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From the Editor . . . .

This issue of *Educational Planning* features articles based on presentations made at the Twenty-Seventh Annual Meeting of the International Society for Educational Planning that was held in Philadelphia on October 2 – 5, 1997. The theme of that conference was *Educational Planning at the Threshold of a New Millennium: The Promises and the Problems.*

Mark Baron

Twenty-Ninth Annual Meeting of The International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP)

The Westin Indianapolis
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Planning for the Education of All: Implications of Changing Demographics, Increased Political Involvement, and Community Participation for Educational Planning

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PREPARING PRINCIPALS FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY: A PLANNING MODEL

Mark A. Baron

The importance of the principal's leadership has been recognized for many years. Almost three-quarters of a century ago, for example, Ellwood Cubberley stated, "The knowledge, insight, tact, skill, and qualities of helpful professional leadership of the principal of the school practically determine the ideals and standards of achievement of both teachers and pupils within the school" (1923, p. 28).

However, the most convincing evidence of the importance of the principal's leadership in high-achieving schools has emerged during the past 25 years. Effective schools research of the 1970s (Austin, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979) and the excellence movement of the 1980s (Boyer, 1983; Educational Commission of the States Task Force, 1983) have consistently identified the principal's leadership as a key element in schools having effective instructional programs. Anderson (1989) aptly summarized the research findings regarding the importance of the principal's leadership when he wrote:

> Amidst the growing body of research on effective schools and the current call for reform, the principal has emerged as a key person in the effort to achieve excellence in schools. A principal's leadership is among the most crucial elements necessary for school success, and a successful school almost always boasts of having an outstanding principal. (p. 53)

Given the principal's pivotal leadership role during a period of continued educational reform, it is incumbent on institutions of higher education to provide preparation programs that will enable aspiring principals to meet the challenges that await them. Therefore, preparation programs should focus on the development of generalizable knowledge and skills that will enable principals to address new situations and leadership roles that evolve as we move into the twenty-first century, as well as traditional ones that will persist. Such programs should emphasize knowledge and skill development rather than particular problems of practice.

Knowledge and Skills Base

In their publication *Principals for Our Changing Schools: The Knowledge and Skills Base*, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA, 1993) describes the essential knowledge and skills required of principals within 21 categories or domains. While 11 domains are primarily process or skills oriented, and the other 10 more content focused, almost all domains combine knowledge and skills that impact each other in the world of practice. Following a brief summary of the 21 knowledge and skill domains (divided into four broad themes), this paper will explore the potential application of NPBEA's model to a principal preparation program.

Functional Domains

These address the organizational processes and techniques by which the mission of the school is achieved. They provide for the educational program to be realized and allow the institution to function.

1. Leadership
   - providing purpose and direction for individuals and groups
   - shaping school culture and values
   - facilitating the development of a shared strategic vision for the school
   - formulating goals and planning change efforts with staff
   - setting priorities for one's school in the context of community priorities and students and staff needs

2. Information Collection
   - gathering data, facts, and impressions from a variety of sources about all of the school's educational stakeholders
   - seeking knowledge about policies, rules, laws, or practices
   - managing the data flow
   - classifying and organizing information for use in decision making and monitoring

3. Problem Analysis
   - analyzing relevant information to identify the important elements of a problem situation and seeking additional needed information
   - framing problems
   - identifying possible causes and solutions
   - exhibiting conceptual flexibility
   - assisting others to form reasoned opinions about problems and issues

4. Judgment
   - using the best available information to reach logical conclusions and make timely, high quality decisions
   - exhibiting tactical flexibility
   - giving priority to significant issues

5. Organizational Oversight
   - planning and scheduling work so that resources are used appropriately and short- and long-terms goals and priorities are met
   - scheduling flows of activities
   - establishing procedures to regulate activities
   - monitoring projects to meet deadlines

6. Implementation
   - putting programs and change efforts into effect
   - facilitating coordination and collaboration of tasks
   - establishing project checkpoints and monitoring progress
   - providing corrections during the process when needed
   - supporting those responsible for implementing projects and plans

7. Delegation
   - assigning projects, tasks, and responsibilities with clear authority to accomplish them in a timely manner
   - utilizing subordinates effectively
   - following up on delegated tasks

Programmatic Domains

These focus on the scope and framework of the educational program. They reflect the core technology of schools, instruction, and related supporting services, developmental activities, and resource bases.

8. Instruction and the Learning Environment
   - creating a school culture for learning
   - recognizing the development needs of students
   - ensuring appropriate instruction methodology
   - designing positive learning experiences
   - accommodating differences in cognition and achievement
   - mobilizing the participation of appropriate individuals and groups to establish a positive learning environment

9. Curriculum Design
   - understanding major curriculum design models
   - interpreting and implementing district curricula
   - planning and implementing an instructional framework with staff
   - aligning curriculum with anticipated outcomes
   - monitoring social and technological developments as they affect curriculum
   - adjusting curriculum content as needs and conditions change

10. Student Guidance and Development
    - understanding and accommodating student growth and development
    - providing for student guidance, counseling, and auxiliary services
    - utilizing and coordinating community services
    - responding to family needs
    - enlisting the participation of appropriate individuals and groups to design and conduct these programs and connect school to life-long learning opportunities for adults
    - planning a comprehensive program of student activities

11. Staff Development
    - working with faculty and staff to identify professional needs
    - planning, organizing, and facilitating programs to improve faculty and staff effectiveness that are consistent with school goals
    - supervising individuals and groups
    - providing feedback on performance
    - providing for remedial assistance
    - engaging faculty to plan and participate in recruitment and development activities
    - initiating self-development

12. Measurement and Evaluation
    - determining what diagnostic information is needed about students, staff, and the school environment
    - determining the extent to which outcomes meet previously defined standards, goals, or priorities for individuals or groups
    - using measurement or evaluation data to plan and make decisions

- interpreting measurements or evaluations for others
- relating programs to desired outcomes
- designing accountability mechanisms

13. Resource Allocation
    - procuring, apportioning, monitoring, accounting for, and evaluating fiscal, human, and time resources to reach outcomes that reflect the needs and goals of the school
    - planning and developing the budget process with appropriate staff

Interpersonal Domains

These recognize the significance of interpersonal connections in schools. They acknowledge the critical value of human relations to the satisfaction of personal and professional goals, and to the achievement of organizational purpose.

14. Motivating Others
    - creating conditions that enhance the staff's desire and willingness to focus energy on achieving educational excellence
    - planning and encouraging participation
    - facilitating teamwork and collegiality
    - treating staff in a professional manner
    - providing intellectual stimulation
    - supporting innovation
    - recognizing and rewarding effective performance
    - providing feedback, coaching, and guidance
    - providing necessary resources
    - serving as a role model

15. Interpersonal Sensitivity
    - perceiving the needs and concerns of others
    - dealing tactfully with others
    - working with others in stressful situations or conflict
    - managing conflict
    - obtaining feedback
    - recognizing multicultural differences
    - relating effectively to people of varying backgrounds

16. Oral and Nonverbal Expression
    - making clear and understandable oral presentations
    - clarifying and restating questions
    - responding, reviewing, and summarizing for groups
    - utilizing appropriate communicative aides and adapting for audiences
    - being aware of cultural and gender-based norms
17. Written Expression
    - expressing ideas clearly in writing
    - writing appropriately for different audiences
    - preparing brief memoranda, reports, letters, and other job-specific documents

Contextual Domains

These reflect the world of ideas and forces within which the school operates. They explore the intellectual, ethical, cultural, economic, political, and governmental influences on schools, including traditional and emerging perspectives.

18. Philosophical and Cultural values
    - acting with an understanding the role of education in a democratic society and in accordance with acceptable ethical standards
    - recognizing philosophical influences in education
    - reflecting an understanding of American culture

19. Legal and Regulatory Applications
    - acting in accordance with federal and state constitutional provisions, statutory standards, and regulatory applications
    - working within local rules, procedures, and directives
    - recognizing standards of care involving civil and criminal liability for negligence and intentional torts
    - administering contracts and financial accounts

20. Policy and Political Influences
    - understanding schools as political systems
    - identifying relationships between public policy and education
    - recognizing policy issues
    - affecting policies individually and through professional and public groups
    - relating policy issues to the welfare of students
    - addressing ethical issues

21. Public Relations
    - developing common perceptions about school issues
    - interacting with internal and external publics
    - understanding and responding skillfully to the electronic and printed news media
    - initiating and reporting news through appropriate channels
    - managing school reputation
    - enlisting public participation and support
    - recognizing and providing for various markets

Principal Preparation

It is apparent by examining the contents of the 21 domains that, taken together, they represent a comprehensive knowledge and skills base for the aspiring or practicing principal. They also represent a clear departure from the traditional structure of a principal preparation program. Unlike traditional programs that group knowledge and skills into discrete content areas or disciplines (e.g., school law, school business administration, etc.), each of the 21 domains represents an interdisciplinary strand that runs through all (or most) of the content areas. The domains describe generalizable knowledge and skills that can be applied to problems or situations within any (or all) of the traditional content areas. Therefore, the 21 domains provide a framework or template for a competency-based program that represents an alternative model to the traditional principal preparation program.

Competency-Based Preparation Programs

Traditional principal preparation programs, that organize instruction into discrete content areas, often fail to assure that, upon completion of their programs, students have mastered the generalizable knowledge and skills they will need to successfully face the challenges that await them. As the content-area course serves as the basic unit of a traditional program, insufficient attention frequently is given to presenting and assessing the knowledge and skills that cut across all content areas. This results in students who "know" school law or school business administration as separate entities, but lack the more general interdisciplinary knowledge and skills that would prove applicable within a variety of situations–particularly situations that are "outside" of their previous professional or classroom experiences.

A more effective approach would be a competency-based program structured around the framework of the 21 domains. Organizing instruction and assessment around the 21 domains, instead of discrete content areas, would provide a means of assuring that students possessed the knowledge and skills upon completion of their programs that would enable them to effectively deal with the myriad problems and situations they will encounter as school principals. Incorporation of the 21 domains into competency-based principal preparation programs could be accomplished at several levels.

Preliminary Assessment of Candidates

Prior to actually beginning their principal preparation programs, candidates could be assessed to identify existing areas of strength and weakness in their knowledge and skills base. Through hands-on activities, including in-basket exercises, individual and group problem solving sessions, role playing, and structured interviews, candidates could be evaluated for strengths and weaknesses in relation to each of the 21 domains. A profile for each candidate would be developed identifying areas (consisting of one or more domains) of competency and areas needing improvement. This information could then be used to shape the candidate's program of study, with greater emphasis being placed on areas of identified weakness. While the student could still take the same courses as his or her peers, greater instructional focus could be placed within each course on those areas (domains) needing strengthening. In addition, assessment within each course could concentrate more fully on those areas of greater instructional focus.

Course Content and Assessment

Another more fundamental application of the 21 domains would be related to the content and assessment for each course comprising the program of study. Faculty would develop a matrix identifying which of the 21 domains could most appropriately be addressed within each of the existing courses. Mostly likely, each course could accommodate several of the domains, and most of the domains would be addressed in more than one course throughout the program.

The domains identified for each course would then serve as focal points for instruction and assessment of that course. Course objectives (or outcomes) would reflect the domains to be addressed during that course. Through class activities, case studies, and examinations, students would be required to demonstrate competency associated with each of the identified domains. In this manner, students' progress through the program would be measured not only by how much time they spent completing each of the required courses, but also by how many and to what degree the knowledge and skills prescribed by each of the 21

domains had been demonstrated. By the end of a student's program of studies, he or she would have had to demonstrate competency in each of the 21 domains.

Principal Internships and Practica

A final area in which the 21 domains could be integrated into the traditional program would be during the principal internship or practicum. During traditional internships, most student are exposed to experiences dictated in large part by the supervising principal's interests or schedule. While the internship should be an opportunity for the student to translate classroom knowledge and skills into action and experience, many have only a limited chance to do that.

A more effective approach would apply the 21 domains to the principal internship or practicum. Each of the domains (or, at least, those domains deemed relevant by the faculty) would serve as a point of departure for the activities and experiences to be completed during the internship. Through mutual agreement and planning by the student, supervising principal, and faculty advisor, the internship would be structured to enhance the student's knowledge and skills within the prescribed domains. This would align classroom instruction (course objectives) with the internship objectives and further reinforce the opportunity to develop competency within the 21 domains.

A More Radical Approach

The above recommendations essentially assume that the 21 domains would be incorporated or integrated into a more or less traditional principal preparation program. A slightly more radical approach would be to completely eliminate the traditional program of courses and credits in favor of a truly competency-based program.

A truly competency-based program would operate on the assumption that a student's program of studies would be completed when the student had demonstrated competency in all 21 domains. While the program would still include a preliminary assessment, coursework, and an internship or practicum, each student's program of studies would depend upon their pre-existing knowledge and skills and the coursework that would be required to compliment this.

The preliminary assessment, as described above, would identify areas of competency and those areas needing improvement. In a truly competency-based program, however, each student would only be required to do coursework that addressed those areas identified as lacking competency. Rather than sitting through so many prescribed semester hours of courses, the student would be required to complete only that coursework that complimented their previously demonstrated knowledge and skills. While some students might complete their programs in two semesters, others might take considerably longer–dependent solely on when they have demonstrated competency in the areas prescribed by the 21 domains.

Organizational structure for instruction would have to be radically altered in a competency-based program. Instead of being organized around traditional content areas, instruction would be organized are the 21 domains. Rather than semester-long three credit hour courses, instruction would be organized into modules or units that each addressed one or more of the domains. Modules would scheduled for varying lengths of time depending on the amount of material or length and number of activities needed to complete the module. Some modules might last only three hours while others might take several weeks to complete. Each module would be assessed for the competency (competencies) associated with the domain(s) addressed by that module.

Modular scheduling would provide the needed flexibility to permit students to work only on those areas in need of improvement. Based upon results of the preliminary assessment, some students might be required to complete all of the modules, while others might be able to satisfy their program requirements by completing only several modules. As the program is competency-based, students might also be given credit for competencies demonstrated through alternative means such as workshops and inservice activities.

Competency-based programs would also include an extensive internship or practicum component. However, the specific activities and time spent on various aspects of the internship experience could be prescribed by individual students' needs. Based on preliminary assessment results and background experience, each student's internship could focus more explicitly on areas identified as needing improvement. While the internship should minimally include all knowledge and skill areas defined by the 21 domains, some of the domains could be more comprehensively addressed as needed.

A Final Thought

Those of us in higher education are frequently the first to introduce theoretical reform into our programs. Ideas such as nongraded education, outcome-based education, and other innovative reforms often begin in administrator and teacher preparation programs across the nation. While some of these innovations work better than others, most of them are at least tried before laid to rest.

Interestingly, we in higher education tend to be among the last to actually implement our own innovative ideas. The thought of actually implementing in our own programs most of the innovative practices that we advocate to our students is, at best, unthinkable. Perhaps we should learn from ourselves and try out some of these innovative reforms before laying them to rest within our own institutions!

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PLANNING FOR HIGHER EDUCATION: STRATEGIES, PROCESSES, AND UNRESOLVED ISSUES

Billie Goode Blair

After having been a participating member of a university community for ten years, it has become clear that not everything that goes on a university campus is of the stature and probity that is reflected in rhetoric about academe and academic tradition. When taken from the long view, many of the activities and undertakings of the university are simply humorous attempts at actions that, upon examination, were often comprised of preposterous elements and outcomes. Far fewer of a university's endeavors are able to sustain serious, long-term consideration and value.

Viewing a university's actions and processes at close hand, either as they are ongoing, or by use of case study analysis shortly after the events have transpired is an approach that has long been used by organizations in business and industry to inform the administrators and members of the organization of operational deficiencies and to point toward solutions. Very little of the research activities of any university has been devoted to capturing its own university processes for study. As a result, universities have had little basis on which to study the ways in which their business is conducted and to think productively of possible alternatives and innovations. One of the most serious omissions for study, to date, has been a close scrutiny of the strategic planning processes undertaken by universities. There is, therefore, a resulting limitation of knowledge in the area of university planning about the normative functions of planning on a university campus, expectations of the planning routine and of the scheduling of process, as well as reasonable indications of probable results and outcomes. The focus of this paper will be devoted to describing a university planning process by delineating both the schedule of events as well as the obstacles and explanatory comments regarding these obstacles, in order to allow utilization of the explication for examination of processes as well as the issues surrounding strategic planning at the university.

Strategic Planning: A Mini-Case Study of One Campus

The planning process was initiated three years ago on the San Bernardino campus as the hurried response to the recommendation of a WASC (Western Association of Schools and Colleges) accreditation team. The review team's report pointed out that there was no coherent plan of proposed action on the campus, and that it showed in the resulting lack of coordinated direction for campus efforts and activities. The report stipulated that the university engage in strategic planning processes as a means of discovering focus and direction. As a first step toward an immediate solution, an off-campus expert was sought. That is, someone who had recently done a strategic plan on his own campus was contracted with to review the university's situation during a two-day visit to campus and to provide recommendations for a remedial course of action.

As a result of the two-day visit for fact-finding, the consultant provided a report that recommended the formation of a Strategic Planning Council, to be composed of a limited number of campus representatives including the five division vice presidents, the president of the students' association, the faculty senate president, as well as "experts" in the strategic planning process. Three of us were appointed to the new Strategic Planning Council by the university president, to serve in the capacity of sharing our expertise with the council. Therefore, by virtue of the fact that we, as the selected experts, resided in three different schools, the Schools of Education, Business, and Humanities were represented by our council membership.

The Council

Once appointed, the council began its weekly meetings. In the beginning, these meetings were devoted to attempts at coalescing this very diverse group of individuals into forward-thinking strategic planners. This process was made complex by the range of background and planning abilities that each member brought to the council. The process was further challenged by preexisting operational dictates. For example, the president's operational preference was that the five vice presidents report to him, individually, and independent of cabinet-sustained direction that would have had the vice presidents acting on and determining university mission in concert. As a result, it was very difficult for the vice presidents to transition to an organizational arrangement in which collaboration was more highly prized than competition. Because of the president's long-held expectation that the vice presidents exist in a constant state of competition for resources and other kinds of attention for their divisions, it is understandable that the five vice presidents initially struggled with the new expectation that they look farther afield than their own organizations. And an ability to put the larger university picture first required the investment of a period of time during which the vice presidents were able to reorient their thinking and tailor their functioning to the needs of the council's operation.

Other members of the council exhibited difficulty in adjusting to the process, as well. Each one's difficulty related to a combination of personal orientation and regard for the constituency represented. The faculty senate president, a social worker by training, expressed early dismay at the process as outlined. During those early meetings, she repeatedly proclaimed that she didn't give a fig for planning or anything else of this sort and that she felt it smacked of all the unfortunate attributes of a capitalist and imperialistic society. She, therefore, felt that the faculty senate should not be dragged into processes such as these, and, much like the vice presidents and their interests for their own divisions, her strong preference at the time would have been for the faculty senate to be able to retain its special stature, by being removed from processes linked so closely to university administration.

