

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Vol. 5, No. 2
Spring 1986

The Journal of The International Society for Educational Planning



PROMOTING THE STUDY AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Editorial Review Board

- | | |
|--|---|
| Peter E. Angelini
Ontario Council for Leadership in
Educational Administration | Allan Guy
University of Saskatchewan |
| Gary Awkerman
Director, Planning & Management
Charleston County School District | Ann Harrison
Kansas State Department of Education |
| Frank Banghart
Florida State University | Edward H. Humphreys
Ontario Institute for Studies
in Education |
| Robert V. Carlson
University of Vermont | A.P. Johnston
University of Vermont |
| Charles W. Case
University of Iowa | Roger Kaufman
Florida State University |
| George Crawford
University of Kansas | Lloyd MacDonald
Langley School Board |
| William G. Cunningham
Old Dominion University | Herbert Sheathelm
University of Connecticut |
| Kenneth J. Ducote
Director, Planning
New Orleans Public Schools | C. Kenneth Tanner
University of Georgia |
| Kenneth Evans
Ministry of Education
Western Australia | Anna M. Vacca
Jefferson County Board of Education |
| J. Weldon Greene
Director
Program Development & Planning
District of Columbia Public Schools | Belle Ruth Witkin
Consultant |

Editor

Robert H. Beach
University of Alabama

Senior Associate Editor

William D. McInerney
Purdue University

Assistant Editor

Shalimar Ramos
Ministry of Education
Caracas, Venezuela

Associate Editor

Alexia M. Kartis
University of Alabama

Assistant Editor

Aaron T. Moyana
Zimbabwe African Teachers
Association (ZATA)
Harare, Zimbabwe

Reprints: Articles and reviews are available from the publisher at a cost of \$3.50 (US) plus postage for orders of less than 25 copies. For sets of 25 copies, the cost is \$20 (US).

Translations: *Educational Planning* will attempt to provide readers with major language translations of journal articles. Interested members should contact the editor regarding availability, costs, lead time, etc.

©COPYRIGHT 1986

International Society for Educational Planning
ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

Educational Planning is the refereed journal of the International Society for Educational Planning. *Educational Planning* is published quarterly by the Society which maintains editorial, production, and correspondence offices at The University of Alabama, College of Education, P.O. Box Q, 216 Wilson Hall, University, Alabama 35486. The Journal is assigned ISSN 0315-9388 by the International Serials Data System/Canada. All material in the Journal is the property of the International Society for Educational Planning and is copyrighted. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording or any information storage or retrieval system without written permission from the publisher. Permission to use material generally will be made available by the editor to students and educational institutions upon request.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

VOLUME 5 · SPRING 1986 · NUMBER 2

FROM THE PRESIDENT'S DESK 2

ARTICLES

Policy Planning and State Educational
Reforms of the 1980s
A.P. Johnston and Joseph M. Moore 4

Some Unique Aspects of Long-range and
Strategic Planning for Michigan State University,
a Large Public Institution
*Richard L. Featherstone, Martha L. Hesse,
and Robert M. Lockhart* 13

Problems, Perplexities, and Politics
of Program Evaluation
Gail Thierbach Schneider 23

The Internal Versus the External Program
Review Models Used in Higher Education Planning
Barbara Breier 30

Curriculum Map for Preparing Educational Planners
Bruce A. Peseau 41

ANNOUNCEMENTS

1986 ISEP Conference 55

Membership/Subscription Form 61

Invitation to Submit Manuscripts 62

FROM THE PRESIDENT'S DESK . . .

The greatest source of change in social systems unquestionably is the process of human learning. (Boulding, 1985)

This gentle reminder needs greater attention in countering the pessimism of the determinist. Unfortunately, determinists rely too heavily on yesterday's events to foreshadow tomorrow's status quo. This text surfaced from my stack of books-to-read pile. This text combined with daily events forcibly remind me of the potential for human learning and creativity. Our quest for knowledge and understanding is insatiable and is enormous at this point late in the 20th century. The theories, technologies, and concepts that have been amassed are significant and immense. Yet, this knowledge is not as freeing of the human spirit as once envisioned. As we confront the overload of information and the views of the critics, feelings of hopelessness become very strong. It is little wonder that those of us who advocate planning efforts experience apathetic stares. The conventional wisdom expressed is that any form of long-range planning is an exercise in futility.

Yet, there are daily reminders of the consequence of effective planning. The space program's planning is most widely known by the public. Prior to the recent tragedy, we could point to major accomplishments of placing a man on the moon, development of a retrievable space ship, and a 100% safety record. Was it all luck or the availability of fiscal resources?

Less known are business, medical care, and public school planning efforts. These efforts owe their success to ordinary people. Persons who explore the depths of their potential through hard work, commitment and conscious planning. I am reminded of the awareness that resulted from a discussion in my planning course. The assignment was to "describe your personal planning model." The members of the course were school administrators with three to ten years of administrative experience. Most of them discovered that they could not describe their planning style for addressing problems or creating new opportunities. These are persons that I would describe as "non-planners." They have lost sight of their individual power to influence events around them. They have forgotten how they managed such control prior to their administrative appointment. These non-planners are too willing to defer to the wishes and demands of others. The assignment generated continuous discussion throughout the course and resulted in a greater appreciation of our power to affect the future.

There is a tendency to carry things to their extreme. Either we hyperrationalize that we can solve unsolvable problems or assume failure when we cannot attain our original goals. Marris's (1975) observation offers some sage advice for those who attempt to plan and implement change:

They must listen as well as explain, continually accommodating their design to other purposes, other kinds of experience, modifying and

renegotiating long after they would like to believe that their conception was finished. If they impatiently cut this process short, their reforms are likely to be abortive. (p. 167)

Is it better to implement half-fulfilled dreams or not dream at all? This is a question that faces us all when it comes to planning the future or succumbing to the past. May we find the wisdom and courage to continue our faith in the value to err on the side of planning for a better tomorrow.

Robert V. Carlson
Professor
University of Vermont

REFERENCES

- Boulding, K. E. (1985). *World as a total system*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
Marris, P. (1975). *Loss and change*. Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

POLICY PLANNING AND STATE EDUCATIONAL REFORMS OF THE 1980s

Throughout a number of state-lead education reform policies, state governments are perceptibly shifting the relationship between education and politics toward increasing politicization. State policy planners in education, by the nature of their job, are uniquely positioned to play a key role in bridging the two worlds of educators and legislators, for it is the policy planners who, as advisors to chief state school officers, are most intimately familiar with the culture of each and who understand both the politics and the technical aspects of gathering and using information.

We will first suggest the near-term future direction of education governance, then, based on the rationale offered, consider two major issues: sustaining dollars for education and developing structures for reform. These are two issues, we believe, that will require action to forestall serious negative consequences in the coming years.

Context of the 1980s Reform

The history of who has dominated the governance of education in the past century is important to summarize as a way of getting a sense of previous shifts that have occurred and noting in retrospect the important effects which they have had on the question of "who controls?" This will establish the context for understanding the current and highly visible shift that is both like and unlike governance patterns of the past and will require imaginative policy responses.

The dominance of local politics in the late 1800s and early 1900s was largely unfettered by the niceties of state or federal concerns for such things as quality education, financial equity, or equality of opportunity. The tradition of local control had long been asserted as very small numbers of citizens controlled the important educational decisions affecting their children. For reasons associated with the broad social reforms of the early 20th century, especially the professionalization of public management, this era was transformed into a long period of professional control of the schools (Callahan, 1962; Tyack, 1974), lasting from the early 1900s until the mid 1960s. During this period, professional educators gradually asserted control, quieting and pushing aside the earlier view of teachers and administrators as public servants.

A. P. Johnston is an Associate Professor of Administration and Planning in the College of Social Services at the University of Vermont. Joseph M. Moore is the Assistant to the President at Vermont Technical College at Randolph Center, Vermont.

The volatile 1960s brought an end to the comparatively placid earlier decades and marked the beginning of a repoliticization of education, first by the federal government, then by the several state governments. The federal period of domination was eclipsed by a growing state presence, starting in the mid 1970s, and by a relatively steep withdrawal of federal presence in 1980. There is a widespread agreement that the 1980s have so far been the "decade of the states" in educational matters.

Undoubtedly, the late 1980s and early 1990s will be characterized by continued state interest in education. No issue stays forever at political center stage, but given the significant level of state funding for education--approximately 50% of the total funding for public education--neither will it disappear nor even recede to a pre-1960s level of interest. The crucial problem with which policy planners must deal is the increasing number of highly specific policy obligations that states are now mandating such as merit pay and testing of in-service teachers, but which are important to address in a direct, visible, and meaningful way to sustain state funding for education. This problem did not appear during an earlier era of professional control and was anything but adequately addressed, in a political sense, during the "federal" years, but presents itself as absolutely crucial given the funding responsibilities evident in the 1980s.

Sustaining Dollars

A major problem for policy planners is how to sustain, at minimum, the flow of state dollars to education. With the dramatic rise during the last decade in the proportion of state dollars to the total education budget, it becomes more important than ever to make certain that this base is not eroded (Kirst, 1985). In addition to the costly reforms already implemented, there is the cost of an increase in school-age population as well as more demands for early childhood education and general improvement in the quality of education. These factors, in concert with normal inflation and a desire to increase teacher salaries, suggest inordinate demands on state education budgets. Even more, there is a clear possibility of a federal tax reform that will place a greater burden on state taxes for education in conjunction with a devolution of federal responsibilities and a decrease of funding to the states for many social services. Certainly, the competition for state dollars across the entire spectrum of social services is going to become more intense. How, in the face of some likely decrease in state political interest and an increase in dollar demand, can education even maintain, much less increase, its present resource position?

The current practice is for the state to increase dollars for education in return for educational reform in the schools. That is, in the 1980s, following a significant decline in public confidence in education, state governments have intervened in the schools, fashioning a quid pro quo relationship: the state provides dollars in return for the schools providing evidence of better performance. The South Carolina initiative, led by the governor, provides a clear example of this, combining a tax increase of a penny sales tax (under the slogan "A penny for their thoughts")

with promise of broad education improvement, to the end of making South Carolina more economically competitive. Other examples of extensive efforts include Mississippi, Virginia, Arkansas, and Texas; virtually all states, however, have been affected in some significant way by recent state reform policy tied to state dollars (Burns & Lindner, 1985).

What Evidence to Provide?

Commentators on the numerous state and national reports and state educational reform "packages" (Anderson, 1985; Burns & Lindner, 1985; Kirst, 1985) have each alluded to the need to get information to lawmakers on how the schools have responded to the state legislative efforts. Annette Morgan, Chair of the Education Committee of the Missouri House, has put the matter this way: "The days are over when the local districts can ask of legislators don't call, don't write, just send money" (personal communication, September, 1985). Governor Clinton of Arkansas stressed the importance of information on reform, i.e., the need to know "Is the law being carried out? Is what is being done being done right? Is what is being done having the desired effect?" (personal communication, 1985).

