

The students surveyed in Switzerland, however, considered *being communicative, respecting other people's arguments and views, being able to admit mistakes, respecting student rights and always being well prepared for classes*, as their preferred qualities of an academic teacher. It seems that the fact that our respondents from the University of Geneva attached more importance to the quality of "being communicative". This can be explained in terms of the tradition of the political system and specific character of Switzerland. It is obvious that in a country with a political culture based on direct participation of the population in cantonal and federal decision making, with its four official languages,communication is the principal, necessary and essential issue. This is even more so where the University of Geneva is concerned, as it is often chosen not only by students from different cantons, but also from other countries. In this context also the appreciation of a quality such as *respecting other people's arguments and points of view* fits in the context of the deeply rooted tradition of political culture of Switzerland and its direct democracy.

Furthermore most of the students surveyed in Switzerland, contrary to their Polish counterparts, wished for their relations with lecturers to be based on the old academic master–pupil model, with well-preserved mutual trust and respect. The significance of the qualities preferred in academic teachers changes with each year of study for the Swiss students too. More senior students attached less importance to features relating to *creating and maintaining good relations with students* (Factor 2) and more to their teachers' knowledge and professionalism (Factor 5).

Students from the University of Geneva thought their ideal teacher should be respectful of students and their rights and have extensive theoretical and practical knowledge. Such a teacher should be ideally mature, responsible and self-reflective.

Generally speaking, what distinguishes students from Poland and Switzerland is not an individual feature or quality but a group of features which comprise a broader context, consisting of the character of the relations that the surveyed students prefer to have with their academic teachers and the student's attitude towards a teacher's personality. For Polish students an academic teacher is not only treated in terms of professional relations involving the conveying of knowledge and making sure it is well assimilated. A teacher is also a companion for discussions who should both respect students and appreciate their point of view. Polish students also wish for their teachers to be well mannered and honest. It is worth noting that the choices made by the Polish subjects with regard to the characteristics of academic teachers demonstrate their maturity, ability to think critically and expression of their free views. In other words, students participate actively in the process of education, as the students from the University of Rzeszów prefer academic teachers who have knowledge that is applicable in everyday life and who respect students and are well cultured and mannered.

It seems, on the other hand, that students from the University of Geneva keep a certain distance as far as their teachers are concerned, being aware that they hold a lower position in the academic hierarchy and are recipients of the knowledge held and conveyed by experts. This might be the results of the regional cultural traditions (Weber, 2004). The Swiss students present an ideal academic teacher who is communicative and respectful of students and their rights with both theoretical and practical knowledge. They expect their lecturers to be professional, with a mature professional outlook that, in a sense, consolidates the traditional relations between a lecturer and a student based on the old master-pupil pattern. In this sense the approach of students from Geneva is more conservative than that of their Polish respondents.

PLANNING IMPLICATION FOR FACULTY RECRUITMENT AND ASSESSMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Educational theorists agree that among the various factors influencing the quality and effectiveness of university education, it is undoubtedly the university teacher who plays the most important role in university development (Przybylski, Rudnicki, & Szwed, 2010; Strykowski, 2005; Zhang, Yu, Yang, & Du, 2014). This requires that the management of higher education institutions should pay particular attention to selecting appropriate employees from among academic teachers who can meet the development mission of the university in the scope of teaching, research and public service (Zhang et al., 2014).

A young person who chooses a subject of study at the university level does so deliberately and purposefully, with a specific expectations, ideas and attitudes as related to the character of the studies concerned, and with a general idea of what university teachers should be like in terms of their roles, functions, tasks, personality traits and competences (Penar-Zadarko et al., 2008; Ramsden, 1992). This idea of a university teacher is certainly a derivative of the needs, expectations and requirements to be gained at the university and the quality of teaching it offers (Dunn & Griggs, 2000; Harland & Pickering, 2011; Kane et al., 2004; Montilla, 2006; Rege Colet, 2009).

Taking into consideration the fact that academic teachers combine the role of experts who pass on knowledge and develop skills, and pedagogues who help forming attitudes towards values, an essential element of their work is self-evaluation to enable the development of teaching skills (Brown, 2004; Struyven, Dochy, & Janssens, 2005; Wilson & Scalise, 2006). In the evaluation process, the teacher is capable of recognizing students' needs and the effectiveness of the teaching methods used. This opens the way to self-improvement and the raising of teaching competences. The professionalization of teaching skills, combined with the knowledge of students' expectations, helps teachers create an appropriate teaching environment in which to provide proper interaction based on mutual respect, understanding and partnership.

Defining the factors relevant to influencing young people's educational process effectively seems necessary, especially in the context of planning the employment of professional academic staff with the attitudes and competences required (Zhang et al., 2014) or – perhaps more than anything – a specific attitude towards students (Kane et al., 2004; Rhoades, 2012; Roth, 1999; Rozmus, 2013; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). It is therefore as important to employ professional lecturers based on this information as it is to plan well for courses and adjust them to the level of education. In this sense, college teachers should find the information from this study very helpful in planning to work with students. Knowledge of students' expectations, their preferred teacher qualities, anticipated teacher-student relations, and student age and year of study differences can certainly be very helpful. Research clearly shows that students learn more from teachers who are well-liked and appreciated rather that those who are less valued in this respect (Boynton & Boynton, 2005; Gregory & Chapman, 2007; Tucker & Stronge, 2005). This factor, among others, is decisive in the student's involvement in the learning process, and the gaining of knowledge and competences (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). Failure to meet students' expectations may pose threats, such as failing to meet planned educational results. Besides, it is important to remember that the process of higher education makes sense only when it involves professional academic teachers who will not only determine the kind of knowledge that students will need in the future but also the values that they will adhere to. The most important task ahead of academic teachers today is to learn from the findings of this study to plan to work with young people to acquire habits leading to life-long learning which benefits the rest of their lives (Harland & Pickering, 2011; Rumiński, 1996). This study offers significant findings for educators to consider in planning for elements involved in the recruitment of new faculty and assessment of their current faculty in higher education.

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October 18-20, 2016

Conference Registration Includes:
Registration & Membership
Breakfasts, Luncheons
Journal Subscriptions

To Register Visit:
www.isep.info

For further information contact:

Ken Ducote
KenDucote@msn.com

Conference Hotel
Hotel Monteleone

Reservations:
504-523-3341
1-800-217-2033

Mention ISEP

FUTURE CONFERENCES

2017-Warsaw, Poland –

ORGANIZATION

The Society was founded December 10, 1970 in Washington, DC. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.

Since then its continued growth demonstrates the need for a professions organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.

PURPOSE

The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge sand interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications, the society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.

MEMBERSHIP IN THE SOCIETY

Membership in the society is open to any person active or interested in educational planning and the purposes of the Society. To join the Society or renew a membership please complete and submit the enclosed form.
Please forward check/money order/PO to:

ISEP
Dr. Carol S. Cash, Secretary/Treasurer
6543 Cold Harbor Road
Mechanicsville, VA 23111
USA

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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