The student representative also had doubts about the usefulness of the process, primarily because she felt that the students had rarely been allowed a voice in university affairs and believed that the new planning arrangement would not be able to change that circumstance. She willingly attempted to join the collaborative process, however, on the chance that there might be opportunity for the extraction of more attention from the process than the student organization had enjoyed in the past. As a result of the intent to construct a strategic plan reasoned that it was at least possible that a special orientation would be directed toward student concerns, needs, and issues. In the early stages of the planning process, however, the sense that a vocal faculty senate president would be successful in tipping the balance toward faculty concerns, rather than student concerns, diminished the early enthusiasm that the students had held for participating.

The Process

The council process, in its early stages, was largely determined by another resident "expert" who had been appointed as *staff* to the council. While this individual was certainly very well schooled in the strategic planning literature, difficulty arose when he attempted to translate the theory into rather more simple and realistic processes for the conduct of the planning process. And, he experienced even greater difficulty in aligning his people skills with those required to coalesce a diverse and, in many respects, "powerful" strategic planning council into a body that could address the issues collectively.

Very soon, then, the staff planner's efforts hovered near the stalling point, while those council members who were also knowledgeable of appropriate planning procedures, were constrained from stepping in to assist by virtue of our *serving on the council*, rather than as staff to it. In addition, there was a certain reluctance on our part to demonstrate

superior competence in areas in which he was struggling, and, therefore, to be perceived as competing with the staff planner. In the early meetings, however, a last resort brand of assistance was offered when the staff planner showed a high degree of frustration with the progress of the meeting. At these points, one or the other of us would step in to get things back on track, both to the degree possible and to the extent that we understood the planner's intended direction for the session. Planning for the early sessions were strictly in the purview the staff planner and were not shared with other planners separate from the council meetings.

At one early meeting, characterized as always by the struggle to align views and philosophies of the council, we seemed very close to moving the group toward some resolution in pursuit of a mission statement and the consensus that was needed for that step. The time allotted for the day's meeting was dwindling, but there was obvious commitment by everyone in the room to continue past the designated ending time in order to reach resolution. Most of us understood the importance of this moment as a breakthrough event and were attuned to the nature of the group's commitment and the desire to continue on the first "roll" that the group had experienced until we had a tentative draft of a mission statement. There were signs of emotional inner-turmoil as is customary at these times, but there were no signs of frustration or the desire to stop the process. However, the inner quests that were being conducted were unfortunately mistaken by the staff planner as evidence of serious unrest and discomfiture among group members. Consequently, he announced without warning that our time was up and that work would have to be continued to the next session. In many planning circumstances, this break in the thought and action processes of the planning group would have been of small consequence. For this group, however, it had the effect of breaking down very carefully constructed bonds and alliances that were just about to be solidified into a new operational state. It was almost as though, just as people were about to step outside of their solidly-cast role molds, they were given another chance to decide not to do so. With the result that the decision to step outside the role was never entered into by the group at quite the same level of possibility as that offered at this point in time. The interruption effectively destroyed the intangible work that had been done to that point and resulted in the inability, once the group reconvened at the next week's meeting, to reach agreement on the mission statement during that meeting.

Rather than understanding that much of the earlier work would have to be rebuilt to reach the level achieved at the aborted meeting, the staff planner's interpretation of the most recent meeting's deadlock was that the council was not capable of reaching a level of agreement necessary to define a mission. His judgement, then, was that this phase was best passed over and other planning phases tried with the hope that there would be better success at other tasks. The professional planners on the council were decidedly mystified by this approach, and their level of commitment and support of the process declined to some extent. At this point, they joined the other council members, who, for reasons that related to their background and responsibilities, had become thoroughly disenchanted with the process. Those that were new to the process were unhappy with it because they could see that it was not functioning as they had been led to believe. Those professional planners amongst the council membership were distraught by the missed opportunities for success of a process that they respected.

The Trials and Tribulations

From that point on, the council lacked the closure and direction that a mission statement brings to the planning processes that normally follow. The guidance that a mission statement could provide to ensuing deliberations and decision-making was lacking and those processes that were next attempted required extremely large quantities of time. The council members had missed an opportunity to process and fully explore the disparate beliefs, philosophies and preferences of those sitting on the council and to move through those

differences to find the common ground on which to build the planning for the university's future. As council members, we had not done the mental and verbal "arm wrestling" over our guiding philosophy. Consequently, each council members' version of who we were as a university remained their own, unshared version. And, as we engaged in further levels of delineation, it was abundantly clear that we did not, collectively, know who we were. Nor, who we were planning to be.

There were many ways in which this deficit became apparent as we attempted to move on to other areas of planning concentration. As a general rule, the time that would normally be anticipated for a group of this modest size (fourteen members) to process decisions on strategic assumptions and values statements was extended by many months while the issues that were earlier unresolved were debated over and over but without ever achieving the solidifying focus of being able to cast them, once debated and resolved, into a unifying mission.

The Strategically Reoccurring Issues

We, therefore, proceeded to a debate about the strategic assumptions that should be embraced as those best acknowledging not only the university's history, its setting and locale, but also its future as a regionally-based state university. And, while the council had not discovered during the mission process if we were to continue to cast ourselves as a regional university, serving a designated, two-county area of Southern California, or if, now that an era of distance learning offered promising prospects, we could begin to carve out a national or international focus, it was now impossible to know, at the point of settling on strategic assumptions, whether we were to assume nationally-oriented strategies or those more locally-oriented.

For example, it was a well-documented fact uncovered during external analysis, that the university was not attracting, and, was, therefore, underserving, large numbers of students who were of African-American and Hispanic origin. If we were to continue to be a regional university, with a local, community base in the San Bernardino and Riverside areas, a strategic assumption should certainly acknowledge this growing trend and should be accompanied by goals that sought remediation. If, on the other hand, we were to be international in focus, the local trend might be supplanted by other, international trends that needed to be addressed in our thinking and planning.

The debate lingered over many months, consuming precious time and trying the patience of council members and those who followed the progress of the council, as well. Values statements were also attempted and were likewise problematic. We ultimately managed to complete a set of statements by approaching them using a sub-committee of the council to generate individual statements of our values, one by one, and to bring one statement each week to the larger council for discussion and/or approval. Once that statement had gained approval, another would be generated and presented. And the process was repeated until there were seven values statements upon which the council agreed.

This approach was resorted to once the staff strategic planner determined that others would have to take a hand in the progress of the council. He began to hold consultative meetings, held separately from regular council meetings, with the other strategic planners on the council. The discussion at these meetings facilitated action on a plan for the course that the remainder of the planning would take. In addition to seeking guidance on the direction of planning efforts, the staff planner also requested that each planner, in turn, be responsible for one of the intended phases of the planning process. Therefore, the strategic planner who represented the School of Humanities led the values exercise. As a measure of the tediousness of the process, the council met weekly; the values exercise required three months to complete.

The many issues of debate that were at the heart of knowing what assumptions and values we were to select to highlight those foci within the scope of the university's mission consumed the remainder of the school year. Once we had struggled through values statements, however, we had, in fact done the work that should have been completed initially, and we had a better sense of agreement of who and what the university should strive to become. From that point, we could continue through the process by attempting agreement on the plan's strategic assumptions. There were, ultimately 29 strategic assumptions that were agreed upon by the council. They were grouped under our original study area headings of "general assumptions," "students," "faculty," "curriculum," "staff," "diversity," "organizational structure and plations," "school system and higher education," "finance," "information technology," and "enrollment management." This segment of the planning process (led by the School of Business strategic planner) was, again, a lengthy process, but less so than the values statement segment.

As it was my responsibility to guide the group in a generation of mission and/ or vision statements, we next proceeded to this task. And, although these are essentially two different names for the same thing, because our various strategic planning experts had preferences for what the philosophy statement in the plan was to be called, we acted in accordance with the wishes of the council to effect the compromise that led us to generate both mission and vision statements.

By this time, all members of the council were experiencing a substantial degree of frustration with the council's lack of progress, for several reasons. One, the fact that we had taken longer than a year to complete the process was loudly protested at the university's yearly leadership meeting at the beginning of the new Fall Quarter, a full year after the process had begun. The protestation was a result of our presenting where we were, to date, and the realization, by the university leaders, that our progress, in terms of tangible product, had been very slight. A second was the fact that the academic deans were beginning to bewail, frequently, that same lack of progress. They regularly expressed the need to get on with strategic planning in their schools but recounted that, out of necessity, they were being forced to wait until some of the basics of the university's plan were completed. And a third was that we, ourselves, were beginning to be disenchanted by our slow progress and believed that we *must* do better.

In this environment, marked by a mixture of frustration as well as desperation to be finished, it was a relatively easy task to convince the council to allow a subcommittee to generate first drafts of the mission and vision stahem to the council for discussion and approval. With the concerted action of both the subcommittee and the council, this process required only a week to achieve agreement on the mission and vision statements.

With assumptions, values, mission and vision completed, in final draft form, we arrived, then, at the point of setting the goals and objectives. By this point, we had been working for a year and one-half, and were inclined to believe that goals and objectives could easily be completed in the new year. After one and one-half years of long and tedious labor, it was appealing to believe that the work was soon to be at an end. Alas, our optimism overreached our ability to work effectively and efficiently.

For, after the holiday break, the direction of the council as well as a clear definition of the tasks before us, had become obscured for many members. The result was that when the new tasks were turned over to other members of the council to conduct, these individuals, who were not planners, had lost the thread of meaning that connected what we were doing to the generation of goals. In fact, the clear definition of goals and their function had been obscured. In an effort to sort their way through their confusion, they embarked on a labyrinthine process that took some time to refocus and redirect. After three months, resolution was accomplished by agreeing on a large number of goals and then doing a Delphi selection process to arrive at our six major goals. Objectives were similarly arrived at and the

process was abbreviated simply by the fact that the end of the (second) year was approaching, and the council was beset with a fervor to have the process completed.

The Personnel

From what has been related of the campus process, it might be easy to draw the conclusion that the greatest difficulty lay in the personnel who staffed the planning functions. And, while the staff planner might certainly be one whose role could have been improved, the cause of the protracted and poorly-focused planning process is not solely a result of his actions or lack of them. The problems actually lay with the orientation of the university administration to the planning activity, and, most particularly, in the structuring of the activity's conduct.

The university president had long opposed strategic planning on campus and embraced it only at the direction of the accrediting committee. The academic vice president, whom the president selected to chair the Strategic Planning Council, was the least knowledgeable member of the council, in terms of strategic planning processes. The entire focus of the administration, therefore, was one of necessity, but certainly not of interest. Because of lack of knowledge on the part of the chair of the council, when leadership was required to move the council to action, he was unsure just what was required and consistently took refuge in inaction. These circumstances allowed the planning process to be beset by a special sort of ennui that seems reserved to the processes of university campuses.

Pondering Some of Education's Imponderables

Thinking about the almost overpowering difficulty experienced in producing a strategic plan on our campus puts one in mind of Michael Marien who has said that it is the best and worst of times for higher education. He states that, "never have so many Americans participated in higher education and America's institutions of higher learning . . . [but] still, there are grinding problems of rising costs and tuition, deficits and downsizing institutions, shortages of decent careers for the upcoming generation of scholars, and declining support for teaching and research. What a grand paradox! In an age when analysts such as Peter Drucker are saying that we are becoming a knowledge society, . . . our institutions of higher learning, seemingly at the center of such a society, are sagging and struggling," (p.1).

It remains an interesting phenomenon how institutions of higher education not only manage to portray themselves to the public in this way, but, as the case study exemplifies, indeed, *do sag* in their efforts and processes. What are the explanations for the lack of enterprise and the dragging out of processes and decisions in higher education? How is it, that in the field of education, for example, our *consumers* have long asked for changes in our preparation processes, from the duration of these programs to their practical components, and have largely received very little of substantive change? Why have we, who are supposed to be the thinkers and leaders of educational efforts in the country, not learned to surge forward rather than to lag behind? And, further, *what* are the origins of an approach which is now commonly characterized and recognized by its *sag*?

Stan Davis and Jim Botkin trace the origins of education to an initial support and domination by church and family that was reversed after several decades, when the state of Massachusetts instituted taxation in support of public schools. Industrialization is seen as an additional factor in diminishing the hold on education by church and family, by eroding the educative role of the family. Therefore, the changing responsibility for education was a result of the changes in society -- when society's needs shifted, responsibility for education likewise shifted. During this period, the major incentives for educational change were political rather than economic. However, the authors state that: "when the politics of national

unity coincided with the politics of economic development in America, significant advances occurred in education. Today the politics of unity focus on racial equality and elimination of class distinction. The politics of economic development, on the other hand, focus on international trade, global competition, and jobs. The two are not aligned, and that is why political action is not moving education into the twenty-first century," (p.28).

Davis and Botkin also ask why education is one of the few remaining institutions that is national, rather than international, in scope, and they contend that the reason is that educational institutions are generally shaped by social and political forces rather then economic concerns. "The last shift in the forces driving education," they say, "was from religious to political; this time it is from political to economical." The authors believe that the values missing from government-dominated education are the economic values that can speak to the pocketbooks of the American people and that relate to how an intergenerational rise in living standards can be restored. "They are about keeping the American dream from becoming a nightmare," (p.31).

Recent comments by James Morrison portray similar thinking as he points out that American universities are cited as the best in the world and their educational environments recognized as their greatest asset. Morrison notes, however, that when businesses are in positions of holding a competitive edge they seek ways to exploit that edge by seeking to use it in as many ways and settings as possible, thus generating additional cash flow and contributing to the organization and its shareholders' wealth. A corollary for American universities is that there are infinite possibilities to generate additional resources, for example, by expanding horizons to global opportunities.

Theo Leverenz shares words of advice on the need for universities to cast about more broadly and to independently form ideas about direction and mission. His musings use the ideas of earlier philosophers, who have noted the university's intricate involvement in the fabric of society, and build on these truths to formulate cautionary advise for modern-day universities. He speculates that universities must now discern how best to respond and interact with the larger community and must develop the ability to shape the future rather than accepting a future shaped by others.

James Ogilvy sees the future as encompassing a new educational order in which technology and the dynamics of the marketplace assist in redrawing the boundaries between the personal and political, as well as the private and public. He concludes that these circumstances will result in universities becoming socially engaged service institutions in contrast to today's ivory towers, but that this change will require greater imagination in the creation of new forms of delivery systems.

In thinking about the clamor for university change, James Wood and Linda Valenzuela chronicle recent attempts to "dismantle" higher education, as it is currently known. Some of the instances that they cite include:

[1]"A California legislator proposed to form a campus-closing commission that would annually select entire California universities for closure because of expected future budget cuts;

[2] A businessman offers to financially help higher education, but only after the "tenure problem" has been solved;

[3] The Monsanto Corporation produces and distributes a video featuring its CEO attacking the university and tenure;

[4] Serious attempts -- some already successful -- to eliminate college affirmative action policies are underway;

[5] Congressional Republicans propose to eliminate the federal Department of Education to save federal dollars," (p.62).

Wood and Valenzuela see these actions as the first of many more that can be expected as pressure builds to bring about change in higher education.

In reflecting on the current state of higher education, Peter Sacks has emphasized the fact that the professorate have been taken off their guard by the changes in society. He reports that "few scholars saw that their careers would be held hostage to the collective power of student consumers," (p.74). And he contends that "the real challenge to higher education in America as we approach the millennium is how to come to terms with the fragmented and contested terrain of learning arising from profound shifts in the mother culture itself," (p. 80).

Davis and Botkin see business as the reluctant heir to the dilemma in higher education and they say that "business will not assume the lead by usurping the role of director of the nation's schools. It does not wish or seek to inherit this public trust. Instead, overlapping with the declining school system, it is almost unintentionally evolving new meanings for learning and new methods for delivering education. And it is doing so in ways that are consistent with its fundamental role as business, competitively fulfilling unmet needs in the marketplace. All business visions are anchored in this fundamental belief," (p.34).

A Thinking Summary

The early section of this paper focused on a university strategic planning process as a means of focusing on the way in which current opportunities to determine higher education's future are being dealt with. Of note in this example are the following facts: (1) strategic planning was attempted only at the bidding of the university's accrediting agency; (2) no budget, other than a line item for the staff strategic planner's salary and part-time secretarial support was devoted to a process which relies on numerous data runs, broad searches of community input and resources, and constant compilation and distribution of materials and information sourcework, (3) the process itself, while consuming large amounts of personnel resources, in terms of the time of individuals serving on the Council, was vested with little in the form of incentives for endeavor, determination and drive; (4) the quality of personnel chosen for leadership roles in the Council further ensured a circuitous and measured approach; (5) little attention was given to ensuring that all council participants had acquired, previous to the beginning of the planning process, a requisite background of information from which to operate; and (6) when serious stumbling blocks were reached, little attention was given to alternative approaches and expeditious remedy.

In other words, the case study provides a very good example of Marien's description of the sagging and struggling institution of higher education. In looking at the elements that contributed to this exhibition of organizational malaise, major factors responsible for a poor engagement in planning are: (1) lack of commitment by university administration, including reluctance to devote financial resources; (2) insufficient skill combined with a lack of a sense of urgency of those poised at the center of the process, resulting in; (3) an overall lack of dedication to the process. In sum, the university remained uncommitted to the process, both from the onset and throughout, as exemplified and exhibited in the numerous ways examined above.

These and like experiences lead one to question whether it is possible for strategic planning processes to assist universities in gaining their share of a stake in the future. Will it be possible to guide university faculties, unused to the concerted effort that planning for the future entails, to do so in the timely manner necessary to be advantaged by the waves of the future? Or, are f planning that can be created to better assist a university in grappling with its future?

To begin to answer these questions, one must clearly acknowledge the current make-up of the university. The university is composed of the professorate who abide by an intricate and complex set of self-generated and self-imposed rules and who exist to offer

educational challenges to those seeking higher levels of knowledge. This group of educational generators is able to exist and function through support from staff supportive services who ensure that facilities, material and equipment are available and through support from the university administration who justify and accumulate resources necessary to conduct the affairs of the university. The educational generators are also supported by the willingness of large numbers of students to seek the endorsements that the university has a right to confer.

Unlike business organizations, and even other forms of institutions, whose acknowledged mission is jointly defined, or defined by the managers and owners and subscribed to by the organization's members upon acceptance of employment, individual educational programs at the university rarely talk to one another and would see it as an infringement to be asked to engage in cross-academic planning on the campus. If departments of history had to be accountable to departments of English for what was in their courses of study and both had to be accountable to departments science and all had to seek common strands and common presentation arrangements, in an attempt to provide an integrative curriculum, then the university would begin to approach the notion of a true organization. However, the design of a university, currently, is an accumulation of individuals, arranged in collectives of educational entrepreneurs, or, departments and disciplines, each packaging and offering coursework with the expectation of attracting students, or purchasers of their products. Each collective provides its own design and delivery processes with little thought of or consultation with those from other collectives.