There is lack of clarity, however, in what is thought to be needed to satisfy legislative concern. "Quality," "improvement," and "effort" are words used almost interchangeably to describe what legislators want, but the implications for what "evidence" we look at varies considerably depending upon which construct we use.

Quality

Indicators of quality constitute one type of evidence that are needed to satisfy lawmakers that the job is getting done. There is wide divergence and no discernible consensus about what indicators to use and what these actually mean school by school (e.g., numbers of graduates going to college, number of merit scholars). Among these indicators are the much abused standardized test data which provide necessary but by no means sufficient evidence of what schools are doing or what they are expected to do. They constitute data that are easy to aggregate and easy to read, but by the way in which they are reported suggest that at least half of the students have failed. We say at least half because students achieving at the norm or a little above are hardly going to be acclaimed "winners."

If legislators and other policymakers believe that quality of schooling is what is needed to satisfy their continued support of education, state policy planners must provide the evidence, but planners must also take the time to educate the policymakers about what makes sense from an educative point of view. Politics as an expression of public values is vitally important, but must not, because of its authority alone, override what makes sense from the standpoint of the child being educated.

School Improvement

The language that others use to describe what is necessary for lawmakers is that of "school improvement" (Odden & Odden, 1984). We are not certain whether this is a code word for many recent efforts, most notably effective schools, with an accompanying expectancy that the programs associated with these efforts will be implemented, or a feeling that any school that is making demonstrable gains on certain process measures deserves support. Examples of such a measure would be total school time for teaching and "time on task" accountability. In any case, what is called for is different from the idea of quality as a "product," or attained status, and is a shift to processes that presumably are causally related to quality. For the policy planner, the problem is certainly one of measurement, but beyond that, it is important to clarify to policymakers what they are getting--that is, what causal relationships really can be specified. This is a delicate matter, for educators quite apparently believe in the need to promise something to receive the money, but overpromising, in the long term, erodes support.

Effort

Finally, the language of effort is also used as a measure of a school's response to policy mandates. There is an implicit recognition of vast differences among schools in all of this language, differences that might preclude all schools from making the same gains or achieving "quality." We are not at all certain of the stability of this measure. First, there is great difficulty in providing effort at some aggregate level; one must feel what is occurring to make a convincing case for its existence. We have in mind here the writing of stories about what is occurring (Rein, 1976). Such stories are totally accurate, convincing, and real, but must be written for audiences who have not participated in the effort, audiences who might otherwise simply read "bottom line" student performance numbers rather than descriptions of processes.

Second, our uncertainty stems from not being at all clear how much support could be sustained over time for a school that made an effort but did not show tangible improvement. Effort can be demonstrated by stories of hard work and commitment, but we have little idea if such stories are sufficient to keep public interest and attention on the schools. Of course, for all we know this could be more effective than product scores. But, and this is the point, there is a different kind of evidence required. Policy planners must attend to such political information needs if for no other reason than such attention is an important means to keep from capitulating to far more intrusive political activity.

Or Is "Evidence" What Is Needed?

There is quite understandably among policy planners a certain built-in claim that information is important. Our biases strongly suggest the need for social science evidence to make a "good" decision. We are persistently surrounded by experiences, however, which in some measure belie such confidence. This is, of

course, not to deny totally the need for evidence as we spoke of it above, but to remind ourselves that policymakers may find other kinds of information more convincing. A policymaker working in a school with teachers is a potentially rich alternative to conducting the data-gathering and necessary aggregation and smoothing of information for a legislative body. Similarly, bringing the media into schools and into discussions of issues with policymakers, administrators, teachers, and students serves as a basis for intelligent and informed reporting of what is occurring in local schools.

As a long-range strategy, it seems the better part of wisdom to start immediately to involve parents and the community in the schools in very meaningful ways. Irrespective of future patterns of education governance, building these personal bridges between school and local constituents is important once it is acknowledged that information other than standardized test scores is necessary to hold a school accountable for its multiple functions. Satisfying state political interests could hardly be better served, we think, than having local citizens advocate on behalf of the schools. This is not the conventional form of data in tables and charts, but a policy planner with a sense of the world of politics understands the power of political constituencies as an influence on future policy.

The case could and probably should be made that the nature of the evidence required is, in some sense, all of the above, likely in numerous combinations. The job of discovering what will be needed as a means for sustaining state funding is an immediate concern of policy planners (akin to needs assessment) and requires listening to what policymakers and the public say they want in terms of educational accountability, probing and educating to see if that is what they really want, and then determining how to acquire it for them. Mazmanian and Sabatier (1980) report that what an agency does, at least during the early years of implementation, is not as important as what the active public thinks it is doing. A variation of this is an important point for the current educational reform efforts: the language of the reforms may have created expectations well beyond what is really reasonable to expect--the language is as directed at political purposes as it is to educational purposes (Edelman, 1971).

In short, our message is that of the necessity of thinking through what it is that the policymakers at any and all levels will want and need to continue their support of public education, and to prepare now to provide evidence, experience, constituency support, or whatever it takes short of interfering with the process of educating students. It is the job of the policy planners to make explicit the differing roles of educators and politicians in the schooling of America's youth. This is the pivotal linking role of the policy planner.

The Structure of Reform

The last decade has witnessed reform efforts that have been initiated and controlled by conventional top-down rationalistic processes and reforms that provide enabling conditions for local initiatives (Anderson; 1985). The post Nation-

at-Risk era, however, has been characterized by a preponderance of state initiatives that demonstrate a centralization rather than a decentralization of education governance.

As a theoretical concept, federalism is an old and venerable idea in the United States, one which accepts both loose and tight linkages bonding larger and smaller units of government. What we have seen recently is a loosening of the federal-state ties in a wide array of services, including education, but a tightening of the state-local relationship, especially in education. The argument is made that if education is to receive more state dollars, then it must expect more control--a direct application of "he who pays the piper calls the tune." Two messages are very clear from this trend on state-local relationships: first, that the accountability amounts to a single notion of control, and second, that it is assumed that whatever is good for politics is good for education.

Accountability

By the early 1970s accountability had become a key concept in educational planning, reflecting a rational account of how education actually worked. This stance was very important to education as it has been for politics generally, for it has provided the structure for "how one set of actors influence another set of actors to carry out policy directives" (Nakamura & Smallwood, 1980, p. 60). This view explained the immense popularity of planning, for legislators and other policymakers shared the idea that one could establish goals, cause-effect relationships, and feedback mechanisms that accurately portrayed a working system of education--a system that could be forced to be responsive to their directives. Naive perhaps, but it was nevertheless the "working model." Education planners, informed by (a) experience from our many mistaken notions, (b) a plethora of research on how institutions ranging from schools to American corporations operate effectively, and (c) research and scholarship in policy implementation are now far more sophisticated. Or at least we are modest in our expectations of the rational planning model. A reading of the post Nation-at-Risk legislation, however, clearly suggests that politicians are still wedded to the older notion of accountability (U.S. Department of Education, 1984).

The realities of the mid 1980s seem to be that state policymaking in education is proceeding as if it had no choice but to follow the example set in the 1970s by the federal government in particular, in specifically stipulating the substance and often the method of reform. In attempting to force ever tighter linkages within a state policy system, states are in a variety of ways centralizing, attempting to fix education with one-best-fit laws (Wise, 1979) that do not take into account what many of us have learned in the past decade. Law that will work only with heroic efforts or the rudest of unintended consequences is easily as familiar to local administrators as law that is of direct and positive consequence in improving the conditions of learning.

Under these conditions, teachers, students, administrators, and school board members are each viewed as instruments of policy. Students get translated into

utility functions. Their utility is a measure of the quality of the school, of the return on each dollar expended, and at least in subtle ways, a measure of the teaching abilities of their teachers.

Teachers, thus, become instruments of student performance. Policy that concentrates resources to focus on enhanced scores is therefore legitimated on the grounds of test scores alone. Merit pay, to use a prior example, makes assumptions about incentives for teachers which have only a weak relationship to reality (Rosenholtz, 1984), and is potentially very poor policy not because it might not "work," but because it could work for reasons that have little to do with the policy and because likely side effects have a good probability of being inimical to the best interests of the teaching profession. Teacher performance tests for teachers currently in service, to use another prior example, stand an excellent chance of further demoralizing and "deprofessionalizing" the very best in the teacher ranks, along with those who do a creditable job year in and year out under difficult circumstances. The point of such tests is to "get" the 5 or 10 or even 15% of not-so-good to rotten teachers. Any way you take it, the tests are a sorry bargain. As one chief state school officer put the situation:

Mandating may well contribute to a decline in education. The fun and challenge of self-renewal, or designing change, has been taken over by the legislators, who enjoy it, but who are by and large ill prepared for the role. People who are in education for the creative part of it are leaving after five to seven years. (Frazier, 1985)

Ravitch has noted a similar theme: "In order for reforms to be effective, they must appeal to teachers' educational ideals, respect their professionalism and build on their strengths" (Ravitch, 1983, p. 319).

Structure and Implementation

We do not need to linger for long on what is now the well-known research in the area of implementation and the popular literature concerning major changes in the thinking of American corporate leaders. The Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) study concerning the implementation of a federal "jobs" project was a significant marker in the beginning of a series of studies on the relationship of the center to the periphery (Shon, 1971) in the implementation face of policymaking. Within education, the Rand studies (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; McLaughlin et al., 1985) of the mid 1970s stand as important first steps in determining what actually happens to policy intent behind the classroom door. In these and other studies that have followed about effective implementation, the message is clear: to be effective, policy must make sense in context and must have been introduced under conditions that encourage powerful and direct contributions to the learning environment. In short, policy, even when intensely politically popular, must make sense from an educative point of view for it to have the desired consequence.

The popular work that has come out in the mid 1980s about highly successful corporations buttresses what every effective teacher and administrator has known all along. We might use the Peters and Waterman thesis (Peters & Waterman, 1983) as a marker of the flood of affirmation that the core of excellence in any enterprise is people. The way to be excellent is to create the conditions under which people not only can be creative but that encourage creativity and exercise of judgment. In the long run, everyone loses when talented people are placed under the stringent but unavoidable rules associated with conventional means of accountability.