Likewise, the collectives are supported in their efforts by other independent operations on campus, who provide the educational facilities, sales facilities, and fiscal collection facilities that undergird the educational efforts. The two collective bodies, staff and faculty, however, cross paths to a limited extent and are unlikely to entertain notions of joint planning efforts. Planning for the upkeep of facilities, takes place in a Division of Administrative Services, who view themselves as highly qualified to carry out this function and very little in need of consulting outside the division.

The university's administrators, a third collective on campuses, attempt to affiliate themselves with a faculty function, but are actually little-consulted in the affairs of the faculty. They are, in reality, the organizers of the central functions of the university, again, often with limited consultation with the other two collectives of personnel.

And the university's students form the fourth collective, appearing on campus at regular, but limited intervals, and little interested in long-term commitments to the institution, but rather, understandably, committed to personal and career goals. Students, therefore, rarely exert effort toward organizing joint planning agreements with any of the other collectives and rarely even communicate outside their group, except to conduct one-on-one discussions with faculty, about coursework, or with staff, when attempting to fulfill the bureaucratic requirements of the university. Students, therefore, are also unlikely candidates for whom interest in long-range planning for the university might be generated.

Given an examination of the *separateness* on which the organization of the university is based, there is a felt need to suggest other approaches to planning; and additional concern that these approaches be quite different from the standard strategic planning approaches commonly known. Three such approaches come to mind. The first, would be a radical shift away from the academy organization of the university, where faculty is held to be preeminent and who hold full power in the design and offering of the academic agenda, or, curriculum. In this approach, professional planners would be engaged as consultants to conduct indepth study of the university, searching for the predominant strengths of the organization and identifying less effective areas. This approach would result in cost benefit analyses of the university's offerings, among other things, and would culminate in a plan for future direction, based on the best utilization of existing human and

financial capital. At the instance of the plan's implementation, areas of focus for the upcoming years would be embarked upon according to the design and prescription of the plan.

A second approach, would involve university administration in working with professional planners to set university mission and goals into a plan for the future. This approach, as the one above, also would not acknowledge faculty as the central determiners of educational program. As the plan was transmitted to all university divisions, academic as well as support divisions, all members of the organization, by their collective units, would be expected to set annual and long-range objectives to fulfill the intent of the university's goals. In this plan, promotion and retention of staff and faculty would be a result of the degree of success in meeting agreed-upon objectives of the unit.

A third approach might be to engage the academic faculty in a series of structured exercises, such as Delphi techniques, with the intent of determining a rank-ordered listing of goals for the next three to five years. Included as part of an extensive process of this sort would be the determination of program offerings and specificities. In engaging in this process, faculty would agree that, in acquiring the power to set the mission of the university, they would also be bound by the derived decisions on university direction for the future.

While none of these approaches would be easily accomplished, they do offer the possibility of bringing the university, within a short period of time, into alignment with the needs of the future. In addition, each process carries other benefit in that each requires a change from the existing, divisive structure of the university. And, it is certainly possible that any one of the approaches might be able to be implemented in the same length of time that is required for a university to engage in current processes of university-wide strategic planning, and most likely with a more lasting effect. It is for all of us, then, to ponder, further, avenues that might be explored to address the issues of planning for institutions of higher education, and, in wrestling with the circumstances that must addressed for the future, to determine to experiment with some alternative processes of promise.

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An Evaluation of the Participatory Planning Approach to School Facility Planning

Tak Cheung Chan

The participatory planning approach has been widely publicized as a management tool for team activities. When a team is assigned to accomplish a task, some kind of systematic flow has to be followed. "Participatory planning is a structured approach to managing planning tasks of high complexity. The idea is derived from the saying that two heads work better than one. When a team of people is involved in the planning process, each member of the team contributes his/her expertise to achieve the planning goal." (Chan, 1997)

Participatory planning approach has been employed by many school systems in their facility planning process. It is more than a democratic way of managing a school planning project. Through participating planning, the publicity of the school construction project begins to gain momentum. However, because of the complexity of facility planning process, many school systems are reluctant to take the participatory planning approach all the way from the beginning to the end.

Organization of Participatory Planning

For the planning team to work efficiently, the following groups of people need to be represented in the participatory planning process:

- Facility occupants: principals, teachers, staff and students
- Design professionals: architects, engineers and facility planners
- Educational supervisors: program directors and school district consultants
- Facility managers: school district planning director and school maintenance director
- Community representatives: parents and community leaders

They can be organized to function in many different ways to serve the planning purpose. One of the successful models the author had experience with is one involving the establishment of a steering committee and several sub-committees. "The steering committee is responsible for planning and coordinating all the tasks assigned to the sub-committees which are responsible for planning in specialized areas. Members of the steering committee are usually assigned to chair the sub-committees." (Chan, 1997) The strength of the model is in its organizational structure. Members of the steering committee who also chair their respective sub-committees are entrusted with the responsibility to organize their individual sub-committees and report back to the steering committee. Recommendations made by the sub-committees are evaluated by the steering committee before submitted to the school board for approval.

Phases of School Facility Planning

When the steering committee and the sub-committees are organized, they are ready to start planning the facility project. Six phases can be identified in the facility planning process: Preparation Phase, Programming Phase, Design Phase, Bidding and Contracting Phase, Construction Phase and Warranty Phase. To evaluate the participatory planning approach to facility planning, the author attempts to closely examine the activities in each planning phase to identify the roles and functions of the participatory planning team.

The Preparation Phase:

An activity of this beginning phase is a need assessment to justify the construction project. Work includes enrollment forecasting, facility inventory and facility evaluation. The planning team will fit in really well with the nature of these tasks. Another activity of this phase is to secure the source of project funding which also ties in with the scheduling of the project. The planning team's effort in this respect can be very valuable. In addition, the planning team can really contribute to the fairness and appropriateness of the architect and site selection processes.

The Programming Phase:

The role of the planning team in the programming phase is significant because the designers will need all the guidelines and directions from the planning team to proceed with their design work. All the sub-committees will work in their areas of specialization to come up with the best programming ideas for the steering committee. Ideas and recommendations to the steering committee will be carefully reviewed and compiled into the educational specifications which consist of the educational program requirements, the physical support requirements and spatial relationship. The completion of the educational specifications represents a major accomplishment of the participatory planning process.

Design Phase:

All the technical design work in the Design Phase is performed by the architects and engineers who follow closely the program directions as given in the educational specifications. A schematic design proposal will be submitted to the steering committee and the sub-committees for review. Any recommendation for change will be submitted to the school board for approval. To continue develop the design package, the architects and engineers work extensively with the school system staff who will inform and consult the planning team as needed.

The Bidding and Contracting Phase:

When the drawings and construction specifications are completed by the designers and approved by the school board, the project will be advertised for bids. Other activities in this phase include bid opening, bid analysis, negotiations and contract award. Since the staff and the architects are the experts of the work in this phase, they are the ones actually monitoring the process. The planning team will be informed as the project progresses and will be consulted at critical issues.

Construction Phase:

In the Construction Phase, the school system staff, the architects and the engineers will be very busy supervising and coordinating the construction of the school. Any change order or construction dispute will be handled jointly by the architects and the school system staff. The planning team will be informed of the construction progress per schedule and be consulted in issues significantly affecting the scope of the project.

Warranty Phase:

When construction is complete, the school is inspected and occupied. The planning team will visit the school to examine the end product of its planning effort. At the end of the Warranty Phase, the planning team will meet again for an overall evaluation of the project. All planning lessons learned will be reported to the school system staff for improvement in later projects. During this warranty period, any problems with punch list items and system malfunctions will be handled through the architects and the school system staff.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Participatory Planning

One of the best feature of participatory planning is to take advantage of the best of available resources for project development. In going through the participatory planning process, members generate a sense of belonging and become strong supporters of the project. In addition, participating planning process allows sharing and distribution of responsibilities. The greatest strength in the organizational structure of the approach is the function of the steering committee in overseeing and coordinating the effort of all the sub-committees.

On the other hand, the implementation of the participatory planning approach is not without difficulties. Depending on the size of the facility project, the entire planning team could be very large and the complexity in work coordination could become a problem. Besides, the creation of a project planning team could place additional burden on the much-to-blame organizational bureaucracy. In addition, the school system administrators need to constantly balance between democracy and project efficiency in implementing the participating planning process.

Participatory Planning Issues

(1) The organizational capacity of the planning committees has to be specifically spelled out to avoid any administrative conflict. Some planning committees are advisory in nature and some are created to follow the line of authority in the school system. The school superintendent together with the facility director need to outline the duties and responsibilities of planning committees for the school board's approval.

(2) During the planning and construction period, any change of work which would significantly alter the original scope of the project needs to be evaluated by the planning team so that the impact of this change on educational programs can be assessed. This is more than a matter of courtesy. The elimination of certain design features, for instance, could be detrimental to some programs.

(3) It is very important that the parents and the community leaders participate in school facility planning because the school is to be constructed within the communities with public fund. Experience tells that the earlier the communities are involved in school construction projects, the stronger support they will give to the project.

(4) When the planning team has exerted its effort in planning, it should be given the opportunity to evaluate the product of planning. Their planning experiences and project evaluation report will be fed back to the process of planning another new facility. No excuse should be given for missing this important step of participatory facility planning.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that participatory planning is a unique approach to school facility planning. It plays significant roles in different phases of facility planning. The most active role it plays is in the first two phases: Preparation Phase and Programming Phase when the educational framework of the school building is constructed. In the Design Phase, Bidding and Contracting Phase and Construction Phase, the participatory planning approach takes place in a confined group of professionals who are members of the planning team. These professionals are assigned the work because of their expertise in legal, technical and professional areas. On the other hand, the planning team assumes more of a supervisory and consultative role. In the Warranty Phase, the participatory planning approach takes place in the team evaluation of the planning effort and product.

To conclude, the participatory planning approach works in school facility planning. It facilitates the planning effort with different emphasis in all the planning phases. School systems need to make the best use of the participatory planning strength to their advantage.

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OPENING EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN CHINA

Tak Cheung Chan

The focus of the educational reform in China in the last two decades has been on opening educational opportunities to the people who have desperate need for education. It has become apparent that the great demand for education is responsible for this period of Chinese educational reform. The background of this educational reform movement can be traced back to the Cultural Revolution 1966-76 when all the schools were practically closed down. It was a nightmare for the youngsters who were up to school age at that time.

Soon after, the Cultural Revolution started the modernization movement in four areas: industrial modernization, agricultural modernization, military modernization and technological modernization. Education was deliberately excluded from this modernization movement at that time because of China's priority to recover from economic bankruptcy. Therefore, the movement to open educational opportunities in China did not gain much momentum until the early 1980's. What the Chinese educators were facing at that time was a disheartened broken team of teachers who had been physically and mentally insulted during the Cultural Revolution. Existing school facilities which had survived the great disaster either were obsolete or had been severely damaged by the "red guards". The government was shocked by the number of up-to-age children which had enormously increased after the Cultural Revolution. At the same time, a surprisingly great demand for education also came from those young people who had lost their educational opportunities during the Cultural Revolution. It was under such difficult circumstances that China started to rebuild its modern education system.

Strategies to Open Educational Opportunities

It was not an easy task to open educational opportunities to meet the great educational demand of a huge population in China. Because of political and economic constraints, the progress in opening educational opportunities was slow to begin with. It was not until the government had reviewed the entire educational policies and drafted its basic strategies: strengthening economy to support education, decentralization of authorities and employment of multi-channel approach.

Strengthening Economy to Support Education

It was well understood by the Chinese policy makers that any educational reform would be fruitless without enormous economic support. But, during the entire 1970's, China's priority was feeding everybody, not educating everybody. It was not until China's economic situation improved that China could invest in education. Some of the economic measures of the time included: privatization, joint venture, property ownership, one child family, free labor market and abolition of residential restriction. Since then, China has been slowly progressing in its economic development. In the last ten years, China has been able to develop a more realistic budget to open educational opportunities.

Decentralization of Authorities

In the Mo Tze-tung years when everything was under central control, educational planning of China was developed in Beijing to be followed by provincial and local governments. It took a long time for the government to be convinced that given the authority and support, the provincial and local governments could do an equally good job if not better. As a matter of fact, educational plans developed at the provincial and local levels have been able to address the local needs more specifically than the central government's. In addition,

provincial and local responses to authority decentralization have been overwhelmingly supportive. As a result, much voluntary effort has been contributed to offer educational

opportunities than was ever anticipated because local governments now claim ownership of the projects and take pride in the success of their local districts.

Multi-channel Approach

One of the government decisions to develop education was to leave the door open to many interested parties to participate in education. Private sector plays a very significant role in opening educational opportunities in China through direct donations, establishing education support foundations and erecting schools. The most distinct groups in the private sector are the overseas Chinese and the religious organizations. Since the end of the Cultural Revolution, China has established academic contacts, exchanges and collaboration with many overseas educational institutes offering many opportunities for student learning.

Achievement in Elementary and Secondary Education

The greatest achievement in opening educational opportunities in elementary and secondary education was the initiation of the nine year mandatory education in 1986. Because of the variation in geographical areas, the mandatory education program was scheduled to be implemented at different time. Other government measures to open educational opportunities included: compensation for remote schools, allowing students free choice of study, encouraging educational investment through matching fund, and establishing school-business collaboration. A distinguishing effort of the private sector to offer educational opportunities is shown in the most successful "Hope Project". Since its initiation in the mid 1980's, the project has raised fund for China to build over 600 schools in remote and underprivileged areas of China.

Achievement in Higher Education

The most progressive improvement in higher education has been the removal of political prequalifications for college admission and the approval of academic degree earning through public examination. These measures have opened up great educational opportunities for many people especially the survived victims of the Cultural Revolution. Another enlightening move was the operation of a nationwide university through telecommunication. This has soon become a major attraction to the young people who have not been formally admitted to college yet are so anxious to learn. Since the early 1980's, major universities in China have reactivated their academic degree programs especially paying attention to the expansion of their graduate schools. Collaborative effort has been made with other overseas universities to offer programs of great demand. On the other hand, the "blind rush" to quantitative achievement in the early 1980's was corrected by consolidating smaller colleges and controlling the registration of new ones.

Achievement in Vocational and Business Education

One of the unresolved problems of human resource distribution in China has been what to do with the large number of non-skilled high school graduates who are denied admission to college. Until the end of the 1970's, the technical or vocational programs in China were still confined to students at the secondary level. Recognizing the demand of large number of college rejects who need special job training, the new vocational secondary schools were created to focus on training service and business oriented youngsters to suit the market needs. The new vocational secondary schools seem to be the answer to the problem. Since opening, they have offered thousands of vocational and business training opportunities for the youngsters.

Educational Opportunities and Social and Economic Development

The opening of educational opportunities was achieved mostly by the effort of the government and the private sector to meet the basic educational needs. But, credit should also be given to the social and economic development that fostered the growth of educational demands. Some of the significant social and economic issues that brought about the development of educational opportunities are discussed in the following:

Business Demand: More qualified workers are needed to support business demand as economy continues to grow. The government has to take action to meet the business needs.

One Child Family: Since the one child family policy was adopted, parents have placed great emphasis on the educational opportunities of their only child. Thus the push for opening more opportunities for educational recognition has become apparent throughout the country.

Release of Residential Restriction: More and more people have come to reside in the urban areas of China to compete for employment after the release of residential restriction became effective. The demand for better educational opportunities arose as a result of the employment seekers' attempt to better qualify themselves for competition.

Abolition of Central Manpower Planning: The model of central manpower planning was substituted by the model of manpower demand per market economy. Since the policy change, the government and the private sector have been very active in their investment in education to offer opportunities as indicated by the market demand.

Concluding Observations

As China continues its development of educational opportunities, attention should be drawn to the following emerging issues:

1. There is a great need to balance educational opportunities between the urban and the rural areas in China. The development of rural education has been ignored with all the country's attention focused on the industrial urban districts.

2. There is a tendency in China to allow economy to dictate educational needs and opportunities. However, China could not afford losing a leadership role or accepting a passive position in education. Both are equally devastating.

3. A review of recent statistics indicates that out of 100 students who completed elementary schools, only 75 went to middle schools, 30 went to high schools and only 3 ended up in college. More could be done to offer opportunities in vocational and business education to take care of the enormous amount of dropouts.

To conclude, the government has to be applauded in its effort and support to open educational opportunities in China especially during such difficult times after the Cultural Revolution. Many aspects of their improvement effort are encouraging and innovative. However, because of the vastness of the country and the intensity of the demand, much more has yet to be done to open the educational opportunities in China.

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Managing the Dynamic Forces That Will Influence The Curriculum In The New Millennium

Walter S. Polka

The purpose of this presentation is to assist those involved in the strategic planning process to recognize the significance of the change process and its impact upon education today, as well as in the future. There are dynamic forces constantly at work, influencing and changing the curriculum that we present to our students, no matter how much resistance to change exists at the various local, state and national levels. It is important to use the changes that have already occurred in the curriculum as a springboard for future changes that strategic planners view as necessary. Strategic planners need to know about educational changes in order to control them, and give them the appropriate focus, as opposed to being "shocked" by them and simply surprised by their curricular wake.

This presentation specifically provides a useful management guide that assists in reviewing the eight dynamic forces that influence the school curriculum, and some of the specific changes which have occurred in each of those forces during the past fifty years. These eight dynamic forces are: Characteristics of Contemporary Society; Educational Philosophy of the Society; Basic Educational Needs and Values; Nature of the Learners; The Teaching-Learning Process; Instructional Supplies, Materials and Resources; Educational Technologies: and School Facilities and Furnishings. This presentation also enables the reader to hypothesize about what the future curriculum may be like, given the historical past as well as the present status of the school curriculum.

Dynamic Influences on the Curriculum

There are many different definitions of the school curriculum. However, for purposes of this presentation, the curriculum will be broadly defined as: ***All of the learning experiences that occur under the auspices of the school.*** The commonly cited components of the school curriculum include: programs, teaching/learning situations, subject matter/courses, concepts, objectives, materials, evaluations and all associated learning activities.

However, the curriculum is constantly evolving to reflect changes in the contemporary society of the school. Since the school is both a mirror of the society and a "looking glass" into the society, it is both responsive to the societal changes and serves as a catalyst for them. Literature and research relating to the school curriculum have identified eight dynamic influencers of the curriculum, which are as follows: characteristics of the contemporary society; educational philosophy of the society; basic human needs and values; nature of the learners; the teaching/learning process; instructional supplies, materials and resources; educational technology; and school facilities and furnishings. The key points of each of the dynamic influencers are specified below in order to illustrate their impact on the school curriculum. A time chart is also included to cogently portray the trends of the past fifty years associated with each dynamic influencer.

Characteristics of the Contemporary Society

This dynamic influencer is quite dramatic since our society has changed so much in the past fifty years. Some futurists contend that there has been more change in the last twenty-five years than in the previous two hundred years, and the rate of change will continue to accelerate.

Our society has changed in several significant ways even in the past twenty-five years. Some examples include: the work force, the family, interpersonal relations, age issues, gender issues, ethnic issues and technological developments.

Fifty years ago, our society was segregated. The school curriculum had an industrial-age orientation, with standardization as a primary goal. Twenty-five years ago, integration became a major focus of our society. At the present time, we have a focus on respect for others and minority rights, and a heightened appreciation of differences.

Characteristics of the Contemporary Society

1945-50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Segregated. Industrial focus with some rural ideas in an increasingly urban world. Standardization is a goal.	Integration is a goal. Respect for the individual and different ideas. Increased Democracy, but with increased disillusionment and protest.	Respect for others and minority rights. Title IX, Americans with Disabilities Act (A.D.A.). Appreciation of Differences. Emergence of Chaos Theory...non-readily discernable patterns.

Educational Philosophy of the Society

This evolutionary component has had a major impact on the curriculum. Uri Bronfenbrenner, comparing education in both the United States and the former Soviet Union, identified that when the other dynamic factors are relatively equal, if the philosophy of the society is different, then different outcomes for students will occur. One system will produce students who are more group oriented and cooperative, while another will produce students who are more individualistic and competitive.

Educational Philosophy of the Society

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Idealism and Realism predominate; some Pragmatism. Goal: useful and competent person based on needs. Hierarchically-arranged subject matter- "Great Books" and 3-R's. Nationalism and the cultural maintenance role of education. Stress on competition.	Idealism and Realism still predominate, but Existentialism and Pragmatism are evident. Goal: rational and competent person based on needs and differences. The basics with emphasis on activities and projects. Internationalism and the social reconstruction role of education. Stress on competition-cooperation.	Realism and Pragmatism are major orientations with Idealism and Existentialism maintaining a significant presence. Goal: rational and competent person based on needs and personal choices. Individual, group activities and projects. "It takes a Whole Village to Educate One Child." Stress on cooperation-competition.

This becomes an important consideration when we do international comparisons, or even comparisons between various school districts in one country, because the philosophies operating have a direct impact upon the school curriculum. For instance, at Lewiston-Porter and

throughout New York State, we believe that , "all children can learn; not the same day, or in the same way; but all children can learn." Other school districts may believe in sorting and selecting students at various key decision points in the curriculum. Subsequently, test-taking populations will differ significantly, thus effecting data analysis.

Basic Educational Needs and Values

This dynamic influencer is also constantly changing. At one time, schools focused on creating a warm and safe environment for learning to occur. However, we have moved from that basic Maslow lower level need of safety to the higher level needs of helping students develop their sense of belonging, their sense of love, their self-esteem and their self-actualization.

A review of the history of American schools reveals that this trend has been evolving , and is especially significant as we move from the industrial age to the post-industrial age, since in the information society there is a greater focus on the individual.

The values associated with public education have also under gone change in the past few decades. There is less of an emphasis on nationalism, patriotism and "rugged" individualism, and more of any emphasis on internationalism, human rights and self esteem.

Basic Educational Needs and Values

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Defined on the basis of the Seven Cardinal Principles, with a focus on: self-preservation, vocation, family living and citizenship. Major values = patriotism, democracy, capitalism and "rugged" individualism.	Defined on the basis of Ten Imperative Needs of Youth, with focus on scientific method, appreciation of aesthetics and critical thinking. Major values = democracy, independence and self-esteem.	Defined on the basis of The Educational Imperatives (A.A.S.A.), with an emphasis on discovering and nurturing creative talent, dealing with social and psychological tensions, using resources wisely, and preparing for the post-industrial "Global Village". Major values = democracy, nterdependence, human rights and self-esteem.

The Nature of the Learners

One of the most changing influencers on the curriculum is the student population itself. Students change every year, as new kindergartners enter school and senior classes become alumni.

The nature of learners in our schools has definitely changed over the past fifty years. The students of today are becoming more and more a high-tech generation, having grown up with television, video games, computers, and other high-tech items. The students are definitely different, and so are their educational expectations. In 1910, 80% of the population dropped out before Grade 9. In 1950, half of the students dropped out of high school before graduation. In 1990, at Lewiston-Porter, less than 1% dropped out before high school graduation. Also, three times as many students enter college today as was the case in 1950. This is significant, since it indicates that we are closer to our vision of helping each student reach his/her greatest learning potential, and become life-long learners.

The students who are in our schools today certainly represent a multicultural cross-section of society. Many students in our schools today would have been separated or segregated out fifty years ago, because of various handicaps or other non-majority differences.

The first experiences in I.Q. testing occurred shortly before World War I. We have continued to identify different ways to teach and different ways to measure students' knowledge and abilities. Howard Gardner, and other educators, contend that we still are only teaching to and measuring the intelligences of the "logic" (the mathematic) and the linguistic" (sensitivity to language, meanings, and the relations among words) intelligences similar to what we did twenty-five years ago. But, we now know that students posses other intelligences, such as the : "spatial", "musical", "intra and inter-personal", "bodily/kinesthetic" (athletic) and "environmental." At the present time, schools are just beginning to recognize these different intelligences and learning styles and provide for them in the curriculum by considering them as part of authentic teaching and assessment strategies.

The Nature of the Learners

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Samenesses highlighted, sorting and selection to "homogeneity". Tracking and grouping of students De facto segregation based on ability, race, gender and/or handicaps. Verbal and mathematical intelligences emphasized.	Integration of some students. Greater heterogeneity and more open access curriculum. Some ability tracking and grouping. Verbal and mathematical intelligences emphasized, but recognition of artistic and kinesic intelligences.	Open access curriculum - Inclusion - "All children can learn". Recognition of differences and different learning styles. Limited tracking. Multiple intelligences recognized.

The Teaching/Learning Process

Knowledge about the teaching/leaning process itself is constantly undergoing change. Education is a very old art, but is a rapidly developing new science. The current focus on Individual Education Plans (I.E.P.'s) in special education is also promoting the concept of customizing learning experiences for all students.

Fifty years ago, "convergence" in the classroom was a major orientation. At present, the teacher's role as "Sage on The Stage" is evolving to the "Guide on The Side" role.

We have recently dissected the specifics of the teaching/learning process. Madelaine Hunter, in developing the "Elements of Instruction", applied psychological principles to the teaching/learning process to enumerate and analyze the best known specifics of "how students learn best" and "how teachers teach best." We are continually adding to our knowledge about the teaching/learning process, including contemporary research on cooperative learning, learning styles, and brain growth spurts and plateaus. Differences are also being more readily accepted in schools, and inclusion of all students is becoming more of a reality.

The Teaching/Learning Process

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Didactic and Socratic approaches. Scientific method applied to teaching. Stress on "convergence" in the classroom. Teacher as "Sage On Stage".	Direct teaching and lesson planning based on Didactic and Socratic approaches. Some group work. Application of Scientific Method. Diagnostic tests and measurements used.	Greater emphasis on cooperative learning. Creative problem solving and scientific methods used with attention to "The Elements of Effective Instruction." Some focus on individual needs (I.E.P.'s). Portfolio assessments used.bLess classroom convergence.

Instructional Supplies, Materials and Resources

This dynamic influencer has drastically changed in the past fifty years. Our technological advancement has significantly affected the current supplies and materials available to teachers and students. Although textbooks still serve as basic learning tools, the textbooks themselves have become more reflective of new high-tech photos, computer graphics, holograms and inter-active programs. They reflect a more global and diverse orientation vis-a-vis the topics covered, and they are being supplemented by a plethora of resource kits, software and video components. Also, there are more student self-directed resources and materials available. The community is becoming more the laboratory of the schools as more business partnerships, student internships, work experience programs and action research are focused on the community.

Instructional Supplies, Materials and Resources

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Textbooks, workbooks, filmstrips and movies. Teacher constructed materials.	Textbooks, workbooks, movies, filmstrips, reading series, ditto sheets, learning packets and teacher-made supplements.	Textbooks, workbooks, videos, Xerox copies, manipulatives, publishers' kits and supplements, software packages, CD's, and teacher-made materials and programs.

Educational Technologies

The technological equipment available to assist teachers in the delivery of the curriculum to students has also experienced a significant change in the past fifty years. The changes in those delivering technology have an impact on the curriculum itself because they expand the opportunities for students, teachers and curriculum interactions. Only fifty years ago, blackboards, chalk, and personal writing tools such as pens and lead pencils were the predominant technologies used by teachers in the delivery of the curriculum. Occasionally, opaque projectors facilitated large group presentations, as did movie and slide strip projectors. Mastery of the use of the slide rule was a must for any serious math and science student. Eventually, ditto machines made individual worksheets and learning packages a viable substitute for some of the blackboard work of the past. Office telephones for parent-student communication

were considered progressive. Today, most schools are equipped with calculators, computers, computers, fax machines, cellular phones and some distance learning tools.

The computer is becoming as much a tool in the classroom as the overhead projector was twenty-five years ago, and the blackboard was fifty years ago. Distance learning opportunities and satellite interactions currently enhance the "virtual reality" experiences of our students vis-a-vis the curriculum.

Educational Technologies

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
Opaque projectors, filmstrip projectors, blackboards, chalk and lead pencils, movie projectors, slide rules, typewriters and office telephones.	Overhead projectors, movie projectors, filmstrip projectors, slide projectors, "greenboards", "white boards", grease pencils and flair pens, easels, ditto machines, tape recorders, telephones and electric typewriters.	Video equipment, calculators, computers, copiers, FAX machines, cellular phones, personal pagers, digital and laser equipment, distance- learning equipment, micro-cassettes, CD players and CD ROMs.

School Facilities and Furnishings

The school facilities that contain students, and the furnishings used in the facilities continue to change. Current facilities have more of a focus on research and interaction. For example, libraries have become media centers which include equipment that didn't exist fifty years ago: calculators, computers, VCR units, fax machines, etc. The classrooms themselves have evolved into more interactive spaces than the structured teacher-oriented classrooms which were designed for the teacher-focused and controlled interactions of the past. The standard rows of desks have changed to self-study desk and chair units, and various table designs which encourage student interactions.

Twenty-five years ago, there was a widespread movement toward more "open space" type school facilities with flexible spaces. Flexibility and diversity are current foci of school design, and furnishings are more ergomatically oriented than in the past. Computer work sites and more "real world" styles, as well as "real world" experiences, are becoming more obvious in the current student-focused schools.

School Facilities and Furnishings

1945 - 50 Years Ago	1970 - 25 Years Ago	1995 - Present Time
The "Quincy Box" or "Egg Carton" school design predominates. Immovable furnishings. Structured ambience. Raised teacher platform and desk. Rows of student desks. Focus on teachers.	Predominance of "Egg Cartons", but some "Open Space" buildings and classrooms. Flexible space, stand-alone desks and tables of various shapes.	Ergomatically-designed desks and furnishings. Computer work sites that replicate the real work world. Comfortable areas and quiet spaces for study. Diverse school designs.

These eight foregoing dynamic forces constantly influence the curriculum and promote continual change in the programs, teaching/learning situations, subject matter/courses, concepts, objectives, materials, evaluations, and all associated learning activities.

A review of the historical past as well as the present, vis-a-vis these dynamic forces, provides one with a perspective about the curriculum from which to hypothesize about its future. Given the historical changes in each of these dynamic influences, it is possible to predict the school curriculum approximately twenty-five years from now (2025). Of course, the rapidity of the change process itself, the reaction to change on the part of society as a whole and schools as institutions, and the general uncertainty of the future always makes such predictions difficult and challenging. However, as a stimulus for thought about the future of the curriculum, based upon the historical changes of the past, the accompanying chart, entitled, "Present and Future Trends in the Dynamic Forces that Influence the School Curriculum", was developed as a reference tool. It contains images of the probable future of the school curriculum, based on the ever-changing eight dynamic influences.

Summary

The last chart in this document, entitled, "Historical Changes in the Dynamic Forces That Influence the School Curriculum", combines the information presented on each of the previous eight specific dynamic influence charts, as well as the "Present and Future Trends in the Dynamic Forces that Influence the School Curriculum" chart. It serves as a valuable strategic planning curriculum reference tool, because it appropriately encapsulates the changing trends in each of the dynamic factors, and provides a sense of direction for future visions. A suggested activity is to enlarge this final chart, and present it in the enlarged format as a summary of the dynamic forces that influence the school curriculum.

Educators knowledgeable about these dynamic forces that will continue to influence the curriculum in the new millennium will be able to make more effective management related to them. Subsequently, the change process in schools will be more effectively managed, resulting in more significant systematic changes in the school curriculum.

Historical Changes in the
Dynamic Forces that Influence the School Curriculum

Curriculum Factor	1995 - Present Time	2020 - 25 Years from Now
Educational Philosophy of the Society	Realism and Pragmatism are major orientations with Idealism and Existentialism maintaining a significant presence. Goal: rational and competent person based on needs and personal choices. Individual, group activities and projects. "It takes a Whole Village to Educate One Child." Stress on cooperation-competition.	Existentialism and Pragmatism predominate, but there is genuine acceptance of Idealism and Realism perspectives. Goal: rational, competent and sensitive person based on needs and personal choices. "Real World" experiences and projects. "It takes a Whole World to Educate One Child." Stress on cooperation.

Characteristics of Contemporary Society	Respect for others and minority rights. Title IX, Americans with Disabilities Act (A.D.A.). Appreciation of differences. Emergence of Chaos Theory... non-readily discernable patterns.	Respect for individuality. With the absence of a clear majority, more minorities are predominate; ergo, greater tolerance and acceptance. Global interdependence with a technology focus. Uniqueness is a goal.
Educational Philosophy of the Society	Realism and Pragmatism are major orientations with Idealism and Existentialism maintaining a significant presence. Goal: rational and competent person based on needs and personal choices. Individual, group activities and projects. "It takes a Whole Village to Educate One Child." Stress on cooperation-competition.	Existentialism and Pragmatism predominate, but there is genuine acceptance of Idealism and Realism perspectives. Goal: rational, competent and sensitive person based on needs and personal choices. "Real World" experiences and projects. "It takes a Whole World to Educate One Child." Stress on cooperation.
Nature of the Learners	Open access curriculum - Inclusion - "All children can learn." Recognition of differences and different learning styles. Limited tracking. Multiple intelligences recognized.	Differences emphasized, greater implementation of learning styles concepts. More intensive Inclusion and greater use of multiple intelligences.
The Teaching-Learning Process	Greater emphasis on cooperative learning. Creative problemsolving and scientific methods used with attention to "The Elements of Effective Instruction." Some focus on individual needs (I.E.P.s). Portfolio assessments used. Less classroom convergence.	More student-centered instruction... customized learning programs for all students. Greater student options and learning flexibility. Emphasis on creative approaches. Stress on "Divergence" in the classroom. Teacher as "Guide on the Side."
Instructional Supplies, Materials and Resources	Textbooks, workbooks, videos, Xerox Copies, manipulatives, publisher's kits and supplements, software packages, CD's, and teacher-made materials and programs.	Centrally-provided via satellite internets and personally-used "Virtual Reality" software programs. Lap-top type personal receivers and transmitters. Global multi-media resources at each student's fingertips.
Educational Technologies	Video equipment, calculators, computers, copiers, FAX machines, cellular phones, personal pagers, digital and laser equipment, distance-learning equipment, micro-cassettes, CD players and CD ROMs.	Personalized telecommunication machines - voice-activatedviewers, word processors and research tools. Satellite resources and "real time" interactive computers that help create effective customized learning experiences. Micro lasers and digital equipment.
School Facilities and Furnishings	Ergomatically-designed desks and furnishings. Computer work sites that replicate the real work world. Comfortable areas and quiet spaces for study. Diverse school designs.	More community-based learning sites. "Shopping Mall' designed schools with increased flexibility and personal appeal. More multi-age/ multi-use facilities. Focus on learners.

Future Roles and Functions of Pennsylvania's Educational Service Agencies

F. Rosella Stellman

The United States and Pennsylvania educational systems are undergoing intensive critical evaluation. A study of Pennsylvania's intermediate units is timely because they play a key role in equity, quality, and cost-effective education in the state's local school districts, critical issues in this evaluation. The purpose of the study was to determine the recommended future roles and functions for Pennsylvania's IUs as perceived by three groups: executive directors, school district superintendents, and state policymakers, all of whom have decision making power over these ESAs.

Thirty-six states in the United States report having some type of education service agencies (ESA) positioned between the state department of education and the local school districts, resulting in a three-echelon educational system. Those that do not, tend to have county school districts or a state-wide school district. Twenty-one states have ESAs similar in governance structure to Pennsylvania's Intermediate Units [American Association of Education Service Agencies (AAESA), 1996; Firestone & Wilson, 1982a & 1982b; Jacobsen, 1991; Stephens, 1979; Stephens & Christiansen, 1995; Yin & Gwaltney, 1981]. Called "special districts" by Stephens, these ESAs are: highly structured by legislation and regulation; governed by local boards; advised by local school districts; and, finally, financed by a mix of local, regional, state and state/federal funds (Stephens, 1979).

A review of the literature indicated that E. Robert Stephens is a recognized, national expert on interdistrict collaboration typically assigned to ESAs. Stephens and Turner (1991) developed seven anticipated future dimensions for these special district ESAs. These dimensions are new governance features, new structural features, extended mission, expanded programming profile, finite funding, rigorous accountability, and organizational development. The dimensions delineated by Stephens and Turner are displayed on Analysis Matrix on page 5. The likelihood that these dimensions will occur in Pennsylvania's special district ESAs is the focus of this doctoral study. Since the origin and historical development of Pennsylvania's IUs followed national patterns, it is appropriate that a study of these intermediate units address Stephens and Turner's anticipated dimensions for ESAs across the United States.

The current study focuses on special district ESAs in Pennsylvania, where they are referred to as Intermediate Units, or IUs. These IUs are the middle level between the Pennsylvania Department of Education and the local school districts in a three-echelon organizational system. Pennsylvania's IUs were created in 1970 by the Pennsylvania Legislature. This legislation empowered IUs to provide educational support services, including curriculum development and instructional improvement, research and planning, instructional materials, continuing professional education, pupil personnel services, and management services to the Commonwealth's 501 school districts and their communities. It also gave IUs responsibility for special education and permission to provide any services requested by their local school districts (Pennsylvania General Assembly, 1970).

Current IUs provide support services to the local school districts, ensure equal opportunity for quality education, expand and extend educational opportunities to all students, and make services available on a cost-effective basis (Pennsylvania Association of Intermediate Unit Directors, 1992). While the exact mix of programs and services offered through various units differs, the common mission of Pennsylvania's IUs is to provide

innovative, responsive, and cost-effective services for Pennsylvania's local school districts (Edwards, 1990).

The "equal partnership concept" for all echelons is advocated, and ESAs function best when local districts are strong. Also, effective ESAs should strengthen local school districts (Lagana, 1995). As a special district, IUs assist in communicating knowledge related to new-state priorities. Also as organizations, IUs must participate in systemic renewal to prevent organization atrophy.