To put the matter bluntly, we cannot have it both ways. If we expect teachers and administrators to be high achievers, to create and participate in the self-renewing efforts of excellent schools because of and not in spite of the conditions under which they work, they have to be treated not as instruments but as initiators. They need tools, not templates. If those whom we put in charge of our schools are to act in ways consistent with what we want the students to be--autonomous, expressive, self-reliant, with high self esteem, and so on--we must treat them accordingly. All too many of the assumptions of policy behind the 1980s state reforms run counterpoint. That is, the structure that is established by standardization sends a powerful message that what we really value is uniformity and one-dimensional education.

Summary and Conclusion

In sum, it is abundantly evident that state contributions to education are so important that even level funding education is intolerable (Kirst, 1985). Schools of America are now more than at any time in their history at the mercy of the states for dollar sustenance. But even maintaining dollars will be at best very difficult. It is the responsibility of the policy planner to plan now those strategies it will take to sustain state dollars later.

Even more, the policy planner is the key person to understand the nature of the reforms that have been taking place and to square those reforms with the realities of education. No one is in a better position to understand that the reforms will fail, or at least be disappointing, if the political demands are inconsistent with the institutional realities--the public schools--where the reforms must be implemented.

Our thesis, simply put, is that it is the responsibility of the policy planners who stand astride the joining of the worlds of politics and education to assume the role of educating each of the needs and values of the other. The planner in this role is both teacher and statesman, understanding that policy is intimately and legitimately connected to politics and similarly connected to education through establishing the conditions of schooling.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, B. (1985). *How states can support school improvement*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. (An initial informal report on a two-year study by ECS of state reform efforts.)
- Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change*. (U.S. Office of Education No. R-1589-8). Washington, DC: U.S. GPO.
- Burns, D. W., & Lindner, B. J. (1985). *State efforts to assess excellence*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.
- Callahan, R. E. (1962). *Education and the cult of efficiency*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Edelman, M. (1971). *Politics as symbolic action*. Chicago: Markham.
- Frazier, C. (1985). Colorado Chief State School Officer, in informal remarks to a State Education Policy Conference, Denver.
- Kirst, M. W. (1985). *Sustaining state education reform momentum: The linkage between assessment and financial support*. Stanford: Institute for Finance and Governance, Stanford University.
- McLaughlin, M., et al. (1985). *State policy and teaching excellence*. Stanford: Institute for Finance and Governance, Stanford University.
- Mazmanian, D., & Sabatier, P. (1980). The role of attitudes and perceptions in policy evaluation by attentive elites. In H. M. Ingram, and D. E. Mann (Eds.), *Why policies succeed or fail*. (Sage yearbook in politics and public policy, vol. 8). Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Nakamura, R. T., & Smallwood, F. (1980). *The politics of policy implementation*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Odden, A., & Odden, E. (1984). Education reform, school improvement and state policy. *Educational Leadership*, 42(2), 13-19.
- Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H., Jr. (1983). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Pressman, J. L., & Wildavsky, A. (1973). *Implementation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Ravitch, D. (1983). On thinking about the future. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 64(5), 317-320.
- Rein, M. (1976). *Social science and public policy*. New York: Penguin.
- Rosenholtz, S. J. (1984). *Political myths about reforming teaching*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.
- Shon, D. A. (1971). *Beyond the stable state*. New York: W. W. Norton.
- Tyack, D. B. (1974). *The one best system*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- U.S. Department of Education. (1984). *The nation responds: Recent efforts to improve education*. Washington, DC: U.S. GPO.
- Wise, A. E. (1979). *Legislated learning: The bureaucratization of the American classroom*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

SOME UNIQUE ASPECTS OF LONG-RANGE AND STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY, A LARGE PUBLIC INSTITUTION

Consider: a large public university with a current fund budget of \$500 million, over 40,000 students, an academic staff of approximately 3,000 with a support staff over 4,000, a history of having planned both in the contexts of expanding and shrinking resources; but without an on-going comprehensive, systematic, well-defined long-range plan or process for making decisions relating to the future based upon current realities.

Current State of Comprehensive Planning In Major Institutions

Planning is generally considered as a primary function of those decision-making activities that contribute to the success of an institution (Reinharth, Shapiro, & Kallman, 1981). However, as Keller (1983) noted, academic planning is at a crossroads. Despite a wide acceptance of the importance of planning, studies by Cohen, March, and Olsen (1971) indicated there is little evidence that comprehensive institutional planning actually takes place in American colleges and universities. Poulton (1980) in his study of planning products noted that there is little comparative evidence of the contributions planning techniques actually make to institutional decision making.

Before 1960, comprehensive institutional planning for large colleges and universities was primarily limited to "campus planning"--relating to the building of sidewalks, parking lots, laboratories, buildings, and other physical plant structures. During the 1960s and 1970s many colleges and universities were involved in long-range planning activities that developed increasingly comprehensive 5- to 10-year institutional plans. Long-range planning activities during the 1960s and 1970s assumed that a university was a relatively closed system and that internal analysis would yield appropriate quantitative models for resource allocation (Cope, 1981). Planning tended to be a separate, ad hoc function within the operations of the university (Stansbury, 1970), the purpose of which was to produce a specific blueprint plan of action.

Strategic planning, an approach widely used outside of higher education in corporate planning efforts, has received more recent attention. Strategic planning assumes an open system as information is integrated into the university's activities

Richard L. Featherstone is Professor Emeritus of Higher Education and Administration at Michigan State University and is serving as a Consultant to the Long-range Planning Process at the University. Martha L. Hesse is the Assistant Director for Long-range and Strategic Planning within the Office of Planning and Budgets at Michigan State University. Robert M. Lockhart is the Director of the Office of Planning and Budgets at Michigan State University.

from the external environment. Current and future trends are used to make decisions. Strategic planning focuses on the external environment, innovation, and on integrated participatory involvement in planning activities at the variety of operational levels as resource allocation decisions are made (Keller, 1983).

Keller (1983) also noted that while colleges and universities are different and special, they are not outside the organizational world. He advocated that the time has arrived for college and university leadership to pick up planning tools and use them:

Planning is becoming essential. It makes the implicit, inarticulate, and private explicit, articulate and public. It brings decision making out of the closet. It replaces muddling through with purpose. . . . For an organization like a university, dependent on knowledge workers who cannot be ordered about by management but must be persuaded to work roughly in unison toward some goals to which they can subscribe, the creation of a widely known plan of action becomes vital. (p. 70)

Although a variety of planning programs are available to universities for the activities related to resource requirements of the instructional mission, there is no model for comprehensive academic program and support services planning related to all three major missional elements--instruction, research, and public service. In general, there is relatively little formal institutional documentation of existing college and university planning practices and processes. Particularly limited is evidence related to the large, single-campus, public university that does multi-year planning.

Michigan State University's Involvement In Planning: Some Background

Planning at Michigan State University (MSU) has been conducted in many different ways. In the 1950s, in an environment of expanding resources, the university set forth a comprehensive mission with new directions. It was a planning process focused on the development of the budget and of unit planning within an all-university context. In an effort to plan in an environment of diminishing resources, the university evolved two academic planning documents in the 1970s: the *1972-73 Annual Evaluation and Report* and the *All-Funds Program and Budget Planning Report*. Both were upward bound reports completed at the department and school levels, and returned to central administration to be used as a context for resource allocations and programmatic decisions.

During the early 1980s, in a period of crisis and retrenchment, it was observed that long-range planning was critical to Michigan State University's future and should be at the crux of any retrenchment and reallocation at the university. Actual planning during this period emphasized preventive, defensive goals. The lack of a

well-defined plan and a planning process that focused on the university's positive mission and goals was perceived by then President Cecil Mackey as a strategic weakness, and he delegated to the Provost and to the Vice President for Finance and Operations and Treasurer the authority and the responsibility to develop both a plan and a process. It was axiomatic that the Provost and the Vice President were accountable to the President for the work to be accomplished.

The current planning process is described for Michigan State University as long-range and strategic planning. It involves the systematic continuing examination of MSU's mission, goals, and programs. The planning process has been defined as a 3- to 5-year "rolling" or cyclical process that takes into account not only the university's mission, but also the complexity of MSU and the internal and external circumstances and changes that affect the university. It is a dynamic plan that is, in effect, a design for a continuing process of planning that will lead to deliberate changes in programs and commitments. It is also an interactive process that depends heavily on discussion and negotiation.

The personnel of the Offices of the President, the Provost, and the Vice President of Finance and Operations and Treasurer in consultation with the Board of Trustees, the faculty governance structure, and students developed several central documents setting forth the structure for long-range and strategic planning. The current central documents consist of a series of separate but related documents. Those are:

- * Long-Range Strategic Planning at Michigan State University
- * The Mission Statement
- * Environmental Assumptions
- * Academic Programs: Michigan State University
- * Support Service Programs: Michigan State University
- * University Goals
- * Academic Program Planning and Review
- * Support Services Program Planning and Review

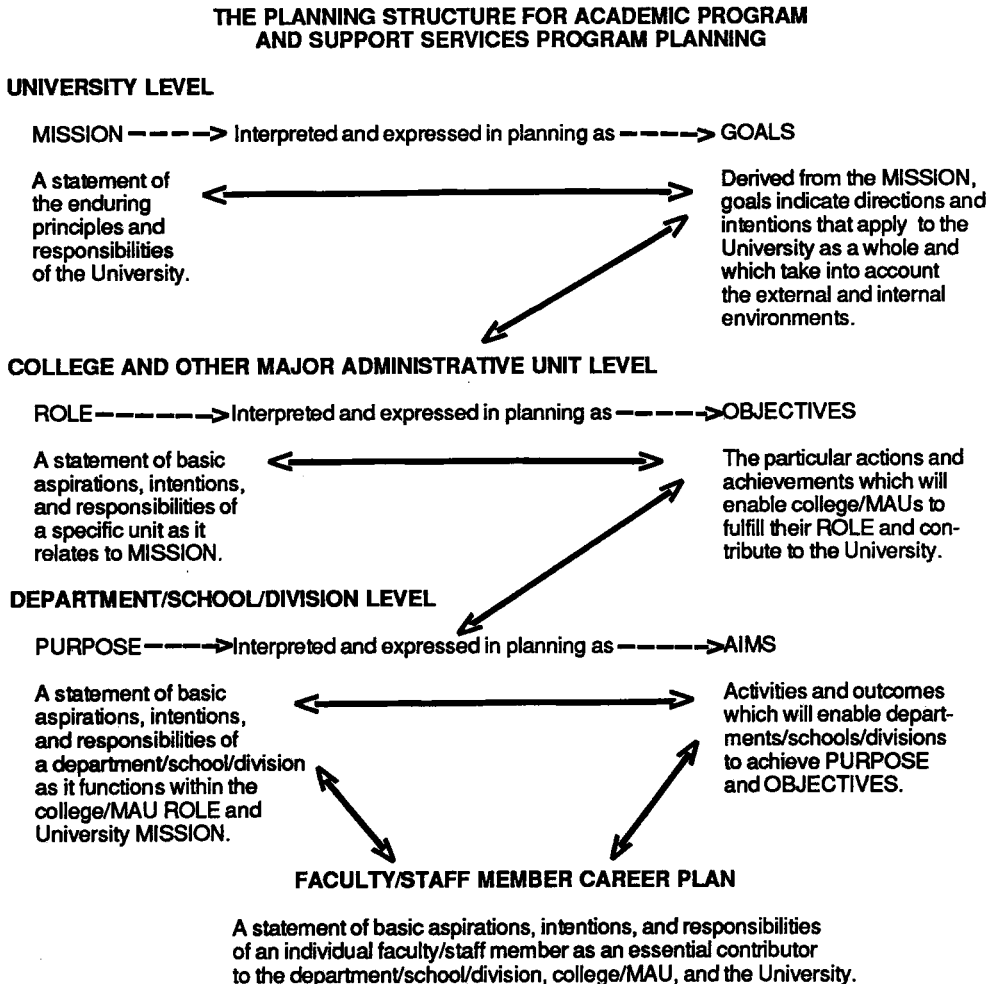
The latter two of the above documents are designed to be developing procedures and formats. The others stand as guiding statements relative to comprehensive, long-range, and strategic planning.