This article summarizes future dimensions for Pennsylvania's IUs as recommended by IU executive directors, school district superintendents, and/or state policymakers through survey methodology. A discussion of Stephens and Turner's (1991) anticipated dimensions and each specific feature within each category for IUs, based on the recommendations of leaders who exercise power over Pennsylvania's IUs, is held.

Comparison of mean scores on various dimensions between groups served to identify concurrence of opinion regarding future roles and functions of IUs. It is reasonable to argue that when the state policymaking authorities, school district representatives, and implementors of state policy (executive directors) concur, the likelihood for a particular future is greater than when the critical actors disagree substantially*f*the fact that the three groups may possess unequal formal power to affect change, notwithstanding. For this reason, the research identified future dimensions, and specific features of these dimensions, on which there is highest intergroup agreement, moderate intergroup agreement, or lowest intergroup agreement based on differences between group mean scores as measured by ANOVAs.

Within the governance features, the study predicts no reduction in the number of independent IUs, but including urban IUs and ISCs in interdistrict agencies could occur, if superintendent and state policymakers become convinced of the desirability of these changes.

Regarding structural features, the study moderately supports program advisory groups; however, the study moderately supports (lowest range) granting substantial decision making roles to the superintendents' advisory council, only if executive directors' support can be obtained.

Within new or expanded dimensions of the IU mission, 6 specific features are highly recommended. Of these, three*f*cost-effective delivery of education, coalition building, and stewardship of state information*f*are highly recommended. In spite of the high recommendation for two other specific features*f*technical assistance and capacity building and enhancing educational quality*f*there are significant contrasts between the three rater groups. Three specific features of the mission are only moderately recommended: equalizing educational opportunities, program initiation, and program evaluation.

The anticipated major programming profile contains several major categories. The study highly recommends direct instructional support to low-incidence disabled students, but only moderately supports direct instructional support for high-incidence disabled students. The feasibility of direct instructional support for new populations is low, for vocational-technical students and gifted students; however, moderate support exists for the remaining four groups*f*pre-school students, at-risk students, geographically isolated students, nonpublic students, and adult learners, but with significant disagreement on the part of district superintendents. With strong leadership from executive director, increased services in the areas of distance learning, computer skills, instructional leadership, and library and media may be feasible. However, district support services related to increasing parental involvement or high school graduation needs stronger superintendent support to be viable. The study moderately supports IU services for English, history, and geography curriculum development, but highly supports IU services for information-age requirements and staff development. The

Analysis Matrix

Ascribed Desirability (Mean Score)

Degree of Agreement (Significance Level of F Ratio)	Lowest (1.00 - 3.49)	Moderate (3.50 - 3.99)	Highest (4.00 - 5.00)
Highest Agreement (0.51 - 1.0)	Program Evaluation (C)*	English & History Curriculum (D)	
	Vo-Tech Students (D)	Geography Curriculum (D)	
	Gifted Students (D)	Organizational Effectiveness (F)	
	Disabled Schools (E)	Organizational Processes (F)	
	Full Range of Services (E)	Equalize Education (C)	
	Reduction in # of IUs (A)	Nonpublic Contracts (E)	
		Program Advisory Groups (B)	
Moderate Agreement (0.06 - 0.50)	Early Childhood (E)	Student Accountability (D)	Cost-effective Education (C)
	Regional Vo-Techs (E)	State Accountability (E)	Coalition Building (C)
	Math & Science Admin. (E)	Data Processing (D)	Information Stewardship (C)
		Chapter 5 Curriculum Regulations (E)	Low-incidence Disabled (D)
		Instructional Support (E)	
		High-incidence Disabled (D)	
		Academic Competitions (D)	
Lowest Agreement (0.00 - 0.05)	At-Risk Students (D)*	Pre-school Students (D)	Technical Assistance (C)
	Geographic Isolation (D)*	Service Contracts (E)	PSS Full Partnership (G)
	Nonpublic Student Services (D)*	District Demographics (D)	Distance Learning (D)
	Adult Learners (D)*	Program Initiation (C)	Computer Skills (D)
	Parental Involvement (D)*		Instructional Leadership (D)
	Graduation Rates (D)*		Core Development (G)
	Superintendents' Advisory (B)*		Media & Library (D)
			Staff Development (D)
			Enhance Quality (C)
			Urban IUs (A)
			Information-age Society (D)
			ISCs (A)

Note: Parts A refers to new governance features; Part B refers to new structural features; Part C refers to extended mission; Part D refers to expanded programming profile; Part E refers to finite funding; Part F refers to rigorous accountability; Part F refers to organizational development.
*Reflects a survey moderate mean score.

desirability of IUs providing instructional support services, other than mandated nonpublic services, is very low. However, student performance accountability services and data processing services are moderately supported by the study. In order for IU services to differ based on school district demographics, superintendents must be convinced of the desirability of this approach.

In terms of funding, the likelihood that state funds will be increased to finance programs and services related to new state priorities is supported by the study. The study does not support categorical regional taxing power for IUs. In addition, the study supports continued nonpublic school contracts. However, the extension of IU optional contracted services to school districts needs stronger superintendent support.

In addition, an IU accountability system with performance indicators to assess organizational effectiveness and organizational processes is moderately supported by the study.

Also, the study supports professional development for core operating IU professionals and full partnership credibility for IUs*f*issues related to organizational development.

The results of this study of the future roles and functions of Pennsylvania's IUs support some specific characteristics within each of the seven dimensions anticipated by Stephens and Turner in 1991. The study adds to the knowledge base that state, local, and regional officials need for open dialogue and for sound decision making on the future of these middle-echelon educational service agencies.

Based on the results of this study, IUs should expand and extend services related to the cost-effective delivery of education to local school districts, coalition building between/among the human service agencies, and provision of state-level information to the local districts. Also, direct instructional support should continue to be provided to low-incidence disabled students. Furthermore, efforts should be made to gain state level support for including urban IUs and Instructional Support Centers in interdistrict IUs.

While increased state funding for programs and services directly related to new state priorities are indicated, no consideration should be given to granting categorical regional taxing power to IUs. Service contracts should continue to be used for nonpublic school services. Optional district services should be contracted where adequate superintendent support can be obtained.

While the study highly supports the following recommendations, the executive directors' ratings were significantly higher than the superintendents' ratings. Therefore, the following recommendations should only be implemented if adequate superintendent support can be established. IUs could assume responsibility for enhancing the quality of education and providing technical assistance and capacity building in the local school districts. Also, IUs could extend or enhance programming support services to school districts related to the following topics: distance learning, computer skills, instructional leadership, media and library, staff development, and information-age requirements. Given the necessary support, IUs could expend resources to provide extensive professional development opportunities for the core operating team. IUs should also be extended full partnership creditability within the state educational system with adequate agreement among the three leadership groups.

In addition, an IU accountability system based on performance indicators of organizational effectiveness and organizational processes should be initiated. Advisory groups, consisting of district personnel, should be convened for planning, implementing, and evaluating IU programs and services, but granting budgetary decision making power to superintendents' advisory councils needs stronger executive directors support. Furthermore,

IU curriculum services related to planned course development should be provided. Finally, IUs should carry a primary responsibility for equalizing educational opportunities and enhancing educational quality for all students in the region's school districts.

Given adequate local support, each IU should consider the possibility of providing the following programs and services: data processing, instructional leadership, academic competitions, and student performance accountability. Also, with stronger district support, direct instructional services could be provided to high-incidence disabled students and pre-school age children. Local consideration should be given to differentiating IU services based on demographics of constituent school district, as well as program initiation in school districts. IU executive directors and district superintendents should work for consensus in determining those programs and services needed in the regional area.

IUs should not consider services for vocational-technical students, at-risk students, geographically-isolated students, and gifted students. Programs related to parental involvement, high school graduation rate improvement, program evaluation, or nonpublic school students should not be implemented without stronger superintendent support.

Clearly, strong support for IU programs and services exists within the three respondent groups. Note that all programs and services received moderate or extensive mean scores from all three rater groups. Better communication between IU executive directors and school director superintendents could enhance decision making on a regional level. Educational leaders should capitalize on the ascribed desirability of IU programs and services expressed in the survey results and implement as many study recommendations as possible. Since the three respondent groups exercise position power over IUs, it is critical that all decisions be derived through consensus based on current research and adequate information.

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Toward a Critical Practice of Educational Planning

Selahattin Turan

Introduction and Purpose

Planning Is In A Crisis State

To its avid supporters, planning is a quasi-science that incorporates the latest developments in the information and administrative sciences, the insights of the social science disciplines, and the design capabilities of engineering professions. Yet, in spite of new and powerful technology capable of analyzing vast amounts of data, determining trends, and modeling alternative futures, planning is in *a crisis state* (Adams, 1991, p. 5). [Emphasis added]

Toward A New Mode of Thinking

For the son of a peasant who has grown up within the narrow confines of his village and spends his whole life in the place of his birth, the mode of thinking and speaking characteristic of that village is something that he takes entirely for granted. But for the country lad who goes to the city and adapts himself gradually to city life, the rural mode of living and thinking ceases to be something to be taken granted. He has won a certain detachment from it, and he distinguishes now, perhaps quite consciously, between "rural" and "urban" modes of thought and ideas. In this distinction lie the first beginnings of that approach which the sociology of knowledge seeks to develop in full detail. That which within a given group is accepted as absolute appears to the outsider conditioned by the group situation and recognized as partial (in this case, as "rural") (Mannheim, 1936, pp. 281-2).

Toward A Humane Science Of Educational Planning

Critical theory gives us a new way of understanding action, or what a planner does, as attention-shaping (communicative action), rather than more narrowly as a means to a particular end (instrumental action). If planners do not recognize how their ordinary actions may have subtle communicative effects, the planners may be well-meaning but counterproductive nonetheless. They may be sincere but *mistrusted*, rigorous but *unappreciated*, reassuring yet *resented*. Where they intend to help, planners may create *dependency*; where they intend to express good faith, they may raise expectations *unrealistically* (Forester, 1985, p. 203). [Emphasis added].

Adams (1991) states that the field of educational planning is in a crisis state. The indicators of the crisis are as follows:

(a) the question of definition,
(b) (b) the question of intellectual or scientific foundation,
(c) the question of success, and
(d) the question of ideology.

The crisis of educational planning is a part of the failure of the conventional social thought in social sciences. Traditional approaches view educational planning as technical problem-solving and information processing system. Studies of educational planning informed by these conventional approaches become inadequate in understanding the realities of practice because these models ignore social context of planning. Issues concerning values,

misuse of power, child poverty, illiteracy, basic health care, and domination have been removed from the discussion and teaching of educational planning. The literature of educational planing never discuses issues in the context of wider social arrangements. Moral and ethical issues are rarely studied, in some cases, never addressed in the university training programs and textbooks of educational planning.

The new aim of educational planning should focus on *improving human condition* and contributing a meaningful, just, caring, and equitable society for all. The role and the meaning of educational planning should be redefined and revised for the coming 21st century. How we can address some issues of the field? It is difficult question to answer. However, I believe that the new developments in social theory and thought can help us to reframe our thinking and revise our theories in the light of critical, feminist, and postmodern perspectives. The purpose of this paper is to outline the basic beliefs of alternative theories and their possible implications to the field of educational planning. The emphasis will be placed on critical theory in developing a different mode of thinking in educational planing as a humane science.

Traditional Theories of Educational Planning

Traditional-conventional theories treat educational planning as technical problem-solving and information processing system. This orthodox understanding of planning and its ability to understand complex issues of planning has been questioned (Forester, 1993, 1989, 1985; Hamilton, 1991). Forester (1989, p. 14) states that

one widely held cultural view treats planning as technical problem solving: Given goals and ends, planners are to figure out the best means to achieve them. A second view borrows from varieties of systems theory and treats planning as means of processing information and feedback. Both view are appealing, but neither may be true to the realities of practice.

The technical problem-solving model gives a straight forward rational or goals to be accomplished. "Planning is viewed as a process of setting goals, developing strategies and operational plans from the goals, and devising performance criteria to measure the attainment of the goals and achievement of plan" (Hamilton, 1991, p, 24). This model ignores the social context of planning. This model works well where ends are given and stable.

Means-ends thinking 'works' as long as ends are given and stable; means are unique and self-justifying; and problems are routine and stable. But this is usually not the case in planning situations:

(1) ends are not only given, but they may conflict;

(2)there are always conflicting means to any end; and

(3) problems change, preferences and tastes change, and new values are discovered.

Planners need to reformulate problems, strategies, and solution approaches rather than follow standardized procedures (Forester, 1993, p. 20)

The second dominant approach to educational planning is the social system view which emphasizes the importance of information processing and feedback. The system theory may work in setting where problems and goals are well defined and issues are identified.

Paradigms and Promises

In these challenging times, the ability of traditional social sciences to understand human affairs in the context of larger social, and political, and economic arrangements are

challenged and questioned. Kuhn (1970) reminded us that there is different frameworks of thought in understanding the world around us. These different frameworks of thought are called paradigms which close and definition of truth used in science.

Guba (1990) states that all past and emergent paradigms and their basic beliefs are characterized by the way their proponents respond to three questions:

- *the ontological*-What is the nature of the "knowable"? or, What is the nature of "reality"?
- *the epistemological*-What is the nature of relationship between the knower(the inquirer) and the known (or knowable)?
- *the methodical*-How should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge? (Guba, 1990).

The Basic Beliefs of Positivism

Ontology: Realist-reality exists "out there" and is driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Knowledge of these entities, laws, and mechanisms is conventionally summarized in the form of time-and context-free generalizations. Some of these latter generalizations take the form of cause-effect laws.

Epistemology: Dualist/objectivist-it is both possible and essential for the inquirer to adopt a distant, noninteractive posture. Values and other biasing and confounding factors are thereby automatically excluded from influencing the outcomes.

Methodology: Experimental/manipulative-questions and/or hypotheses are stated in advance in propositional forms and subjected to empirical tests (falsification) under carefully controlled conditions.

The Basic Beliefs of Postpositivism

Ontology: Critical realist-reality exists but can never be fully apprehended. It is driven by natural laws that can be only incompletely understood.

Epistemology: *Modified objectivist*- objectivity remains a regulatory ideal, but it can only be approximated, with special emphasis placed on external guardians as such as the critical tradition and the critical community.

Methodology: Modified experimental/manipulative-emphasize critical multiplism. Redress imbalances by doing inquiry in more natural grounded theory, and reintroducing discovery into the inquiry process.

The Basic Beliefs of Critical Theory

Ontology: critical realist, as in the case of postpositivism

Epistemology: subjectivist, in the sense that values mediate inquiry

Methodology: *dialogic, transformative*; eliminate false consciousness and energize and facilitate transformation

The Basic Beliefs of Constructivism

Ontology: Relativist-realities exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experimentally based, local and specific. dependent for their form and context on the persons who hold them.

Epistemology: Subjectivist-inquirer and inquired into are fused into a single (monistic) entity. Findings are literally the creation of the process of interaction between the two.

Methodology: Hermeneutic, dialectic-individual constructions are elicited and refined hermeneutically, and compared and contrasted dialectically, with the aim of generating one (or a few) constructions on which there is substantial consensus (Guba, 1990, pp. 17-27).

Critical Theory, feminism, and postmodernism: Main Ideas

A brief introduction to the main ideas of critical theory, feminism, and postmodernism will be outlined in the following pages in order to see possible impact of these paradigms on the theory and practice of educational planning. New approaches provide different mode of thinking and framework in situating and understanding the issues in the context of wider social arrangements.

C*ritical theory* is associated with the Institute for Social Research, established in Germany in 1923 and staffed by Theodor W. Adorno, Max Horkheimer, Herbert Marcuse, Friedrich Pollock, Leo Lowenthal, and Walter Benjamin. The most well known representative of critical theory is Jurgen Habermas. Horkheimer departs significantly from certain positions of the founders (Agger, 1991).

The Frankfurt thinkers believed that rational-positivism informed by traditional philosophy functions ideologically and failed to explain and penetrate the world of things to show the underlying relations between individuals (Horkheimer, 1972).

> The hopes of mankind seem to be farther from fulfillment today than they were even in the groping epochs when they were first formulated by humanists. It seems that even as technical knowledge expands the horizon of man's thought and activity, his autonomy as an individual, his ability to resist the growing apparatus of mass manipulation, his power of imagination, his independent judgment appear to be reduced. Advance in technical facilities for enlightenment is accompanied by a process of dehumanization. Thus progress threatens to nullify the very goal it is supposed to realize-the idea of man (Horkheimer, 1974, p. vi).

Reason is developed and based on metaphysical, rational, and modern science were the way of thinking and the force in dehumanizationing of the society. Reason has become an ideology of economic exploitation and had no intention to transform the reality. Horkheimer (1974) & Marcuse (1973) pointed out the fundamental problems of the present impasse in philosophical thinking and attempted to inquire into the concept of rationality that underlines contemporary industrial culture and society and looked at the concept of rationality which contained defects. In the *Eclipse of Reason*, Horkheimer (1974) analyzed three schools of reason [*metaphysical, rationalism, and positivism*] and their impact on daily lives of individuals. The basic beliefs of conventional reason can be summarized as follows:

Reason	**Source of the Truth-reality**
Metaphysical	Revelation & Scripture.
Rational	Rational Argument
Modern science	Observation and Testable Premises (facts are the truth)

Horkheimer (1974) stated there was little difference between metaphysical, rationalistic, and positivism in transforming reality and improving human condition.

> Positivism carries its critique of dogmatism to the point of nullifying the principle of truth in the name of which alone the critique make sense. Neo Thomism upholds the principle so rigidly that truth actually turns into its opposite. Both schools are heteronomous in character. One tends to replace autonomous reason by the automatism of streamlined methodology, the other by the authority of a dogma (Horkheimer, 1974, p. 91).

Critical thinkers target positivism because it has become justifying tool in domination of power which serve for the interest of oppressor. Agger (1991, 109) states that "

> [c]ritical theory targets positivism both on the level of everyday life and in social theories that reduce the social world to patterns of cause and effect. In this sense, a good deal of bourgeois social science comes under sharp attack for lacking the sort of dialectical imagination that enables social scientists to look beyond the appearance of given social facts toward (and as a way of achieving) new social facts-the end of class society, patriarchy, racism, and the domination of nature. Since no values and feelings are taken into the consideration, orthodox view of science leaves the question of historical development aside and becomes instrumental to the prevailing structure of power.

Feminism challenges existing power relations between men and women in society. Blackmore (1993, 27) states that administration and policy-making in education have been, and still are, the province of men, although women make up a large proportion of educational workers." Feminism is a political movement which is aimed at "changing existing power relations between women and men in society. These power relations structure all areas of life, the family, education and welfare, the worlds of work and politics, culture and leisure. They determine who does what and for whom, what we are and what we might become" (Weedon, 1987, p. 1).

Postmodernism challenges and discredits the major concepts of modernism. Three death characterize the position of postmodernism: (a) The Death of Man, (b) The Death of History, and (c) The Death of Metaphysics. Postmodernism rejects essentialist conceptions of human being and nature. They see man as a social, historical, or linguistic artifact (Flax, 1990). In general, postmodernism challenges:

> (1) the idea that there is a single foundational epistemology by which all objects and events are to be judged; (2) the view that "rationality" and "scientific method" are singular modes of thinking; (3) that "progress" marks the history of Western civilization; (4) that institutions are somehow committed to ends, goals, and aims-while means are free from ethical/moral considerations; and (5) that only two stances face us-objectivism or relativism-as we seek to create better institutions and people in the future (Maxcy, 1991, p. 133).

Conclusion

In this challenging times, the conventional orthodox approaches of educational planning become inadequate in understanding the issues in the context of wider social arrangements. The new alternative approaches informed by critical theory, feminism, and postmodernism provide different mode of thinking and framework in dealing with planning issues in educational settings. In depth studies are needed to develop a feminist, critical, and postmodern theories of educational planning. New theories of educational planning will help us to situate educational planning in the context of wider social arrangements.

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EMERGENT PLANNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE FOUNDATION OF A NEW MODEL

Reg Urbanowski

Introduction

Planning has been identified as a management tool that serves to bridge past performance, present situation, and desired future. Branch (1990) defines planning as a process that has to do with conditions and problems of the real world. Rational planning models attempt to apply basic system principles to uncover real, probable, and possible consequences that exist for various organizational behavior sets (Nedwek & Neal, 1994; van Vught, 1994). Contingency models highlight the inextricable link between organizations and their environments and seek to develop blueprints for future behavior, based on past results, assuming that the future will hold constant or predictable (Neumann, 1995). Constructivist models work from the observer to the observed, from the planner to the planned (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In the rational and contingency models, the existence of the objective, external world is the focus of attention of the planner. In the constructivist model, the focus of attention is the inner sanctum of those involved in the planning process (Neumann, 1995). From that vantagepoint, new forms of organizational reality can be constructed (Carlson, 1996). Plans can then be developed that are in concert with the tacit paradigms of those charged with developing the vision and direction of the organization as a holistic entity (Simsek & Heydinger, 1993).

There have been various models of planning that have evolved over time. The evolution of planning models has followed the evolution of management models which in turn seem to have involved as society itself has transformed (Parkin, 1993). To put it simply, the evolution of planning has been a reification of social constraints and enhancing conditions that have had their roots in social institutions and cultural values, beliefs, and norms. Juxtaposed beside key social phenomena of the times, is an ontological development of planning over time.

Most recently, the advent of sparse resources, the development of new and innovative information technologies, and the globalization of business and higher education, have sparked the need for a reconceptualization of planning as a process (Nedwek & Neal, 1994). The utilization of planning models that represent incremental growth and ever expanding boundaries of single institutions have become passe (Dorner, 1996). The push for fiscal retrenchment and organizational reengineering in higher education in the 80s required new forms of planning (Conley, 1993). The development of planning processes aimed squarely at identifying areas of growth for fiscal self-sufficiency, coupled with a focus on areas of contraction (or elimination) was theme of planners in the 80s.

The burgeoning growth of the information technology industry has had a tremendous impact on planning in higher education in the 90s. There have been tremendous strides in the ability of organization to develop historical files of performance data and to develop analytical techniques that permit the analysis of data in concert with preconceived plans. This has had a tremendous impact on planning as a process. The development of key indicators of performance has become a more exacting science as information technology has afforded planners the ability to utilize a whole host of demographic, fiscal, and internal control data sets (Creswell, Goodchild, & Turner, 1996). More than ever planning runs the risk of being tied to historical markers of performance. The utilization of traditional planning models suggest the development of goals, key indicators, and the development of measures to weigh performance (Parkin, 1993). The development of sophisticated information

technology systems has defined the linkage of past performance to future activities as two partners in dance that has become increasingly complex.

The blossoming of information technology has also provided new means of delivery for higher education. The utilization of on-line educational programs, the ability to develop real time interactive educational opportunities, and the capacity to capture information sessions (such as a lecture) on compact disc are in the process of reshaping higher education as it is known. The cultural value supporting the Socratic notion of the university as a physical location where intimate intellectual relationships could be developed between professor and student is being challenged. Current planning models have not been able to embrace the application of information technology beyond what is available at the time that the plan is developed. The world has clearly become a much smaller, more complex place to effect good planning (Dorner, 1996). Globalization has become a requirement for the success of nations, of industry, and increasingly for institutions of higher education. The definition of success in many higher education institutions has progressed from excellence within the confines of a campus, to unprecedented growth in the number of campuses within a defined region, country, to now where international linkages are becoming a necessity for recognition as an institution of excellence. The institution that is concerned only with excellence on its parochial grounds may be viewed as a mediocre institution because of its geographical confines. The place of higher learning that transcends its boundaries and extends it tenacles of teaching, research, and service into the domain of other cultures is seen as pursuing excellence. This prevailing notion internationalization has led to new forms institutional definition, new forms partnership between institutions of higher learning, and new definitions of success.

All of these criteria, and countless more, have pointed to the need for a new model of planning. One based on managerial flexibility, an understanding and recognition of the technology-society interface, and one that fosters a plasticity of boundaries without forsaking the intellectual standards on which universities are founded. It is no longer fiscally or socially appropriate to employ models of planning based on current resources, within a confined geographical location, in an institution with a traditional organizational structure (Gioia & Thomas, 1996). A new planning model is required:one that embraces the transformational nature of organizational life that is inextricably linked to society. One that recognizes the need to maintain a holistic perspective of an institution in society that fosters new partnerships. Lastly, a new model that acknowledges the tacit needs to maintain a state of ordered chaos in which emergent patterns of behavior and responsiveness exist. Traditional planning models based on knowing before planning, based on systems theory where an institution has defined boundaries, can be considered constraining models that hinder vision and perspective. A new model that acknowledges the inability to know all, and celebrates the inability (or inadequacy) of maintaining institutional boundaries is more apt to prepare an organization of higher learning for the future.

New conceptions of "organization" applicable to higher learning lead to new notions of planning as a method to posture an organization to continually re-vision the chaos it is embedded in. Rather than continue conventional attempts to pursue illusive goals in an ever elusive, stable, static environment a model, which acknowledges constant change and emergence as a process, is required.

This paper will provide some of the discussion necessary to develop the groundwork for an 'emergent planning model'. The model has its philosophical roots in constructionism. Some of the basic notions of social constructionism will be presented as well as some notions of constructivism. This is done to demonstrate that emergent planning is both a social construction that occurs within the organization and a psychological construction that occurs tacitly within the confines of those charged with some responsibility

for planning. The implications for Euro-American higher education initiatives will be discussed.

Principal tenets Of Emergent Planning

The primordial tenet in emergent planning is that there are multiple, often tacit, paradigms at work within an organization and between organizations. The sanction of multiple paradigms suggests that action oriented planning must address the ideational structures that those in the planning process utilize to construct their notion of organizational reality (St. John & Elliott, 1994). It is from that point that evaluative criteria are generated to frame the reality as it has existed in the mind of the paradigm holder (Guba, 1990). In building a framework for international partnerships in higher education it is of prime importance to develop an understanding of the interpretive process of those engaged in planning higher education and to move beyond the grounds of conventional, bounded rationality (Collins, 1982). Often masked by positivist orientations to linear thinking, planners must move beyond the data, to develop an understanding of the overt paradigms through which institutional interpretations are made within a culture. Furthermore, planners must develop an understanding of the tacit paradigms that exist in partnering planners."

A second tenet in emergent planning is that individuals construct paradigms and their meanings are socially mediated (Simsek & Heydinger, 1993; Phillips, 1995). Emergent planning builds on the Kuhnian notion of paradigms as "maps" to guide human interaction, by suggesting that paradigms are internal codifications of a construct of reality that has been embedded in a social context (Kuhn, 1970). Simsek & Heydinger (1993) suggest that paradigms are tacit and that they provide guideposts for behavior paths and serve to aid in the interpretation of behavior based on paradigm markers. In the context of international partnerships in higher education, it would seem that establishing 'mediated paradigms' would be of prime importance prior to the engagement of institutional partnerships. For example, the mere selection of the form of partnership between higher education institutions should be embedded in the mediated paradigm. Deciding on whether to engage in a traditional, non-intrusive, exchange relationship, or to engage in a fused relationship of identities should be considered within the context of conventional linear wisdom based on a mediated understanding of positivistic data embedded in culturally bound meanings. When viewed in this light, it becomes evident that emergent planning espouses continual transformation in an evolutionary cycle. This approach is more apt to lead to shared meaning of beliefs and recognition of the mutual significance of the form of partnership adopted.

A third tenet of emergent planning involves construction, deconstruction, and reconstruction of strategies and actions in a cyclical and often chaotic (i.e. - random) fashion (St. John & Elliott, 1994). Higher education is captive to the forces engendered by political, social, and economic policy as well as the tacit paradigms of those who operate within the boundaries of the institution itself (Parker, 1993; Dorner, 1996). St. John & Elliott (1994) suggest that reflective choice making may have four essential ingredients. Although applied to policy research, the model has application to planning. The steps are:

- the application of theory;
- the modification of a touchstone process to be applied in the development of a product (such as a partnership);
- communication stage where the process is further refined by a process of aim and strategy selection;

- and last, the transformational stage where the process is applied, reframed, and reconceptualized in light of 'best practices' that exist and are desired in the expression of the inter-institutional arrangement.

Within the context of collaborative higher education ventures, this tenet of emergent planning stresses the need for a mutually expressed conceptual understanding of the process of partnering. It also suggests that the political, social, cultural, and economic pre-conditions, conditions, and desired outcomes of a partnership be framed in light of an emergent application of theory to the arrangement.

The fourth and last tenet to be described here is that emergent planning is action oriented and continually transformational (Habermas, 1987). While some planning models precede action in order to maintain a prescriptive stance, emergent planning is a process of continual transformation. Prescriptive planning engenders the pursuit of goals without necessarily developing an understanding and communication of the consequences of actions. Emergent planning strives toward understanding and communicating consequences with the view to continually modifying organizational behavior which in turn leads to a continual transformation of strategic action. The implications for higher education institutions engaged in international collaboration are profound. The utilization of traditional planning models presumes a dominant linear, empirical, prescriptive predisposition. This predisposition is not universal, nor is it feasible in all occasions. Emergent planning embraces the analysis of empirical data in conventional planning and the constructivist orientation of understanding and communication.

Conclusion

There have been various models of planning that have evolved over time. The evolution of planning models has followed the evolution of management models that in turn seem to have evolved as society itself has transformed. The evolution of planning has been a reification of social constraints and enhancing socio-political conditions that have had an impact on higher education. Today, there are forces that impact higher education institutions that demand a flexible, transformative approach to planning. The application of emergent planning principles acknowledges this reality and attempts to provide a means of planning that transcends cultural and national boundaries to promote distinctive methods of understanding, communication, and action in developing international collaboration..

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The Impact of Research on Educational Policy Formulation In Ontario: A Case Study

David N. Wilson

INTRODUCTION

This case study examines the utilisation of research and information in the formulation of educational policy. In view of the uniqueness of Canadian jurisdiction over education, it was decided to limit this case study to an analysis of the processes in the Province of Ontario. The co-ordinating and standardising functions exercised by The Council of Ministers of Education of Canada (CMEC), which operates in lieu of a federal ministry of education, will be mentioned, where appropriate.

The definition of "research" commonly used in Canada emanates from the Sheffield Report of 1982, which notes that:

> Research is interpreted broadly to include reflective inquiry and scholarship, empirical investigation, critical analysis and in-house studies for organizational use. It may be oriented to theory building, problem solving, policy formulation, or planning. (Sheffield, 1982)

Historical Background

The Province of Ontario has a long history of using comparative educational research to formulate policy and practice in its educational system. Edgerton Ryerson undertook comparative studies in Europe in 1868, which led to the establishment of the undenominational common school in Ontario and set the pattern for all Canadian public education. Although relatively unknown, Dr. John Seath, studied technical-vocational education in Europe and the U.S.A. in 1910 and laid the foundations for the Ontario system of technical and industrial arts education. (Wilson, 1994) Seath is important for the purposes of this case study because he, subsequently, became Superintendent of Education in Ontario and was, thus, responsible for the implementation of his own research-obtained educational policy.

Another important historical factor was the relative political stability experienced in Ontario until the mid-1980s. In 1985, the 43-year rule of the Progressive Conservative (PC) party was upset with the election of a Liberal government. After one term, the Liberal government was replaced by a New Democratic Party (socialist) government, which also was replaced after one term in 1995 by a Progressive-Conservative government, albeit of a considerably different orientation than previous PC governments. The tenure of these one-term governments have been marked by significant changes in educational policy and practice, in marked contrast to the evolutionary policies between 1942 and 1985. Yet, in spite of this change some policies have been carried forward by successor governments.

The current Progressive Conservative government of Ontario has made education reform one pillar of its "Common Sense Revolution." Many writers indicate that this neo-conservative platform is closer in ideology to the Reform Party of Canada than to previous Progressive Conservative parties. Caplan indicates that the strategy and policy for education (and other social services) comes from the U.S. conservative movement; in particular, from the State of New Jersey. (Caplan, 1997) Others suggest that the policy also reflects the reform of education in the Province of Alberta, undertaken since 1994 by the Progressive Conservative government of that province. Whatever the source, the policy proposes the

introduction of a first-rate educational system at the least possible cost, while at the same time withdrawing funding from education as one aspect of funding a cut in income taxes.

The tenure of two earlier Progressive Conservative Ministers of Education -- both of whom subsequently became Premiers of Ontario -- is extremely important for an understanding of the nexus between educational research and policy-formulation in Ontario. In the same manner that John Seath was able to garner the "lion's share" of federal technical-vocational education funding to build the Ontario system in 1913 -- because Ontario was ready to utilize federal funds when they became available -- John Robarts secured a disproportionate share of federal funding to build comprehensive high schools throughout Ontario, with federal Technical-Vocational Training Act funding in 1960. Similarly, William Davis utilized federal Adult Occupational Training Act funds to construct the (now 25) Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) from 1965.

It is interesting to note that Davis' "use" of educational research was rather selective. For example, in spite of the recommendations of two commissions, composed of University Presidents, Davis' policy was that the CAATs would be two and three-year certificate and diploma colleges that would be terminal in nature, rather than offering "articulation" avenues to further post-secondary education, similar to community colleges in Alberta and British Columbia. To Davis' credit, however, many of the other recommendations in both studies were implemented.

Davis' "use" of educational research was also rather personalistic, due to the unique relationship which developed between himself and Dr. Robert Jackson of The (former) Department of Educational Research at The University of Toronto. This relationship culminated in the establishment in 1965 of The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE), with Jackson as its founding Director. Throughout Davis' tenure as Minister of Education and for about another decade, OISE -- and in particular the OISE Department of Educational Planning -- functioned as the unofficial research branch of The Ontario Department (later Ministry) of Education. For example, all of the enrolment projections for Ontario elementary, secondary and post-secondary educational institutions were produced, under contract, at OISE. Moreover, a unique Transfer Grant, which at its peak amounted to over CD$2 million per annum, funded educational research at OISE for the Ontario Ministry of Education. These factors are likely to have contributed significantly to the rapid attainment by OISE of its distinction as the foremost centre for educational research (and graduate instruction) in Canada. While these "benefits" no longer accrue to OISE, they were unique within Canada and are likely to have skewed educational research and policy formulation throughout Canada.

The "model" adopted by Jackson for The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education is also germane to the topic of utilisation of research in policy formulation. OISE was founded as a tri-partite institution to engage in educational research, field development and graduate instruction. The field development role was chosen in order to facilitate the rapid dissemination of research findings into Ontario schools and classrooms. OISE established Field Centres in nine locations throughout the Province of Ontario to both interact with local school boards, schools and teachers and undertake off-site graduate instruction to enable teachers to upgrade their credentials. In addition to the research dissemination role, these OISE Field Centres also worked with local school boards, schools and teachers to undertake research on problems and issues of interest to these localities. Moreover, the OISE Field Centres, virtually, gave local authorities access to the entire OISE research infrastructure.

The creation of OISE proved to be timely, since its tri-partite functions proved important to the de-concentration and decentralisation of education in Ontario, which also took place during the 1960s and 1970s. With local school board and local school responsibility for curriculum development, educational finance, determination of optimal

class size, etc., the availability of a research infrastructure to assist local authorities in the formulation -- and often implementation -- of their policies was serendipitous.

The "OISE model" was touted as exemplary by many educational researchers, but only one institution endeavoured to replicate the model. This was The Atlantic Institute of Education, founded in 1971 in Canada's Maritime Provinces (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island). The founding Director was another Comparative Educator, Joseph Lauwerys, who had retired from The University of London Institute of Education. Unfortunately, due to budgetary difficulties The Atlantic Institute did not survive the 1980s.

Research Policy

In 1997 Ontario became the first province to address the lack of a formal, comprehensive policy concerning research. A Discussion Paper, entitled Framework for a Research Policy for Ontario, was released by The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training. While the study constitutes a thorough examination of the role and function of research, it is more concerned with research undertaken by faculty in post-secondary educational institutions than the use of research to inform policy formulation. However, one recommendation which merits mention is the call for an advisory body for post-secondary education, possibly a research foundation, which would "help close gaps in research support."

Links with Political and Administrative Authorities

The new Ontario Education Improvement Commission (EIC), which was created in 1997 as a "buffer," or "arms-length" agency, to facilitate the implementation of the Progressive Conservative Party reform of the Ontario educational system, will be used below as the second focus of this case study. The EIC was created by the current Minister of Education and Training "to ensure a smooth transition to the new district school boards." The Commission "sees as its role the creation of structures necessary to reach the reform objectives." Their "overriding goal is to improve the quality of education in Ontario, by ensuring that the focus of the whole reform exercise is the student and the teaching/learning process." (EIC, 1997)

The Ontario Royal Commission on Learning, appointed in 1993 by the former NDP government, is a notable example of using research to inform policy formulation. Unfortunately, the change of government has resulted in the selective implementation of commission recommendations; i.e., only those recommendations which support the PC government's educational reform agenda. The unfortunate rhetoric of the current Ontario Minister of Education and Training, who claimed Royal Commission sanction for many of his reform efforts, precipitated some rather angry exchanges of Letters to the Editor in Toronto newspapers in 1996, between the Minister and the former Co-Chair of the Royal Commission on Learning, Dr. Gerald Caplan, who has subsequently become a columnist for The Toronto Star.

In particular, the Minister's Statement in the Ontario Legislature introducing the Educational Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) on 23 November 1995 claimed that "the concept of such a specifically focussed agency at arm's length from government was one of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Learning. We're not establishing the $25 million version proposed by the previous government, but rather a much more effective agency that will cost approximately $15 million." Caplan resented the distortion of Royal Commission on Learning recommendations, which he asserted were quite different from the EQAO proposed by the current government.