The unique aspects of the planning work at Michigan State University will be highlighted in this article rather than the development traced of all the documentation relating to the implementation of long-range and strategic planning (LRSP). First, the model for planning, LRSP, that evolved and is used for both academic and support services programs will be described. Second, the development of the *University Planning Guide* and an outline of its content will be discussed. Third, the problems relating to the creation of a functional database will be discussed. Fourth, a brief presentation of the relationship between academic and support planning will be made.

The Model

The principal executive officers charged with the development of a planning process had experience with model building and were committed to the development of a graphic model as a link between a concept of planning and the pragmatic implementation of a comprehensive process. It was evident from initial documentation prepared by the personnel of the executive offices that the model would be a "rational planning" model. The model to be used for both academic and support planning is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1



An effort was made to establish both the "direction" for planning and the "process" for planning. The model also illustrates administrative commitment to the notion that the direction for the future of the university should be derived from cooperative work with faculty governance. In fact, a unique aspect of the model and possibly the very "hinge pin" of success may be found at the base of the model in the form of the *Faculty Career Plan*. It is anticipated that it will take some time before chairpersons and deans fully utilize the concept of the career plan, but it could be the most important part of the model. The decision to include the *Faculty Career Plan* was based on the belief that the faculty of a university provide the essential competencies and behaviors that establish institutional image in research, instruction, and public service. Further, as faculty contemplate their future in their disciplines (within the department and within the profession), their career plans will contribute to the effectiveness and success of the university.

University Planning Guide

The *University Planning Guide* is largely a descriptive instrument. It describes what one does or ought to do in preparing a logically sequential and rational series of activities when engaged in long-range strategic planning. As a frontpiece for planning at Michigan State University, the *University Planning Guide* serves as a major tool to be used by administrators, faculty, staff, and students as they understand mutual roles and responsibilities. Newly appointed administrators will find the *Guide* of particular value, as will faculty and currently serving administrators who are interested in increasing their effectiveness as planners.

Using an operations research methodology, a *Guide* for practicing unit administrators was developed. The initial draft was based upon the theoretical principles and guidelines found in relevant literature in the fields of business and education. Subsequently modified by the experience of practicing administrators at different hierarchical levels, the *Planning Guide* presents the conceptual basis for long-range and strategic planning. It also includes examples of the formats that are a part of the formal reporting requirements, and copies of the central documents with which administrators are expected to be familiar.

Following a brief introduction to planning in general, four color-coded, notebook-style sections answer the "who" (Planning Participants), the "how" (Planning Parameters), the "when" (Planning Procedures), and the "what" (Planning Products) of planning for a large university.

The content of the *Guide* is presented below. It is expected that the *Guide* itself will evolve as our institutional experience with planning grows.

Planning Guide Outline

I. Introduction

An overview of general planning concepts pertinent to the university.

II. Planning Participants

The organizational climate, administrative structure, and roles of the participants guide their planning relationship with the whole of the university.

A. Planning Climate

The prevailing institutional atmosphere if conducive to effective planning must not only stimulate options and new ideas but also provide mechanisms for choosing between them.

B. Organizational Structure

The responsibility, authority, and accountability for university planning is rooted in the organizational structure.

C. Roles

The roles of planning participants are related to the formal decision-making process at the university.

III. Planning Parameters

The characteristic factors of planning are generated from a series of critical events. These parameters, at the institutional level, provide the macro boundary for the long-range and strategic planning of the units.

A. University Mission

A definition of the broadest boundaries within which the university provided functions is an articulation of Mission.

B. External Environmental Considerations

Variables outside of the control of the university bear upon both the institution and the individual units. Those external forces are evaluated as a part of the planning process.

C. Internal Environmental Considerations

A range of human and material resources are internally available to the university. The values of the incumbent leadership and university policies bear upon both the institution and each unit in a manner similar to the external environment.

D. University Goals

A common institutional direction for the great diversity of academic and support units is provided by University Goals.

E. Definitions

In a planning process which extends beyond the bounds of a specific unit, shared understanding of a core of terminology is essential.

F. Data as a Planning Base

The use of unit-level data and information as a foundation for planning builds a basis upon which alternative courses of action may be rationally considered.

IV. Planning Procedures

The particular way in which the university's plans are derived forms a decision-making process which broadly covers the academic and support services program missions of the university.

A. Structure for Planning

An increasingly specific structure for the articulation of future intentions and current commitment guides both academic and support services program planning.

B. Academic and Support Services Program Planning

The relationship between academic and support services program planning occurs within a programmatic basis.

C. Sequence and Recurrence of Planning Activities

The sequence of major planning events is a bi-directional flow of advisory and initiative responsibilities and responses that are structured through a set of planning questions to be answered.

D. Planning Incentives and Linkages

A data-based approach to long-range and strategic planning provides a powerful data and information base for student, program, personnel, financial, and facility related options available to decision makers. These options may be tied to budget cycles.

V. Planning Products

Expectations of what is produced by long-range and strategic planning are found in the relative balance of the Mission elements (instruction, research, and public service); in the operational requirements relating to students, programs, personnel, finances, and facilities; and in the evaluation of the planning process itself.

A. Balance of Mission Elements

Long-range and strategic planning targets the University Mission as related to the unit's role and purpose. Derived from that Mission are the planning elements which continually related the activities of the unit to instruction, research and public service.

B. Function Requirements

A comprehensive planning product clearly specifies resource requirements in the functional decision areas related to students, personnel, programs, facilities, and finance.

C. Planning Process Evaluation

The assessment of the planning process is related to the essential elements that are a part of the process. These elements actually become products as planning is implemented.

Database

A database at the department level that can be aggregated to the college and university level is a necessity for planning in a complex college/university. Work on a database began by adopting the five-part *Data Element Dictionary* of the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems. As necessary, the data elements were redefined in terms that fit the uniqueness of Michigan State University. Thus, the basic data elements' categories are: Finance, Students, Faculty and Staff, Program, and Facilities. The data format as shown in Figure 2 was to be horizontal and would include on each line abbreviations for the data elements and a four-year historical display of that element. Immediately following is a single column presenting the current year. Following that is a four-year projection of the data element as planned by the responsible unit leader.

Data-oriented planners tend to dislike the arrangement because the historical and the "present year data" are "hard" or factual data, while the three-year projections represent the *intentions* of the planner. Agreed upon conventions for data definitions, institutional verification, and analysis are readily accepted as actual facts when they can be historically documented. However, future projections generated at the unit-level include a broader range of estimations, each with a variable risk of probability for occurrence. The intentions of a unit, as expressed in out-year planning projections, add a dimension of "estimate" to the historical "actuality." While this actual/estimate continuum is *operationally* troublesome, it is strategically sound. The longitudinality allows for the identification of shifts and trends which are essential to current decision making and the consideration of the unit's future.

In an institution as large as Michigan State University there are excellent sources of data. However, to draw the data together is a herculean task and may take five years. Thus, the first data sheet to be returned to the planners at all levels is incomplete. The data sheet is designed so that every administrator of an academic unit can develop electronic spread sheets for planning. It is anticipated that the next major step is to relate the data to categories of the program levels.

Support Services Planning

The planning procedures being developed at Michigan State University are followed by *every* academic and support service unit on campus. Each unit defines its role and objectives and the means for achieving them; develops analyses of its programs and funding; assesses alternatives for meeting objectives, and for sustaining and improving the quality of its programs or function; and develops at least three five-year "rolling" plans.

As plans for the academic units receive approval from the Provost, the related support service divisions are notified of planned changes in the academic enterprise which would impact their support service function. The support or service divisions then prepare their plans to : 1) continue certain operations, 2) modify specific operations, or 3) to create new services that will be needed to support the academic plans. As plans from the support service units are analyzed, the communication flow reverses and flows from support service units to the academic units.

Problems to Be Solved

Although there are many problems to be solved, the most perplexing include:

1. Measures of departmental quality:
 - Who decides upon "agreed-upon measures"?
 - How are measures determined?
 - What are the rewards/penalties for quality?
 - What is the appropriate external peer group?
 - What are the internal measure for quality?
 - How does quality relate to characteristics difficult to measure?

-What are the consequences of "public" statements relative to quality?

2. Measures relating to faculty workload:

-At what administrative level is load determined?

-What considerations are related to load inputs?

-What considerations are related to load outputs?

-Who evaluates performance standards relative to load?

-How do temporary, tenured, annual-year, academic-year appointments relate to load?

3. Planning for multi-funded and/or jointly administered units:

-How are resources allocated to a jointly administered department with faculty on multiple appointments?

-Should the efforts of a faculty follow the funding source or the "home department" when they are split?

-How are workloads determined for jointly appointed faculty in departments with differing expectations?

-How are the accountability and responsibility lines for jointly administered units determined?

4. Program definitions:

-How are programs defined?

-What are the criteria for program recognition?

-At what administrative level do programs exist?

-How are programs funded?

-What are the institutional responsibilities for programs funded largely from external sources?

It is anticipated that it will take from three to five years of work to refine the planning documents and to solve these problems. Michigan State University is continuing to develop the planning tools necessary to support unit-level planning in such a manner that plans may be communicated throughout the university; to ensure that planning occurs throughout Michigan State University in a comprehensive, systematic and consistent manner; and to ensure that planning occurs throughout Michigan State University for both academic and support service units in an effective manner which assists unit-level and university-level decision making.