A recent news release from The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, intended to explain the current reform of the educational system noted that in 1996:

> after 24 separate reviews of the system since 1950, including 2 Royal Commissions, 10 commissions and committees, 2 fact-finding reports, 2 panels and innumerable meetings, the Ministry of Education and Training moved on a plan to change the educational system. (MET, 1997)

Most Canadian provinces have participated in The International Study of Educational Achievement (IEA) since its inception. One of the factors cited in the current curriculum reforms in Alberta and Ontario is the alleged poor performance of Canadian students in mathematics and science on IEA tests. This factor is believed by many Ontario educators to be the single reason underlying the current reform of curricula at the elementary and secondary level.

Similarly, Canadian participation in the 42-country Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMMS) has also influenced the educational reform initiatives in Ontario. In addition to cost-cutting, the improvement of performance by Ontario elementary and secondary students is repeatedly cited as underpinning the Ontario reform process. The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training established The Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) in 1996 to monitor and enhance the performance of Ontario students on the TIMMS and IEA examinations. Ironically, the announcement of test results for a 1995 study of Grades 4 and 8 students showed Ontario students placing second among those jurisdictions meeting the test standards for Grade 4 and Grade 8 students placing slightly above the international average score. (Small, 1997c and Lewington, 1997) The implications of these results for the rationale underlying the creation of the EQAO, as well as the curriculum reform, are interesting; particularly, since these tests were administered before these initiatives commenced.

The EQAO has been mandated to undertake regular testing of Ontario elementary and secondary students, in effect putting back into place a system of examinations which had been eliminated in 1968, following the report of the Hall-Dennis Commission. The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training also announced in 1997 the introduction of standardised report cards. Together with the delineation of new standards for the training and performance of teachers, set by the new Ontario College of Teachers, these initiatives are intended to "provide the quality assurance and accountability being demanded of the system" by the Ontario taxpayers. (EIC, 1997)

The Case Study

The Ontario Education Reform

The current Ontario educational reform concerns elements of the provincial education system, such as elementary and secondary school curriculum, apprenticeship, school board organisation, education finance, teacher autonomy, etc. As noted above, this reform can be characterised as a re-centralisation of functions delegated to local school boards and schools thirty years earlier. This case study examination will be focused primarily on the reform of elementary and secondary curricula in Ontario during 1996-97. The Ontario Minister of Education and Training has frequently stated that "the new curriculum is the centrepiece of the province's education reform, which is designed to improve student achievement and increase accountability to parents in the education system." (Press Release, 13 June 1997)

The current reform initiative consists of a number of inter-related initiatives and is likely the most holistic undertaking in Ontario since the Hall-Dennis Report of 1968, which led to the deconcentration of responsibility for education to local boards, schools and

classroom teachers. Comparisons between the processes chosen for the reform of curricula and the reform of apprenticeship will be drawn in order to highlight the utilisation of research.

In a Statement to the Ontario Legislature, the Minister of Education and Training commented upon a meeting of The Council of Ministers of Education by noting that:

> Ontario is not alone in considering and implementing major restructuring to its educational system. Reform is proceeding rapidly in every jurisdiction in Canada -- no matter what the political stripe or region of the country. Across Canada, governments are: streamlining their educational systems, reducing administration, increasing standards, improving curriculum quality and placing greater emphasis on parental involvement and control. (2 October 1996)

The initiators of the Ontario reform process have been, primarily, politicians from the Progressive Conservative (PC) provincial government which took power in 1995. This government came into power with its programme outlined in its "Common Sense Revolution." Laing indicated that "the civil service is always in place to enact the agenda of the government." (Interview, 1997) Prior to 1995 "there had not been any Ontario-wide grade-by-grade elementary school curriculum for more than 25 years." (Small, 1997a) This was due to the deconcentration of curriculum development functions to local school boards by the former Ontario Department of Education. Curriculum reform was seen "as a necessary adjunct to secondary reform." The reduction of Ontario high school length from five to four years necessitated the reform of both secondary and elementary curricula, according to Laing. (Laing Interview, 1997)

"In 1995, the New Democratic Party introduced a more specific curriculum for Grades 1 to 9." However, the election of the Progressive Conservative government in 1995 resulted in the rejection of the NDP curriculum revision, called the Common Curriculum, as being "too vague and broad," resulting "in an uneven patchwork of local curriculums." (Small, 1997a) This was because the NDP curriculum revision only set specific outcomes for Grades 3, 6 and 9 and continued the deconcentrated curriculum development autonomy of Ontario's 168 local school boards. That curriculum was replaced in 1997 "with a new, even more defined curriculum in math and language for Grades 1 to 8." (Laing, 1997b)

The decision-making process for the current reform of secondary school curricula constituted a significant departure from previous practice within The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training (MET). Laing indicated that "certain parameters were made very clear" by the Minister, for example the reduction of high school from five to four years. However, "the province has never seen a broader consultation than there was for secondary reform." Laing also indicated that the proposed 90-hour high school credit programme was "turned around by the public consultation." (Interview, 1997)

For example, in the reform of secondary school curricula, there was a public consultation process which generated 20,000 responses, according to Laing. (Interview, 1997) This consultation was undertaken by means of the distribution of copies of Excellence in Education: High School Reform -- A Discussion Paper and its companion document Consultation Guide for Ontario Secondary Schools (1998) -- Detailed Discussion Document, plus Curriculum for Ontario Secondary Schools. Each document contained feedback forms to be returned to The Ministry of Education and Training. In addition, the MET website also contained these documents and an e-mail reply capability.

With regard to the preparation of the secondary curricula, a three-stage process was determined by MET personnel. The process was designed to facilitate "broad public consultation," with the first phase involving the preparation of background Discussion Papers

in twelve curricular areas by faculty from Faculties of Education at Ontario universities (including one [on Technological Education] authored by this writer). These background discussion research papers were to "be an initial stimulus for dialogue and discussion of further secondary school curriculum development." The Background Papers were sub-contracted by the MET to the Ontario Association of Deans of Education (OADE), who nominally were the contracting party.

The authors of Discussion Papers were instructed by the MET to:

- review the literature relevant to the subject
- indicate the key issues
- highlight the range of current opinion on the subject
- identify best practices in Ontario and other jurisdictions

In addition, the authors were "asked to seek input from Subject Associations associated with your discipline." (Laing, 1996) In subsequent correspondence, the authors were informed of many other strictures by MET personnel, many of which contradicted both the contract between the MET and the OADE and previous verbal and written instructions. Laing indicated that her Department's secondary curriculum reform team "really shaped the model and along the way have suggested additions, changes [which] took the original model and is following through on it." She indicated that the "process is fine tuned along the way by the team that is working on it." (Interview, 1997)

In Phase Two, the Discussion Papers produced in Phase One were to be "used by small expert panels to focus dialogue when consulting with a large number of groups and people." The Discussion Papers were "meant to stimulate dialogue; they should raise issues honestly and forthrightly, but not take a stand." (Laing, 1996) The Expert Panels were to comprise two teachers, one university faculty, one CAAT faculty, and four community experts, none of whom had served as authors of the Discussion Papers. (Laing, 1997a) These Expert Panels were to produce Defining Papers, which were then to be used by Writer/Adaptation Teams to produce Curriculum Guidelines in Phase Three. (Laing, 1996) While the Defining Papers have been completed, Phase Three had not yet commenced at the time this case study was prepared. (Laing, Interview, 1997)

According to Laing, these Defining Papers have just been circulated to Expert Panel authors for verification. (Interview, September 1997) This indicates that the MET is about four months behind in the process outlined at the end of 1996. The development of Curriculum Guidelines was then to lead to the production of new Ontario secondary curricula. Laing confirmed that the third phase has not yet commenced. (Interview, 1997)

During meetings in December 1996 and January 1997, between the Discussion Paper authors and MET personnel, the concern was raised whether there would be continuity between the Discussion Papers, Expert Panels and writing of Curriculum Guidelines. These concerns were addressed by MET personnel, noting that the:

> MET has responsibility for creating continuity between Background Papers and the work of Expert Panels; guideline writers will have to work within parameters set by Direction Papers. [MET will] ... provide for contact between writers of Background Papers and Expert Panels and, subsequently, between Expert Panels and writers of guidelines. (Laing, 1997a)

Unfortunately, the creation of continuity merely consisted of one meeting between selected Discussion Paper authors and members of the Expert Panels. The utilisation of the

insights derived from research and consultation, contained in the background Discussion Papers, may be characterised as having been left to chance, in spite of the original intentions of the MET.

By way of comparison, the process chosen by the MET for the reform of apprenticeship involved the 'in-house' (i.e., within the MET) preparation of the Discussion Paper on Apprenticeship Reform in December 1996, followed by a consultation process. The MET Curriculum, Teaching and Learning Department was "aware of what [the Apprenticeship Department] was doing but we never sat down to say why aren't we doing this in the same way." (Laing, Interview)

Three main methods of consultation were used for the Apprenticeship reform process:

- Key stakeholders were asked to comment on a discussion paper;
- Face-to-face meetings were held between the Parliamentary Assistant to the Minister and selected stakeholders from sectors or communities involved in or with an interest in apprenticeship training;
- A telephone survey was conducted of apprentices, recent certificate holders, and apprentices who had left before completing the programme. (MET, 1997)

The decision to involve education faculty, subject specialists and community representatives in a three-phase procedure, as opposed to following the apprenticeship consultation approach, was developed by working "in consultation with other educators." Several Deans of Ontario Education Faculties were identified as having been initially consulted by the Ministry. The MET was "anxious to tap different types of expertise at points in the process where they would be most likely to be useful." The MET "wanted to be certain that no curriculum was developed through the single-minded wishes of one particular group ... but [rather] that a lot of different opinions had to be taken into account." In addition, the MET desire "to set some kind of a research base" for the curriculum development process was thought "to be very important." Education researchers were noted to be "superior sources of information" by the MET, and so were "plugged in" to the process. The Ontario Faculties of Education were considered by the Ministry to be "the most qualified people to do" the research.(Laing, Interview)

The types and sources of information which provided the basis for, or guided, this discussion were the digests of relevant research and the elicitation of informed opinion, prepared by the authors of the twelve background Discussion Papers. The 12 topics were:

1. The Arts, including Dance, Dramatic Arts, Music and Visual Arts;
2. Business Studies;
3. Interdisciplinary Studies;
4. Language #1 - Language of Instruction (including ESL/ESD)
5. Language #2 - Second and Additional Languages (including FSL, Immersion, NSL, International Languages, Classics)
6. Mathematics;
7. Native Studies;
8. Physical and health Education;
9. Science;
10. Social Science #1 (including History, Civics/Citizenship, Geography, Economics, Politics)

11. Social Science #2 (including Family Studies, Psychology, Sociology, Philosophy;
12. Technological Education (including Broad-Based Technological Education, Computer Studies, Information Technology)

The information was provided to the decision maker in this instance upon request, rather than as part of the regular supply of information, as noted for the reform of apprenticeship. The process was initially vetted by the Minister and "then from time to time, as the various stages are complete, we bring the results" to the Minister. (Laing Interview, 1997)

The OADE contractual arrangement was noted by the MET to have been the first time they attempted such structured contract research. Informal comments by MET and EIC personnel indicate that the Minister of Education and Training has expectations concerning the provision of information, including undertaking specific research projects, which might reflect a mis-comprehension of realistic timelines.

The form in which the information was provided was to digest relevant research and elicit informed opinion and present these findings in a succinct, readable format for use by the Expert Panels. In addition, the publication of these background Discussion Papers was undertaken by The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, both in print and on a computer website. While the Discussion Paper on Apprenticeship Reform was published on the Ontario Ministry of Education and Training website, the twelve Discussion Papers were placed on the website of The Educational Network of Ontario (ENO), which is a Ministry-funded project operated by The Ontario Teachers' Federation. Laing indicated that the reasons for the different website venues was that only "official" materials, "that have been vetted by the government" can appear on the MET website. "While the Discussion Papers were commissioned by the Ministry, they carried the rider that they reflected the opinions of their authors." She also indicated that the ENO website "is accessible by all teachers in Ontario." (Interview, 1997)

The decision-makers' views on the adequacy of information provision vary according to their locale and function. Laing indicated that the "reading of this material" by the Assistant Deputy Minister, Deputy Minister and Minister is "not yet complete [because] we are still taking forward recommendations." She was also "not sure that the Discussion Papers were widely read by" the ADM, Deputy Minister and Minister. However, they "certainly were read in great detail by members of the Minister's policy staff." Moreover, they "certainly perceive [the information] as adequate ... in fact it was perceived as voluminous." (Interview, September 1997)

Laing also indicated that because "the adequacy [of the Discussion and Expert Panel Papers] varied from subject to subject ... it is not possible to make an absolutely clear statement" on their adequacy. She further noted that:

> one of the intentions of the Discussion Paper was to be as objective as possible; that is, not to have the writer take a point of view about the subject, but rather to indicate the range of points of view." "By and large the papers met that criterion, although there were a couple where that was not the case ... and we had to be very careful about that because the role of the academic, as we planned it, was to provide the full range of ideas. We didn't want a single writer to be proposing points of view, we wanted a single writer to be doing the survey. In the case of the Expert Panels, we felt that if there were a difficulty with the papers it was that some disciplines felt the need to advocate for their discipline and that may have taken their attention away from some of the detail they might have included about actual content,

> methodology, sequence of learning and some of the more technical things that have to do with the discipline. That tended to happen with those disciplines that did not regard themselves as secure within the core of the curriculum. (Interview, 1997)

In spite of the assurances given to the authors of the background Discussion Papers at the outset of the process that there would be no censorship of their research, towards the end of the writing process some animosity resulted when MET personnel demanded that changes be made to the wording in several of the papers. Largely, the points raised by MET personnel concerned language which they perceived to be "too political."

Although the initial documentation noted that the "papers are meant to stimulate dialogue; they should raise issues honestly and forthrightly, but not take a stand," it was apparent that there were different interpretations of this stricture from the MET perspective and from the perspectives of the authors. The end result was that the Discussion Papers on Native Studies and Language #1 were not accepted by the MET and substitute authors were hastily recruited to produce "acceptable" versions of these documents. The author of the paper on Native Studies was at a loss to comprehend how he could write a document on that topic which was not political. (Interview, Burns, 1997) In sum, the MET actually spent more time (two months) "editing" the documents than they gave the authors to write the papers in the first instance (six weeks).

There are also press reports that as prototype elementary curriculum documents were produced, "a struggle took place between the government's political arm -- including advisers to Premier Mike Harris -- and education ministry officials." (Small, 1997b) This is likely a reliable report, since most Ontario teachers and many university education faculty had the impression that there was a political agenda which paralleled the public consultation. That agenda was reputed to be that the 'back-to-the-basics' curriculum, originally developed in the Province of Alberta by its Progressive Conservative government, was written before the consultation process was initiated. Some substantiation for this assertion can be found in the draft documentation for the reform of Ontario apprenticeship programmes, where it is explicitly stated that "the proposed structure is based on the Alberta model." (Confidential Decision Document, 1997)

Perhaps in an attempt to satisfy these politicians, it was reported that "Ministry staff ... did a line-by-line analysis of Ontario's new math standards, comparing them to those of Alberta -- which is consistently near the top in Canadian mathematics test scores -- and found they are equal or better." (Small, 1997b) The Minister of Education noted that "by taking the lead in new curriculum development, we are responding to parents' concerns that Ontario students are not keeping pace with their counterparts in other countries and other provinces." He also noted that "rigorous curriculum, combined with regular testing and standardized report cards will allow parents to see how their child is progressing from year to year." (Press Release, 13 June 1997)

One might also consider various statements made by politicians as suggestive of the need for improved and more adequate information by those formulating policy. Caplan points out that remarks made by the Leader of the Ontario Progressive Conservative Party "before he became premier, calling early childhood education 'the stupidest single idea' he'd ever heard" contravened research-derived expertise. On the contrary, Caplan noted, "the experts agree [that] universal junior kindergarten would enhance students' learning infinitely more than any imaginable curriculum change." (Caplan, 1997)

Caplan also noted an "unprecedented occasion" in October 1996 when the Ontario Minister of Education and Training:

> actually turned over a press conference to the Coalition for Education Reform. This small lobby group, really the Reform Party in education, advocates simplistic policies, rooted in ideology, for a public education system it mostly loathes -- it gives Ontario schools a D+ rating. These back-to-basic champions yearn for the good old days when passive kids wrote standardized exams where they regurgitated back the memorized factoids pumped into them by authoritarian teachers. (Caplan, 1997)

In response to a question whether or not the findings and recommendations of The Royal Commission on Learning were used in the reform of elementary and secondary curricula, Ms. Laing indicated that this did not "happen in a thorough way," but "different groups extracted different recommendations from The Royal Commission Report." (Interview, 1997)

Ms. Laing's views on the links between education information and research and decision-making are that "in the political realm different kinds of information often become important. Any politically elected group sees itself as serving the needs of a constituency, and in so far as the constituency seems to be supporting particular directions that becomes very important." However, although policy-makers would listen to what civil servants said about "what the research says, but it would be [understood] alongside what they perceived their constituents were saying about the kind of education they want for their [children]." She also noted that civil servants "have to work at finding the intersection of these different points of view." (Interview, 1997) This suggests that among the difficulties encountered in establishing and using links between information/research and decision-making is the occasional dichotomy between public and political perception of an issue and the body of research and information.

Ms. Laing also suggests that among the means to solve these problems are "to talk about them and agree when you have reached a solution." One "can bring in more people with different opinions if you really get stuck ... and those are the classic sorts of things that organisations do." She also indicated that they "seek clarification from the government about what its goals really are." (Interview, 1997)

She responded with the response, "absolutely," when asked if there is a genuine interest on the part of the decision-makers to base their political or administrative decisions on information and research results. She further noted "that also includes political research ... not just research into learning theory." "All political groups do more and more research about the opinions of their constituents" on issues. (Laing Interview, 1997)

The role of the Council of Ministers of Education of Canada was described as one of "information sharing" because "personal contacts are made" at the ministerial level, and also "at the staff meetings, as well" between ministry personnel from the provinces and territories. "For example, with the Ontario [elementary] mathematics curriculum there is no question that we looked at the western protocol, which has been developed by the four western provinces, because we thought ... we are going to a twelve-year continuum and we have to start with the first piece, [grades] one to eight. So, if we want to make certain we are going to get where we are going in the end, we should know that at least we are in a league with people who do get where they are going at the end of Grade Twelve." She also noted that the MET used "a lot of Nova Scotia materials -- or Atlantic provinces materials" in the reform of Ontario curricula. She supposed "that this was just part of the general communications network in Canada." (Interview, 1997)

When asked how the findings of the secondary curriculum reform had been disseminated, Ms. Laing indicated that "they haven't so far." She reiterated that "the Discussion Papers are on the ENO website." This was in addition to the copies printed and

distributed to school boards, subject associations, etc. She further indicated that the Expert Panel Papers had not yet been circulated to members of the Ontario education community, since they were currently being vetted by all members of the Expert Panels to determine whether their content accurately reflected panel members' views. (Interview, 1997)

Report on Learning Time, Class Size and Staffing

The Ontario Education Improvement Commission (EIC) research on learning time, class size and staffing came directly from "the initiative of [The Ontario] Minister" of Education and Training, according to Jim Brown, EIC Director of Research. (Interview, 1997) The reasons for the selection of this particular research theme was the Minister's request for assistance "in developing a new funding model." Brown indicated that the research topic was "assigned by the Minister," who asked the EIC to recommend:

1. Ways the government can ensure that average class sizes do not grow beyond current levels.
2. Issues affecting the amount and scheduling of instructional time that teachers spend with their students.
3. Ways to give boards more flexibility in their programme delivery and school organization while ensuring that educational quality is maintained or enhanced.