REFERENCES

- Cohen, M., March, J., & Olsen, J. (1972). A garbage can model of organizational choice. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 1-25.
- Cope, R. (1981). *Strategic planning, management, and decision making*. AAHE Eric/Higher Education Research Report No. 9.
- Keller, G. (1983). *Academic strategy: The management revolution in American higher education*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Poulton, N. (1980). Strategies of large universities. In M. Jedamus, M. Peterson, & Associates (Eds.), *Improving academic management*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Reinhardt, L., Shapiro, J., & Kallman, E. (1981). *The practice of planning: Strategic, administrative and operational*. Cincinnati: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Stansbury, G. (1970). *The establishment of a conceptual framework to enhance educators' understanding of comprehensive planning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.

PROBLEMS, PERPLEXITIES, AND POLITICS OF PROGRAM EVALUATION

In the past two years, numerous reports have been issued which have criticized the status and quality of American public schools. The result has been that many public school districts are in the process of evaluating existing educational programs to plan for more effective schools. These evaluations range in design from haphazard to well organized; however, regardless of magnitude, all educational evaluations share common problems, perplexities, and political considerations.

Problems

Purpose of Evaluation

Although the decade of the 1980s might well be remembered as the age of educational evaluation, great controversy remains about what evaluation entails and how it should be used (Hamby, 1983). Therefore, to begin an evaluation, evaluators must obtain directions as to the desired extent and scope of the evaluation. Clarification on this issue may come from federal or state funding agencies, the local school board, or superordinates within the organization. On a simplistic level, the first question to be asked is whether the evaluation is intended to be formative or summative. If formative, the basic purpose may be to answer questions about school-system status, input variables, and implementation design rather than about outcomes such as changes in student achievement, attitudes, or behaviors (Hayman & Napier, 1975; Tuckman, 1979). In addition, formative evaluation can provide a framework for observing the development or growth of a program toward specific goals, reveal points of tension or program dysfunction that exist as the result of structural-organizational or human-emotional issues, and pinpoint discrepancies between program objectives and activities that are occurring (Hayman & Napier, 1975). Frequently, the intent of the evaluation is to provide an answer to demands for accountability or a justification for expensive curriculum projects. Thus, evaluations may include both formative (process) and summative (outcome) techniques.

Time Lines and Personnel Allocations

In addition to a lack of clear purpose, evaluators are frequently requested (or directed) to conduct an evaluation of a program without being fully apprised of the

time lines and personnel allocations. Regardless of whether the evaluator is an internal staff member or external consultant, specific time lines must be established to allow for the development of an outline of evaluation activities that will satisfy the purpose(s) of the evaluation. Related to the issue of time constraints are questions regarding work schedules. If the evaluation is being conducted by a staff member, clarification of workload and regular responsibilities must be obtained; and if the evaluator is an external consultant, agreement must be reached regarding the number of hours necessary to complete the task.

Support Services

Another logistical problem centers around available support services such as secretarial assistance and data processing. Frequently, unanticipated conflicts occur over such simple issues as typing of the document, material retrieval, and data gathering. Therefore, administrators must recognize the need for delineation and assignment of these tasks to avoid confusion and conflict. In addition, a preferred document style that suits the intended receiving audience should be specified. If possible, access to word processing should be obtained to expedite draft revisions. Without these support services, evaluators are hampered in initiating the evaluation; and thus, valuable time is wasted as the evaluator grapples with these technical issues.

Program Planning Document

Once the ground rules have been established, evaluators must locate all the existing documents regarding the program to be evaluated. Unfortunately, educational organizations have been notorious for their failure to formulate formal plans for educational programs. All too often a program was the brainchild of a certain individual and the program was approved and financed based on the organization's trust in that individual. As a result, when the program director leaves, those to whom the program is entrusted do not have access to well-developed program plans and descriptions. In addition, the evaluator is faced with the need to reconstruct history before actually beginning the evaluation process.

The lack of program plans also means that the evaluator does not have access to formal program goals and objectives of the program. Therefore, criteria of effectiveness have generally not been established and data have not been collected in a timely manner. The result is that the evaluator must formulate the goals, determine measurement criteria, and, if possible, obtain data that will determine whether the goals have been met. It is important to stress that process approaches to evaluation which emphasize description and interpretation do not reject quantitative data or suggest that in paying more attention to the process that outcomes are neglected (Simons, 1982). Thus, the basic premise that evaluation is "wider" than evaluation must be established.

Perplexities

Involvement In Decision Making

Throughout the educational administrative literature, theorists have stressed the necessity for administrators (in these cases, evaluators) to involve appropriately individuals in decisions that affect them. Basically, if individuals possess interest and knowledge about the program in review, they should be afforded opportunities to be involved in the evaluation process. Failure to do so may result in recommendations, conclusions, or decisions falling outside of their "zone of acceptance" (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). If this occurs, these individuals may resist program suggestions based more on the fact that they are offended by being excluded from the process than that they disagree with the conclusions.

As a result, most evaluations are conducted by the evaluator with the assistance of an evaluation committee. This committee is usually composed of individuals who are involved with and knowledgeable of the program under study. The very fact that these individuals are directly involved raises questions regarding their objectivity. Therefore, to balance the presentation of viewpoints and to discourage bias, the committee may include participants who are not directly involved in the program. Thus, evaluators are not only faced with the previously mentioned logistical problems but must now deal with the subtleties of interpersonal dynamics and conflicts.

External Participants

The issue of involvement becomes more perplexing when the evaluator is expected to include individuals from outside the organization in the evaluation process. In educational evaluations, parents are often representative of external participants. These external participants present additional concerns for the evaluator in that they frequently are not familiar with the total operation of the organization or the program itself; and therefore, considerable time must be spent educating them.

Although this wide-ranging involvement of both internal and external participants in the evaluation process is appealing on an intuitive and theoretical level, the reality is that the end result is often an unwieldy committee structure. The evaluator, to cope with the size of the resultant committee, is often compelled to create a subcommittee structure that raises new management issues. This frequently extensive involvement slows the evaluative process and sidetracks discussions at committee meetings while the evaluator attempts to inform the total committee of the subcommittees' work.

Politics

Time and Professional Ethics

Time often affects the quality of evaluative reports. Conducting an evaluation requires that an evaluator hold committee meetings and meet with other relevant individuals. Unfortunately, beyond the physical time allocated for meetings, time is expended and must be available for preparing the written portions of the evaluation

report. Work must be delegated at the committee meetings, since the primary purposes of these meetings will be information sharing, brainstorming, and consensus building. Given the diverse interests of the committee participants, little time will be available for the functional aspects of generating the evaluation report. Therefore, the evaluator must be realistic about the time constraints under which the participants are operating.

Frequently, if adequate time is not allowed for conducting a thorough evaluation, staff members contend that the process was purposefully manipulated by the governing board. The error may be made in either direction. If too little time is provided, the observation is that the board or administrator is not taking the evaluation seriously; and, if too much time is allocated, the same criticism is made and program participants believe that the program's evaluation is not receiving proper attention.

Professional work ethics and actual work behavior often conflict in the mind of the evaluator. The evaluator assumes that those participating on the evaluation committee are committed to the task at hand and are willing to contribute to the final product. However, in many instances, participants view their roles as information providers and program protectors. Therefore, they attend meetings to protect their vested interests in the program and to assure their constituents that they are doing so. The end result is that participants are more than willing to use release time from their duties to attend meetings and discuss the issues; however, they seldom volunteer to complete tasks that must be done outside the formal meetings such as data collection and analysis and report writing. Consequently, the evaluator is burdened with the bulk of the evaluative task.

Unionism

In addition to general work ethics, union control often provides obstacles to the program evaluator. The collective bargaining agreement in many school districts defines the boundaries of the work day. Therefore, the evaluator is constrained in establishing committee and informational meetings. At certain stages of the evaluation process, evening meetings are often necessary; however, the contract often restricts this possibility unless teachers who are participating receive compensation. Thus, the evaluator must attempt to complete the evaluative task within the "typical" work day although this may not best suit the design or intensity of the project. In the final analysis, the evaluator attends all meetings, holds all informational hearings, collects and analyzes data, and writes the drafts and final report. The risks are that the evaluator will be perceived as controlling the process and ignoring input and the receiving audiences will reject the findings although they were afforded ample opportunity for involvement.

Selection of Evaluators

Another political aspect of evaluation is the selection of the evaluator or committee chairperson. Logically, this person might be the program director; however, frequently the task is delegated to an individual who does not have

vested interests in the program. The intention is that the final report will be more objective than it would have been if conducted by an internal program participant. Part of the problem is that external evaluators and program participants often work from different frames of reference, and this is not always appreciated by either group. The evaluator needs to discover the viewpoints of those involved and to arrive at some common view of what is being assessed and how assessments are to be judged (Dean, 1982).

When an external evaluator is engaged, caution must be taken to insure that all aspects of the program or program sites receive equal attention. Program participants will expect that they receive individual attention although the evaluator may believe that he or she has observed or visited a valid sample of locations. Thus, the evaluator, for political reasons, may find it necessary to provide more individual attention than the evaluation plan demands. By so doing, those visited may view the findings as more credible; however, the evaluator pays the price in terms of time investment. The reality is that the credibility, authenticity, and motives of the external evaluator are questioned by those involved in program delivery. Therefore, in cases of external review, additional time must be allowed for the evaluator to become acquainted with the program and win the trust of the program personnel.

Evaluation Intent

The major justification for school evaluation is enhanced professionalism and it is best introduced as a continuous part of professional practice, not as a short-term response to political pressures. However, many evaluators can recount stories of evaluations that became political tools. When programs are controversial and stakes are high, program evaluations are political acts and evaluators and their reports are used, abused, or ignored depending on how well their findings serve political agendas.

The salience and validity of evaluation, then, depends on its ability to make sense within the dominant conceptualization of the problem and to connect with the values of those who have the power to define the problems and range of options for action (Marshall, 1985).

Evaluation Presentation

The final political consideration relates to the presentation format and forum. Politically astute evaluators carefully appraise the political climate of the organization and determine the most advantageous delivery system. If evaluation is to be effective, it must be viewed as enhancing or, at least, non-threatening by the one(s) evaluated (Hamby, 1983); therefore, evaluators must often make various presentations to a number of constituent groups. Since individual groups will have differing concerns, these multiple presentations, although time-consuming for the evaluator, provide the best opportunity for clarifying the intent and implications of the evaluative findings. Care must be taken to not overestimate or underestimate

the competence of the receiving audience. Evaluators, therefore, must design the evaluation format to suit the receivers while maintaining the integrity of the evaluation.

Recommendations for Effective Evaluation Designs

The preceding comments indicate that a need exists for establishing a firm structure and outline before beginning an evaluation of an educational program. Therefore, the following recommendations are made:

1. The evaluator must meet with the governing board or administrators of the organization to identify the purpose of the evaluation.
2. The evaluator should establish a list of evaluation activities, identify those who will be responsible, and formulate a time line for completion of the evaluation activities.
3. Appropriate support services must be secured.
4. When initiating educational programs, planners must develop, through program planning, documents that include specific goals, processes, and outcomes. In addition, the planning documents should include evaluation criteria.
5. In determining the evaluation committee structure, care must be taken to insure representative participation while avoiding the establishment of a committee of unreasonable size. Fluid rather than constant participation may be more reasonable.
6. Role responsibilities and duties must be clearly delineated to committee members so that they fully understand the extent of their contributions.
7. External evaluators should only be used as committee chairpersons in instances where objectivity is of paramount concern. They may better serve the evaluation process as committee participants, consultants, or reviewers.
8. Evaluators must clearly understand the political climate of the organization.
9. The final evaluation report must be presented in a form that is readily understood by those receiving it.

These recommendations may not remove all the controversy that surrounds the evaluation of educational programs; however, clarification of these issues will allow school personnel to understand more fully the evaluation process as a productive and positive part of the developmental process of the educational program.

REFERENCES

- Dean, J. (1982). Evaluation and advisors. In R. McCormick et al., (Eds.), *Calling education to account: A reader* (pp. 146-157). London: The Open University Press.
- Hamby, J. V. (1983). The value in evaluation. *The Clearing House*, 57, 43-45.
- Hayman, J. L., & Napier, R. N. (1975). *Evaluation in the schools: A human process for renewal*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1982). *Educational administration: Theory, research, and practice*. 2nd ed. New York: Random House.
- Marshall, C. (1985). Politics of evaluation: The competition for control of educational policy. *Urban Education*, 19(4), 411-439.

- Simons, H. (1982). Conversation piece: The practice of interviewing in case study research. In R. McCormick et al., (Eds.), *Calling education to account: A reader* (pp. 239-246). London: The Open University Press.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1979). *Evaluating instructional programs*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

THE INTERNAL VERSUS THE EXTERNAL PROGRAM REVIEW MODELS USED IN HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING

After several decades of growth and expansion, higher education is faced with static and declining budgets that appear to threaten academic quality and program flexibility. The declining budgets have raised several issues related to the role of higher education in society. Included among these issues are the extent to which the public should support higher education, increased demands for accountability, the role of state and federal government in policy making for higher education, and the percentage of higher education funding that should be borne by parents and students. Largely as a direct result of the accountability issue but related to issues of financial support for higher education, program review has come into vogue to assist colleges and universities in making budgetary and programmatic allocations.

Concurrent with the increase of program review has been a flood of reports related to the quality of American education (Adler, 1982; Association of American Colleges, 1985; Boyer, 1983; Feistritz, 1983; Goodlad, 1984; National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; National Endowment for the Humanities, 1984; National Institute of Education, 1984; Twentieth Century Fund, 1983). By far, the most widely publicized of these reports has been *A Nation at Risk* (1983), prepared by the National Commission on Excellence in Education. This report, a study of the problems facing American education, reported that "the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a nation and a people" (p. 5). While this report and others have studied various aspects of the problems in the educational system, virtually all the reports have indicated the need to improve the teacher education preparation provided by colleges and universities.

Within this climate of increased accountability, declining resources, and national concern over the quality of the educational system, the Kansas Board of Regents in 1982 initiated a program review of various academic programs at its seven Regents institutions. Generally, program review is defined as a systematic, periodic, and comprehensive evaluation of existing academic programs in a college or university (Barak, 1984). While there are various ways of conducting such reviews, they usually follow one of the two models: the external review or internal review model. The external review model is represented in the study by the

program review process enacted by the Kansas Board of Regents in December, 1982. The term "external" is applied because the evaluation was conducted by an external body of consultants. In contrast, the internal model is conducted by institutions as a self-assessment measure and is used to determine quality and allocate resources within an institution. The internal review model is represented in the study by the graduate school review process. The term "internal" refers to the fact that the rationale and criteria for conducting the review and the evaluation of the results were all completed by an internal governing body.

The external review conducted by the Kansas Board of Regents includes all levels of programs from the associate through the doctoral level and is cyclical so that every program is reviewed once every five years. Each institution within the system with a program under review is asked to prepare and submit data regarding that program to the board. The board then uses those data to accomplish the following objectives:

(1) To further strengthen the role of the Board of Regents in governing institutions under its jurisdiction;

(2) To increase the Board's knowledge and understanding of the programs conducted at its institutions in order to make informed decisions in an ever-changing environment;

(3) To provide for the periodic and systemwide review of all programs at each Regents institution;

(4) To provide for additional self-study of all programs to improve management at the institutional level. (*Minutes*, Kansas Board of Regents, December 17, 1982)

Differing from the external review model, the internal review model consists of annual reviews used for departmental assessment purposes and comprehensive reviews designed to provide information for review committees conducting 5- or 10-year reviews. According to the 5-year plan (1980-85) for the graduate school, a comprehensive review is scheduled for every graduate program in the University of Kansas. For example, in 1980-81, the first year of the plan, four reviews were conducted. In fiscal year 1984, eight programs were reviewed, including education. All programs are scheduled to be reviewed by the end of 1986. Each department with a graduate program is asked to prepare an annual self-study under the direction of the department chairperson. When the department's comprehensive review is scheduled, these annual self-studies are synthesized and integrated to form the nucleus of the report to the review committee. The review committees then use these reports combined with additional data to form the basis of their recommendations to the Graduate School.

The purpose of this study was to provide an in-depth description of the program review processes as they pertained to the education program at the University of Kansas. Data gathered from that case were then compared with data collected at Emporia State University and Kansas State University to analyze the similarities and differences between the internal review and external review models. While program review has been used in other states and in other institutions, the

experience in Kansas provided an opportunity to make a detailed examination of how the policy of program review was implemented both institutionally and within a statewide system.

The research objectives of the study were:

1. To describe the internal and external review processes as applied at three institutions in the midwest;
2. To compare and contrast the external review model with the internal review models; and
3. To evaluate the effects of the two review models on each other when applied simultaneously.

A Framework for Investigation

There are many definitions of program review in the literature (Arns & Poland, 1980; Folger, 1977). However, the definition that most appropriately represents the concept of program review examined in this study is that used by Seely (1981). Program review is defined as "a management and learning process of systematically identifying and collecting information about a set of related activities that have been developed to accomplish some end" (p. 45). This definition was used to limit the study to only those types of program review that satisfied the requirements of that definition.

While program review has recently become popular, the concept is not a new idea to higher education. External evaluation of academic programs began as early as 1823 when the overseers at Harvard conducted a major external evaluation following the students' "Great Rebellion" (Harclerod, 1980). However, it was not until the rapid expansion of higher education and the increased complexities of academic programs that there was a need for a formalized system of external evaluation.

Beginning in the early seventies, there was a considerable increase in the amount, frequency, and intensity of evaluations conducted by state agencies or governing boards (Dougherty, 1979). Evidence of this is seen in the involvement of state agencies in program reviews. In a study conducted for the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS), Barak (1981) found that fewer than five of the state coordinating/governing agencies had conducted reviews 10 years ago. At the time of the study, 28 state-level agencies reported the authority to review existing programs and most were involved in some type of program approval.

The heightened awareness of boards and state agencies to the concept of program review can be attributed to several factors. First, the move by students from traditional liberal arts and service-related disciplines to business and technology has caused substantial imbalance in program enrollments. The imbalance created a need to shift resources within institutions to insure the vitality of the growing programs. The University of Wisconsin System referred to this as "growth from within" (Smith, 1975, p. 3).

Changing and sometimes decreasing enrollments have been accompanied by a limited growth, or in some cases, actual decreases, in federal and state funds resulting in further institutional budgetary reductions. In many states such as Michigan, Kansas, and Oklahoma, the effects of the economic recession of the early 1980s further reduced the amount of funds available through state sources. Therefore, for some institutions to remain vital there was a demand for the reallocation of resources and the need to retain and strengthen strong academic programs over lower priority programs.

Several authors (Harclerod, 1980; Melichori, 1982) reported that state agencies of higher education, defined as either coordinating or governing boards, are gradually assuming more control in the areas of academic programming. Melichori (1982) identified several factors supporting this trend: a desire to improve the board's position with regard to accountability, intercampus and intersector rivalry such as competition between university systems and community colleges, and pressures from the federal sector to enforce mandates connected with such programs as financial aid. Mingle and Associates (1981) found that one of the prime regulatory functions of the state boards was to regulate the types of higher education programs in the state including the elimination of those which duplicate existing programs.

The literature indicated that there are several types of classifications of program reviews. Baldrige, Kemerer, and Green (1982) reported on one type of review that was characterized by whether there is internal or external control of the review to the institution. Another type distinguished by Harclerod (1980) was characterized by the terms, institutional and statewide. Barak (1985) classified reviews by state agencies into three categories: "1) reviews conducted entirely by institutional personnel, but following some kind of state mandate; 2) reviews that are cooperatively conducted between state agencies and institutions; 3) reviews that are conducted almost entirely by state agency staff or consultants hired by the state agency" (personal communication, April, 1985). However, there was considerable confusion and overlap in the literature with regard to the application of the terms. For this study, the terms internal and external most clearly define the type of reviews examined.

The internal review model was one which was generated from within an institution, generally from a central administrative office, and which utilized internal resources to establish criteria, gather data, prepare reports, and evaluate results. An example of such a review at the University of Kansas was the review conducted by the university graduate school of every graduate program every five years. The results of these reviews were used to grant accreditations and to allocate resources.

Criticism for the external reviews, particularly those of multi-campus systems, was related to the question of "legitimacy of purpose and intellectual authority" (Smith, 1980, p. 47) by which external reviews were conducted. Multi-campus governing boards have been criticized for not having the expertise to evaluate academic programs. Another criticism was the temptation by governing boards to

impose one model of review on all institutions in the state without accounting for individual differences. The problem existed "because of the multiplicity of institutions, the extraordinary diversity of their missions, governance arrangements, audiences, modes of financing, and products, propositions which might be reasonably sustained in reference to comprehensive university centers may be less valid when applied to institutions with more limited purposes" (Smith, 1980, p. 59).

Research Methodology

The methodology used is the case study method, including non-participant observations, interviews, and document review.

The three institutions sampled in the study were selected because they represented critical cases. First, both the University of Kansas and Kansas State University are comprehensive research institutions with highly visible and politically sensitive schools of education. Kansas State University has as its primary mission extension and service to the state while the University of Kansas has been noted for its research and the five-year teacher education program. Emporia State University was chosen because it has a large teacher education program and has gained recognition for strong programs in the areas of applied research to education and in-service to the public school sector.