The EIC was established in January 1997 by the Minister of Education and Training "to implement education reform in Ontario ... in an organized and careful way." The EIC was charged with advising "the government on implementation issues, including election processes and school board fiscal responsibilities." The EIC commissioners were to "work with the local community, including trustees, board officials, teachers and parents." (Press Release, 23 January 1997)

The Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation asserts that spending cuts by the Minister of Education and Training totaled "well over $1 billion over three years" and feared that additional grant reductions "will be writing off a generation of Ontario students and jeopardizing our province's future." (Small and Girard, 1997) It was contended that the Minister's request for this research report was made to facilitate the further reduction of $1 billion from grants to local school boards.

Brown noted that "officially, when [the EIC] did [its] consultations the teachers' federations boycotted the process. The one exception was the AEFO (the French affiliate) .. who participated ... and then we had individual teachers ... and individual union local presidents ... who participated in the consultation process, but on an official basis it was boycotted." (Interview)

Press reports validate this contention that the Minister of Education:

> appointed the commission ... to review class sizes, instructional time and school organization. He will use the report as he develops a new funding model for Ontario's $14 billion education system, which is in the midst of a massive overhaul by the Conservative government. The government has already cut more than $500 million from the education system and critics say that the massive changes are all designed to take as much as $1 billion more out. (Girard, 1997a)

Brown asserted that "in spite of what everybody believes, the commitment of the people [in EIC] and ... the commitment of the Minister really is to look at improving what we are doing in education." He indicated that most EIC personnel would not be there if they "didn't believe that [they] could have an impact upon improving education." He, later,

emphasized that the MET may have used the EIC report "to validate what they already wanted to do." However, he was emphatic in noting that "what is contained in [the EIC] report is based on the research that we did ... it is not based on someone telling us to do the following." While the EIC is charged "with the implementation of the down-sizing of the number of school boards," but in the study of class size, learning time and staffing "all [EIC] did was to make recommendations" to the Minister. "A lot of [the problem] is people having difficulty sorting out what the Ministry of Education does and what [the EIC] is doing." (Interview, 1997)

It is somewhat difficult to separate a purportedly 'arms-length' entity like the EIC from the Ministry of Education and Training. On the one hand, Brown was emphatic in explaining that he [and his colleagues] were employees of the EIC and that their contracts were with EIC and not MET. On the other hand, he readily indicated that the EIC made use of the MET Distribution Department to disseminate their research report.

The conclusions of the EIC study consisted of the following recommendations:

1.1 That the role of the teacher as set out in the Education Act and Regulations be clarified to indicate that the work day for teachers not be limited to the time of attendance by students, and that it include responsibility for extra curricular activities, preparation time for class, professional development, contact with parents and remedial assistance for students.

1.2 That the principal be empowered to deploy staff so that the teacher-pupil contact time increases.

1.3 That the number of days in the instructional year for students be increased by two weeks in elementary schools and by three weeks in secondary schools (which would include the reduced number of examination days).

1.4 That the school year for students begin on the Monday preceding Labour Day.

1.5 That the number of examination days at the secondary school level, currently set at a maximum of fifteen, be reduced to a maximum of ten.

1.6 That the number of days scheduled for professional activity purposes during the school year for students be set at five.

1.7 That a minimum of two of these five professional activity days be designated for assessment of student achievement and reporting to parents.

1.8 That the school year for teachers begin one full week prior to the opening of school, with at least three of these days designed for professional development purposes under the direction of the school principal and subject to the approval of the director of education.

1.9 That recognition be given to the value of preparation time for teachers within the students' instructional day and that the cost be considered in the funding formula.

1.10 That decisions regarding the allocation of preparation time for individual teachers be made by the school principal in consultation with the school staff

and in recognition that the varying needs of different teachers with different work loads and at different stages of their careers. In addition, that consideration be given to the bundling of preparation time for elementary teachers so that group planning can be done.

1.11 That the number of secondary school departments be reduced; and in order to increase the integration of learning, that they should no longer be organized by subject; and further, as a result, that qualifications and duties of department heads be reviewed.

1.12 That secondary school department heads carry the same teaching load as other full-time teaching staff.

1.13 That the funding formula to be developed recognize that, on average, current allocations of preparation time at the elementary level are appropriate.

1.14 That the time secondary school teachers spend teaching students increase by at least 25 percent, on average, and that the funding formula to be developed reflect this.

2.1 That the Minister, in collaboration with his counterparts in the other provinces and territories, establish consistent data in areas such as class size, preparation time, the number of days in the school year and pupil/teacher ratio to allow for better inter-provincial comparisons.

2.2 That the funding formula to be developed recognize the Minister of Education and Training's commitment and the public's desire that class sizes not increase beyond current numbers.

2.3 That the Ministry indicate average class size targets on a district school board wide basis. The average class size targets should be variable by grade/division and take into consideration the special needs of individual students.

2.4 That schools and district school boards continue to have the ability to establish individual class sizes which are consistent with local needs and priorities.

2.5 That the Grade One and Two Grant be folded into the overall per pupil grant formula.

2.6 That schools and district school boards be required to report annually on efforts to respond to changes in funding through strategies other than increased class size.

2.7 That any savings realized through the restructuring of school boards be reinvested in education systems.

2.8 That schools and district school boards be required to report annually to the Ministry of Education and Training, the Education Quality and Accountability Office and the public on average class size, by grade/division board-wide.

2.9 That co-operative services among co-terminus and neighbouring school boards and multi-board consortia be required, wherever possible and appropriate.

3.1 That schools and district school boards be encouraged to use a team approach to staffing in order to assign specific roles to certificated teachers and other professionals and para-professionals as needed to achieve programme goals and desired results.

3.2 That the Education Act be amended to allow instructors who are not certificated teachers to supervise students, under specific conditions and circumstances, and to deliver certain programmes (e.g., guidance, sports, technology).

3.3 That greater co-operation between school boards, community agencies, and private sector companies be encouraged wherever possible and appropriate in order to create renewed partnerships and more effective service delivery.

3.4 That the Education Quality and Accountability Office in partnership with The Ontario College of Teachers undertake long term research studies of pilot programmes where graduates of early childhood education programmes at colleges of applied arts and technology are employed in junior kindergarten and kindergarten programmes in schools, under the supervision of certificated teachers.

3.5 That the Education Quality and Accountability Office undertake long term research studies to determine if the various reform initiatives currently underway in the province are having a positive effect on the quality of education.

3.6 That under the direction of The Ontario College of Teachers provision be made by means of articulation agreements between colleges of applied arts and technology and universities to allow the three-year early childhood education diploma to be recognized as one means of entry into a teacher education programme.

3.7 That under the direction of The Ontario College of Teachers provision be made to allow the awarding of a Bachelor of Education degree as a first degree.

3.8 That under the direction of The Ontario College of Teachers the Bachelor of Education degree be awarded on successful completion of a two-year programme, or in the case of a concurrent programme, on successful completion of the equivalent of a two-year education programme.

The funding source for the EIC study was the $7 million budget provided to the EIC by the MET, of which the research portion was $170,000, or 2.4 percent of the total EIC budget, according to Gallagher. "A large part of the [EIC] budget is allocated to research and consultation." (Interview, 1997) Six of the 32 EIC personnel were deployed on the study in two teams; each with a researcher, an executive assistant and "someone who could take reasonably accurate minutes of what was taking place." Since many EIC personnel are Directors of Education and/or Superintendents seconded from local school boards, this was

an expensive undertaking in terms of researchers' salaries, according to Brown. Moreover, the EIC research team "travelled throughout the Province," to gather information and survey public opinion, which was also expensive. (Interview, 1997)

The initiatives taken by the research team to disseminate the results of their research and the means utilised for dissemination included the publication of 20,000 copies of The Road Ahead in English and 2,500 copies in French, to "provide three copies per school ... for every French [school board] and for every local Education Improvement Committee," according to Brown. (Interview, 1997) The linked EIC/MET website was another dissemination mechanism. The EIC co-chairs "have been on a number of radio and television programmes." Copies of the study have also been sent to the education ministers of all the other provinces. Brown also indicated that copies were also sent to all "stakeholder groups in education," union officials and "anyone who might have an interest in what education is doing." (Interview)

Brown also noted that, "incidentally, there was a fair amount of debate about whether or not to send print copies" or "in 1997, people can download [the report] or read it from their computers." It was decided that "while we might want to be at that point, we are not there yet." The discussion did not propose to eliminate all printed copies, but the decision was between printing 20,000 copies, or only 2,000 copies and directing all other dissemination efforts to the internet. Brown further noted that "a lot of the people who wanted copies for various purposes would be people who were involved with parent organisations ... who may not have had access to" computers. "To assume that just because some of us have [computers] at home is a mistake to assume that they are as common as refrigerators ... and even if they are, people are not all on line with the internet." Therefore, "the decision was made to [utilise] paper copies." (Interview)

Problems encountered in the dissemination of the research results were, mainly, "with getting [the report] up on the internet." Brown also noted that "the fact that the [internet copy of the report] had the wrong [telephone] number ... didn't help either." Moreover, one "couldn't download it because it cut off the margins." He further noted that these problems "have been rectified." He noted that "this commission is in its infancy and ... it has made it difficult to get all the bugs out," noting "that this was our first report, as well." "We were given really, really difficult timelines, and so we did an awful lot of scrambling trying to get [the report] together." (Interview)

In addition, Brown indicated that "the newspapers carried their own interpretation of [the report] and, of course, we received a fair number of e-mail and postal mail letters from teachers and others who hadn't read the report, but who had simply read what the newspapers said and were now writing letters objecting to what was contained in the report. In many cases what they were objecting to wasn't in the report." One example was "an elementary teacher who sent an e-mail saying what a disgrace it was that you are taking away my prep time. This person hadn't read the report," which recommended a diminution of secondary teachers' prep time, and not elementary teachers' time. Brown noted that "the report, in fact, affirmed the need for prep time and, secondly, said that the elementary was in line with the rest of the country and should be left alone. This person hadn't read the report," but merely "assumed" that the newspaper account mentioning reduction in prep time "applied to her." He noted that "there were a lot of those" reactions, "so that's part of the problem with dissemination of findings because people tend to draw incorrect conclusions." He questioned "how you stop this ... because no newspaper is going to carry the whole [report] verbatim, and if they did no one would read it." Finally, he noted that "now [the EIC] is getting questions, not in reference to the report, but rather in reference to the Minister's announcements." (Interview)

Utilisation of the research results by decision-makers was surprisingly swift, since the report, The Road Ahead, was released on 11 September 1997 and Bill 160, Alegislation to amend The Education Act,@ was introduced by The Ontario Minister of Education and Training on 22 September 1997. Brown noted that this legislation "contains at least some of the recommendations that have been made." He also noted that "to the best of our belief, they [recommendations] haven't been misused either." That is, "they haven't taken one out of context and ignored the rest. Generally speaking, they appear to be using them consistently the way they were written." He further noted that "a lot of what was contained in the report obviously confirmed what the government wanted to do anyways." This was "what the EIC felt was the right thing to say." Finally, he indicated that some of the report's recommendations had not been utilised by the Minister in Bill 160, in particular the recommendations on the use of Early Childhood Educators. (Interview, 1997) In addition, it appears that the EIC recommendation that savings resulting from the diminution of teachers' preparation time, etc. should be re-invested in education were also absent in Bill 160. The pace of these developments appears to lend credence to the many allegations that the Minister had formulated his reform agenda prior to undertaking the relevant research.

The Education Quality Improvement Act, tabled by the Minister, proposes to extend the length of the school year, determine class size, cut preparation time for high school teachers, and reduce the number of professional development days for teachers and students. All of these provisions were in the Educational Improvement Commission Report.

In addition, the legislation contains other reform proposals advanced by the Progressive Conservative government. These include assumption by The Ontario Ministry of Education and Training of the local school board authority to set education property tax rates and the establishment of advisory school councils at every institution in the province. The former provision has the effect of completely changing the oldest form of government in Canada: local school boards, which antedate every other level of government in the country. The latter provision is a feature adopted from the U.S. conservative agenda, where local school councils have been created in several U.S. states.

The *Toronto Star* noted that:

> The bill accepts the major recommendations of a report earlier this month from the Education Improvement Commission (EIC) co-chaired by former New Democrat education minister Dave Cooke and one-time Metro (Toronto) School Board chair Ann Vanstone.
>
> Snobelen's bill will allow the government to follow the commission's advice and increase the school year by two weeks for elementary students and three weeks for high school students. Classes will begin the Monday before Labour Day. The number of professional development days for teachers will also be curtailed. (Girard, 1997b)

In a subsequent article, it was noted that "Teachers' union leaders said the reduction in preparation time would cost about 10,000 jobs and save the province about $450 million." Moreover, union leaders "blasted Snobelen's bill as nothing more than a move to gut their rights and take another $1 billion from Ontario classrooms." (Girard, 1997c) The Minister of Education and Training countered these claims by noting that "the preparation time changes will cost 4,400 teaching jobs and save about $200 million annually." (Girard, 1997d) In addition to the issue of preparation time, the EIC recommendations concerning capping and the centralised establishment of class size also impact upon collective bargaining issues. For

at least two decades the five Ontario teachers' unions have negotiated class size and preparation time issues as part of their collective bargaining with local school boards. At the time this case study was being drafted, these unions had agreed to stage an illegal province-wide strike to protest this legislation.

The press release issued by the Minister concerning these provisions in the legislation noted that they were "based on the recommendations contained in the Education Improvement Commission's report, The Road Ahead." He noted that "according to the EIC, high school teachers in Ontario spend less time in the classroom than their peers elsewhere in Canada. The EIC has indicated that student achievement would improve if instructional time for teachers in these grades was brought to the national average, which is already the case for Ontario's elementary teachers." (24 September 1997)

In his Statement to the Legislature while introducing The Education Quality Improvement Act, 1997, the Minister recognised "the contribution of the Education Improvement Commission [whose] report, The Road Ahead provides insight into the importance of limiting class size and raising the level of student achievement." He also noted that "the EIC recommended that students would benefit from more instructional time in the school year. It makes no sense to me that Ontario students receive fewer hours of instruction than students in Switzerland or Slovenia." (22 September 1997) In a Letter to the Editor of The Toronto Star five days later, Caplan criticised the Minister for comparing Ontario to Slovenia.

It appears that even the use of research commissioned by the Minister of Education and Training can be different, depending upon the position of those interpreting the research. One is inclined to consider the addition of the letters 'a' and 'b' to the word use.

CONCLUSION

The case study rationale noted the "growing concern ... that many vital decisions regarding the direction of the education system are taken without sufficient knowledge and information of the array of possibilities open to meet specific needs ..." It is not difficult to conclude that in the Ontario, and by extrapolation the Canadian, case that sufficient knowledge does exist for decision-makers to formulate relevant policies. What appears salient in the Ontario case is whether or not decision-makers desire to make use of that information. It appears that while knowledge of the "array of possibilities" is available, ideological perspectives may colour decision-makers' interpretation and use of those possible alternative courses of action.

If anything, Ontario – and Canadian – educational systems may well be over-researched and/or over-studied. This view is implicit in the statement that the current Ontario Minister of Education and Training "moved on a plan to change the education system" after "24 separate reviews of the system since 1950, including 2 Royal Commissions, 10 commissions and committees, 2 fact-finding reports, 2 panels and innumerable meetings." This litany is notable because it only documents the official studies; if one considers the proliferation of research undertaken by Faculties of Education and individual researchers, it is clear that "information-overload" might well exist in Ontario, and Canada.

What clearly emerges from this case study is the perception that research and information are used to validate many decisions, instead of being used to inform those decisions. The selectivity inherent in this process may well be generic to the political process. On the other hand, the contentious and adversarial nature of much educational research often does not easily lend findings to use by those formulating policy. That is, on some issues policy-makers are able to find research which either validates their position, or negates their views. Therefore, it becomes relatively easy to select findings to suit desired options.

The Ontario Minister of Education and Training was recently quoted as having "pledged in the common Sense Revolution to be unconditionally committed to reaching our goal, but very open to discussing how to get there ... consistent with that commitment, we undertook to consult with teachers, school boards, parents, and others, and before introducing legislation, reflect on what we've heard." (Press Release, 19 September 1997) This case study has determined that this commitment to consultation and dialogue extends to the use of research and the elicitation of information, which does appear to be used in informing the policy-making process, in many instances.

This selective use of research findings was noted in the case study to have been a long-standing practice by policy-makers. The interactions between researchers, education officials and planners on the one hand, and policy-makers on the other hand, have been the subject of considerable research and professional writing. This writer has previously used an analogy drawn from molecular biology to illustrate that planner-policymaker interactions were not cut-and-dried, but rather comparable to a semi-permeable membrane that is subject to the ebbs and flows of pressure. On one occasion, for example, the policy-maker has firm and immutable opinions, while in other instances the planners/researchers/officials may be able to exercise suasion to advance their professional opinions and/or policies.

The role of the civil service was noted by Laing to be "always in place to enact the agenda of the government" and not to "initiate major policy directions." "By laying out the range of possibilities ... and by recommending certain of the options the civil service certainly makes its voice heard." "But when the government of the day comes in with a specific platform ... it is not up to the civil service to say that we don't think that is a good idea." (Laing, Interview, 1997)

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NOTES

NOTES

INVITATION TO SUBMIT MANUSCRIPTS

The editor of *Educational Planning*, a refereed journal of educational planning issues, invites the submission of original manuscripts for publication consideration. *Educational Planning* is the official journal of the International Society for Educational Planning. The journal's audience includes national and provincial/state planners, university faculty, school district administrators and planners, and other practitioners.

The publication's purpose is to serve as a meeting ground for the scholar-researcher and the practitioner-educator through the presentation of articles that have practical relevance to current issues and that broaden the knowledge base of the discipline. *Educational Planning* disseminates the results of pertinent educational research, presents contemporary ideas for consideration, and provides general information to assist subscribers with their professional responsibilities.

Articles preferred for inclusion are manuscripts from practitioners, reports of empirical research, expository writings including analyses of topical problems, or anecdotal accounts. Unsolicited manuscripts are welcomed. The following criteria have been established for the submission of manuscripts:

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