Interviews were conducted with 48 individuals and included faculty, staff, and administrators at each of three sites, members and former members of the Kansas Board of Regents, the Regents staff, and legislators and members of the governor's staff who had particular knowledge of the program review process. Documents and records were examined from each of the three sites as well as the Office of the Kansas Board of Regents. Non-participant observations were conducted during those periods in which the researcher was on-site at three institutions and during the prolonged engagement at one institution. The data were analyzed through content analysis which is defined as "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 240). Data analyses were performed simultaneously with the data collection by adapting a commonly used computer program, Multiplan, to the task of sorting and retrieving the data.

Research Findings

Prior to the initiation of the program review process, the Kansas Board of Regents had for some years requested institutions to review graduate programs every five years for the purpose of improving educational quality (McFarland, 1982). The requirement left to institutional discretion the manner and type of review to be conducted. Therefore, each institution in the study evolved a different approach to the internal review. Because of the different approaches, it is necessary to describe briefly these processes before comparing the internal review model with the external review model.

Emporia State University had conducted their graduate program review process for approximately five years when the regents announced the program review process in 1983. A decision was made to meld the two processes so that the institution would conduct one review per program which satisfied the regents program review mandate and the graduate program review requirement. This was done from tradition and because it gave greater strength to the outcome of the review.

The process at Emporia State University was the only one in the study that automatically employed outside consultants and that used committee structure outside the normal organizational hierarchy. Another difference noted was that the deans' offices were not a formal part of the process; however, division heads were encouraged to share all the reports and findings with the deans' offices.

At Kansas State University, the internal review process focused primarily on administrative units rather than academic programs. The review of the administrative units were done on a five-year basis and each department and college reviewed the unit and administrative officer for effective leadership. The reviews included interviews with every faculty member in the department as well as the collection of basic departmental data and trends. The review process was decentralized with each dean responsible for the department reviews, and the provost responsible for the deans' reviews. With the decentralized approach, there was a lack of consistency noted among the reviews. Some deans reviewed departments on a regular basis while others did not. Other reviews focused primarily on administrative matters while some considered academic matters as well.

At the University of Kansas, the Office of Research, Graduate Studies, and Public Service was responsible for the graduate program reviews. The university had conducted program reviews since 1965 but revised the process several times until 1979-80 when a task force recommended that reviews be done on a regular basis. Each department conducted an annual self-study which was then compiled into a five-year report to be reviewed by a graduate school committee. At the 10-year review, the process involved outside consultants (*A Report to the Graduate Faculty on the Results of the 1979-80 Task Force Activities*, April, 1981).

Annual self-studies were prepared by the department chairs and forwarded to the graduate dean. The five-year reviews were conducted by a graduate school review committee composed of faculty both inside and outside of the organizational unit under review. The review committees met during the fall semesters to review materials and establish a review strategy. Educational Testing Service (ETS) surveys were sent to alumni and students in each department under review. Results of the survey were forwarded to the committee. Most committees interviewed some faculty and students as part of their process. The committee also reviewed the faculty for graduate and dissertation status. The report was completed in the spring and sent to department chairs, deans, and the graduate dean. Exit interviews were scheduled during which recommendations and plans of actions could be discussed with all appropriate individuals.

While the University of Kansas review was the most comprehensive of the internal reviews, it was not able to sustain its own process. Frequently, review committees took one and one-half to two years to complete their reports. During that time, membership on the review committees sometimes changed requiring an orientation for the new member. The Educational Testing Service (ETS) data were found to be irrelevant for the Fine Arts discipline and less than adequate in other areas. Often, the samples from the surveys were too small to be significant. Exit interviews, one of the most beneficial and critical aspects of the review, broke down. There were no exit interviews for a two-year period due, in part, to sabbaticals and an unwillingness on the part of some to make decisions in the exit interviews.

All of the institutions of the study conducted internal reviews that formed the basis for comparisons with the external regents review. The reviews were similar in nature because they all used a self-study format and relied on similar data to form their conclusions. However, four areas of differences were observed between the two processes.

Quantitative vs. qualitative. The external review was most frequently characterized as focusing on numbers of students, cost of programs, degrees granted, and other quantitative measures.

The internal reviews were more qualitatively focused with attention being given to the content of the curricula, the needs of the constituents, and the success of the graduates. Described by one department chair, "There was, of course, some overlap, but the regents were primarily looking at quantitative data such as the numbers of majors and programs while the internal review focused on quality of the faculty and students" (Faculty member, May, 1985).

Formal vs. informal. Within the external review process, the criteria and format were more specific and structured. Because the process had to apply to all programs in the system, the criteria were more general. Also, since the internal review process was designed by individuals who were familiar with the institutions, those processes were informal and were structured in such a way to reveal more information.

With the strictly internal review, the institution had the opportunity to develop its own criteria. It has the advantage of knowing itself better and can structure the program review to try to discover more about the nature and quality of the programs. (Administrator, May, 1985)

Formative vs. summative. The external review was most often characterized as a summative evaluation because it focused on the weaknesses of the program and did not consider the program within the mission of the university. This review was expressed by participants in various roles in the process:

In the external reviews the outcomes are focused on how to address the weaknesses and to either require institutions to address the weaknesses or ask them to eliminate the programs. With the external review, the Board needs to be persuaded that the weaknesses can be corrected. (Regents staff member, May, 1985)

The Regents, I feel, had an intent or purpose to eliminate programs, particularly programs for which there was no demand, so the Regents review took on a summative evaluation. (Faculty member, May, 1985)

With the Regents review, it tends to bifurcate the programs and look at them program by program without really considering the broader picture of the institution. (Administrator, May, 1985)

On the other hand, the internal review was viewed as formative primarily because it was more supportive and helpful. Institutional review processes were described as more useful because those involved were more familiar with the programs and people and could receive more information and details.

Political vs. collegial. The two processes also differed in terms of purposes. The external review was politically motivated and intended to create discussion and action.

Program review in the external model becomes more political in the sense of the governor and the legislature and one outcome is the political credibility that can be translated into more dollars from the legislature as a result of a credible and forthright review process. (Regents staff member, May, 1985)

In contrast, the internal model derived its purpose not from a political or economic purpose but out of the collegial atmosphere as described by one participant in the process:

The obvious difference (in the two models) is the spirit of the review, that it (the internal review) does not come out of the political or economic necessities, but that it comes out of a spirit of

collegial management, and that we have an obligation to monitor ourselves. (Administrator, May, 1985)

The data revealed that the models differed along four characteristics: quantitative-qualitative; formal-informal; formative-summative; political-collegial. These differences were analyzed to determine their effect on the Regents review policy. Two of the three internal processes (Kansas State University and the University of Kansas) operated totally independent internal review processes. The only effect the internal reviews had on the Regents review process was, in some cases, to change the scheduling of the reviews to coincide with other reviews. It was also noted that, where possible, internal reviews tried to use the same data as required by the Regents. In the case of the third institution (Emporia State University), the internal and external processes were combined into one review. All of the criteria and format of the Regents review were followed. The only differences were that the institution retained its own internal committee structure to prepare the self-studies. With respect to the limited data, it was discovered that where internal and external reviews operated simultaneously, the external review process took precedence.

Conclusions

Based on the limited data of this study, the research suggested that those responsible for planning and implementing program reviews should consider the differences in the two models when choosing the appropriate one for the situation.

Most of the respondents in this study indicated that the internal review process provided better information on which to base decisions and that it was less threatening to faculty and students. The process also could be modified to meet a variety of needs such as measuring administrative effectiveness or quality of academic programs. The internal review model could be more easily adapted to meet changing programmatic requirements. The use of the internal review model benefitted institutions by the widespread involvement of faculty and administrators in the planning process. One disadvantage of the internal review process was the lack of comparable data with other institutions and/or other programs. On the other hand, the external review model allowed for the comparability with data missing from the internal model, but had other weaknesses. The primary disadvantage was the lack of specificity within the data and the general nature of the conclusions. To design a process that would apply across multiple settings, the external review process had to be more general in its questions and its outcomes. Another disadvantage of the external study was the threat it poses to institutional autonomy. The majority of the participants in this study agreed that the Board of Regents had the authority to review programs. However, they objected to some extent to the manner in which they were reviewed--the process itself. In some instances, they found the Board intrusive; that is, invading what they believed had

been faculty or administrative prerogative. The implied threat of intrusion was the most detrimental aspect of the external program review process because it undermined morale and created ill will.

REFERENCES

- Adler, M. J. (1982). *Paideia problems and possibilities*. New York: Macmillan.
- Association of American Colleges. (1985). *Integrity in the college curriculum: A report to the academic community*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Arns, R. G., & Poland, W. (1980). Changing the university through program review. *Journal of Higher Education*, 51(3), 270-284.
- Baldrige, J. V., Kemerer, F. R., & Green, K. C. (1982). *Enrollment in the eighties* (AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Report, No. 3). Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Barak, R. J. (1981). Program evaluation as a tool for retrenchment. In J. R. Mingle & Associates (Eds.), *Challenges of retrenchment* (pp. 212-225). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Barak, R. J. (Speaker). (1984). Presentation at ASHE Graduate Seminar, American Society of Higher Education Annual Convention, Chicago, IL.
- Boyer, E. L. (1983). *High school: A report on secondary education in America*. (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching). New York: Harper and Row.
- Dougherty, E. A. (1979). *The role of institutional researcher in program discontinuance*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Association of Institutional Research, Los Angeles, CA.
- Feistritzer, C. E. (1983). *The condition of teaching: A state by state analysis*. (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching). Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Folger, J. K. (Ed.). (1977). *Increasing the public accountability of higher education*. (New Directions for Institutional Research, No. 16). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Goodlad, J. I. (1984). *A place called school: Prospects for the future*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Harclerod, F. F. (1980). The context of academic program evaluation. In E. C. Craven (Ed.), *Academic program evaluation* (pp. 1-19). (New Directions for Institutional Research, No. 27). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- McFarland, J. (1982). *Program approval-reviewing-planning at the regents institutions*. Unpublished report available on file. Topeka, KS: Board of Regents.
- Melichori, G. S. (1982). *Planning for program discontinuance: From default to design*. (AAHE-ERIC/Higher Education Report, No. 5). Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Mingle, J. R., & Associates. (1981). *The challenges of retrenchment*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education. (1985). *A call for change in teacher education*. Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform*. Washington, DC: United States Department of Education.
- National Endowment for the Humanities. (1984). *To reclaim a legacy*. Washington, DC: Author.

Barbara Breier

- National Institute of Education. (1984). *Involvement in learning: Realizing the potential of American higher education*. Washington, DC: U.S. GPO.
- Seely, J. A. (1981). Program review and evaluation. In N. L. Poulton (Ed.), *Evaluation of management and planning systems* (pp. 45-60). (New Directions for Institutional Research, No. 31). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Smith, D. (1975). *Academic program audit and review as a means of resource allocations*. Paper presented at a seminar for state leaders of postsecondary education, Denver, Co.
- Smith, D. (1980). Multi-campus system approaches to academic program evaluation. In E. C. Craven (Ed.), *Academic program evaluation* (pp. 43-67). (New Directions for Institutional Research, No. 27). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Twentieth Century Fund. Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy. (1983). *Making the grade: Report of the twentieth century fund task force*. New York: Author.

CURRICULUM MAP FOR PREPARING EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS

Curriculum change is analogous to biological evolution. Living organisms undergo higher levels of development, produce buds and branches with specialized characteristics, and evolve from simple to complex systems. The curriculum for preparing educational planners also has experienced those changes.

From Fayol's (1916/1949) early emphasis on planning as a principal management function, through subsequent evolutions and refinements, (Barnard, 1938; Urwick, 1943), the theory and concepts of planning were applied to educational administration. Knezevich (1962) developed a matrix of seven primary literature sources from which he identified "planning" as a dimension of each. From that matrix, he compared the first-order activities of planning under four categories: (1) analytical planning (Newman, 1950), (2) decision making (Griffiths, 1959), (3) problem solving (Umstattd, 1953), and (4) thinking (Dewey, 1910). The emphasis throughout this growth focused on the elaboration of ideas and the reporting of what administrators do in planning; there was little identifiable translation of this effort into suggested curriculum content to prepare administrators to be skilled in planning.

The University Council for Educational Administration's report on their seminar to explore the preparation of programs for administrators did not mention the term "planning" even once. Culbertson (1963) argued that administrator preparation programs were evolving to more common, and less specialized, learnings. He reasoned that the administrator's behaviors (communicating, decision making, handling morale, coping with change) had their source of learning in psychology, philosophy, sociology, political science, and economics. He acknowledged that administrators must understand the process of change, but the normative questions about the purpose of change overshadowed consideration of the technical processes needed to plan. Hencley (1963) presented a matrix of the technical skills required for administration: (1) instruction and curriculum development, (2) staff personnel management, (3) pupil personnel administration, (4) finance and business management, (5) school plant and services, and (6) school-community relations. Those six technical areas were subsumed under the management processes of communication, decision making, change, and morale. McNally and Stuart (1963) discussed what they believed should be the content of

administrator preparation programs. The three dimensions of their model were: (1) content in educational administration, (2) administrative skills, and (3) basic disciplines. Content included the typical organization, control, budgeting, etc. One of the administrative sets was "technical skills," but without any elaboration. Culbertson (1964) later emphasized that, "If decision making, morale building, and initiating change are the most important aspects of administration and leadership, it logically follows that a curriculum should help develop in potential administrators those behaviors which are appropriate for dealing with these processes" (p. 316).

Even the more recent literature offers only limited specifics concerning the curriculum content for preparing administrators. Faludi (1978) proposed a curriculum which would include dimensions of general education and a planning core. The core has three objectives: (1) to learn the skills of problem identification and analysis; (2) to gain experience in action--applying planning to real problems; and (3) to develop practices of innovative behavior and creative thinking. These are still too generalized in nature to be able to identify specific skills and behaviors that might become part of a curriculum's scope and sequence.

University programs for preparing educational administrators begin with a single course--Educational Planning--and undergo a process of growth and branching under the influences of the growth of knowledge, improved faculty expertise, student demand, and need of the marketplace. One course becomes two, then three, and on and on. This curriculum evolution often results in aggregations of disparate courses. Eventually, duplication and overlapping of content force an examination of scope and sequence, with the intent of integrating courses into better sequences and patterns. The constraints on departmental in-breeding forces exploration of legitimate support contributions. Ironically, the eventual result is intended to produce a more systematically planned approach to providing a curriculum for preparing educational planners.

Our administrative planning curriculum (more than just single-focused "educational planning") underwent such an evolution. We began with a USDE contract during 1970-1974 called the "Local Program Planners Institute" which provided a few experimental courses and considerable amounts of fieldwork. The development of planning theory and practice also was taking place elsewhere: (1) Operation PEP, a federally-funded project in the Menlo Park School System; (2) two benchmark publications authored by Erich Jantsch: *Technological Forecasting in Perspective* (1967) and *Perspectives of Planning* (1969); (3) a series of monographs on the fundamentals of educational planning produced by the International Institute for Educational Planning at the UNESCO in Paris; (4) the seven-state project to develop planning capability in state education agencies under the leadership of Furse and Wright (1968) in Utah; and (5) an explosion of interest and publications reporting the thoughts and experiences of educational planners. This massive flow of literature became an obvious overload for most of our single planning courses, so the diversification and branching of the planning curriculum began.

Curriculum evolution in all disciplines is similar, whether it be in engineering, biology, sociology, nursing, or accounting. In the systems sense, disciplines are separated into specialized subsystems which are divided into courses to incorporate the growth of conceptual thinking and experience as it is published and disseminated and then by further division into additional, more specialized courses. Curriculum systems emulate the behavior of biological systems.

The curriculum map for preparing educational planners shows our current stage of development at The University of Alabama. The curriculum is divided into four sectors: (1) core studies, (2) advanced courses, (3) support studies, and (4) applied planning. The core studies include four courses: The first course introduces systems theory, organizational theory, management theory, and planning as a management function. The second course explores the planning cycle in detail, surveys numerous planning models, and applies them in a variety of applications, for example, curriculum, personnel, and facilities. These first two courses are sequential; the second two courses may be taken in either order. One emphasizes the development and use of quantitative data for management planning; it relies primarily on mainframe computer applications. The other core course emphasizes the use of the microcomputer with existing software in creative adaptations for management applications including finances, personnel, inventory, text processing, scheduling, and academic program control.

The second sector includes 10 advanced planning courses. Some, such as the network analysis and higher education courses, are sequential. Five of these advanced courses involve intensive use of the mainframe or microcomputers. All courses, from the first in the core section through these advanced areas, include numerous applications using real-world data.

Four areas of study comprise the support studies sector: (1) research methods, (2) statistics, (3) data generation and management, and (4) applied research.

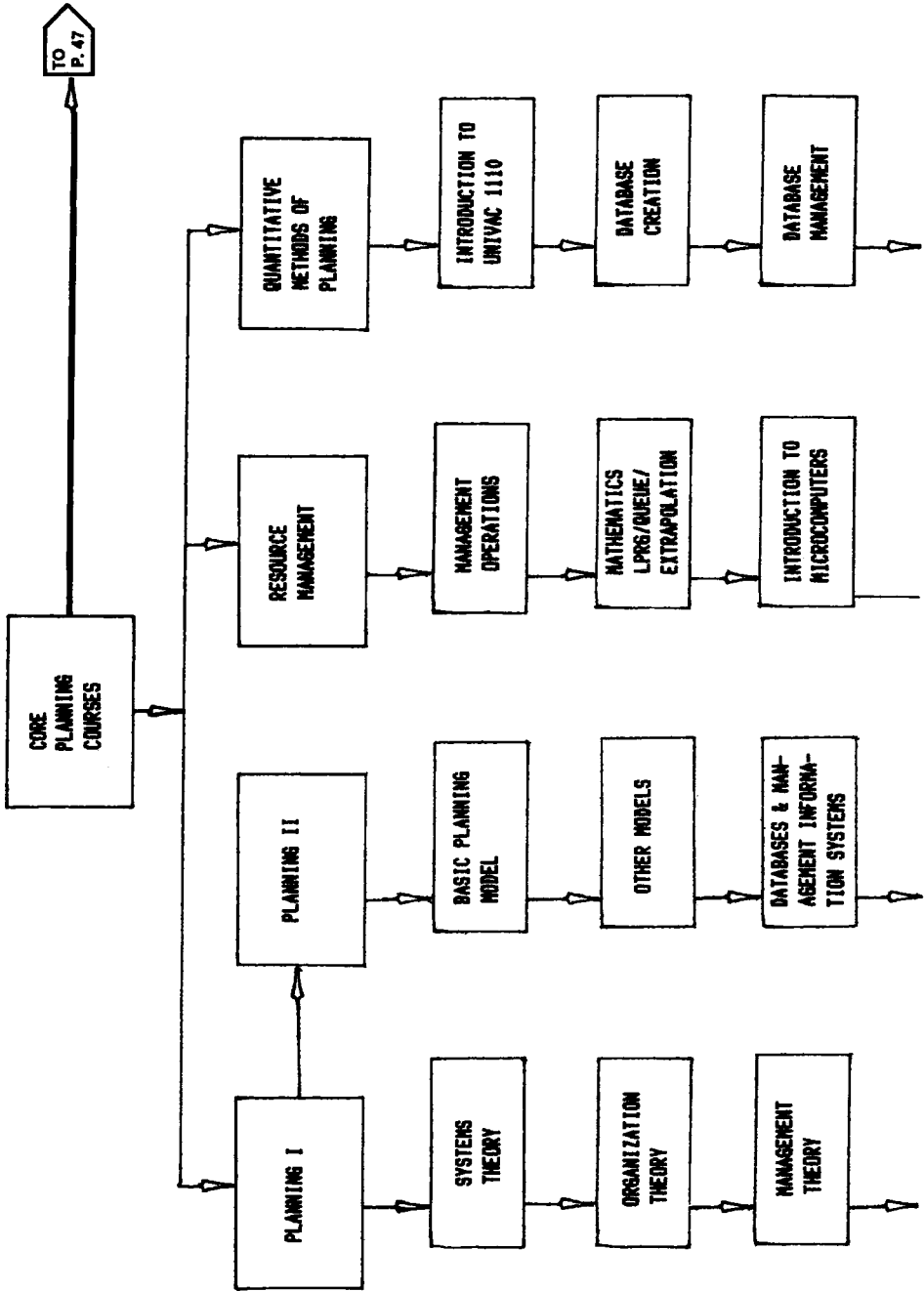
The fourth sector includes three course options under applied planning. Of special note throughout the computer use phases of these courses is that we avoid the tendency to develop programming skills. Our planning curriculum is for management purposes, not to teach the technical aspects of computer program design and development. Our intended result is that graduates will manage educational (and social service) systems; therefore, they must understand planning conceptually and with enough technical specificity to not only direct planning but also lead, train, and evaluate those subordinates who conduct the detailed planning in their organization. The program is clearly intended to fit the needs of managers from a variety of organizations: educational, social service, military, private sector, and state and local governments. Feedback to date from that approach has been very positive.

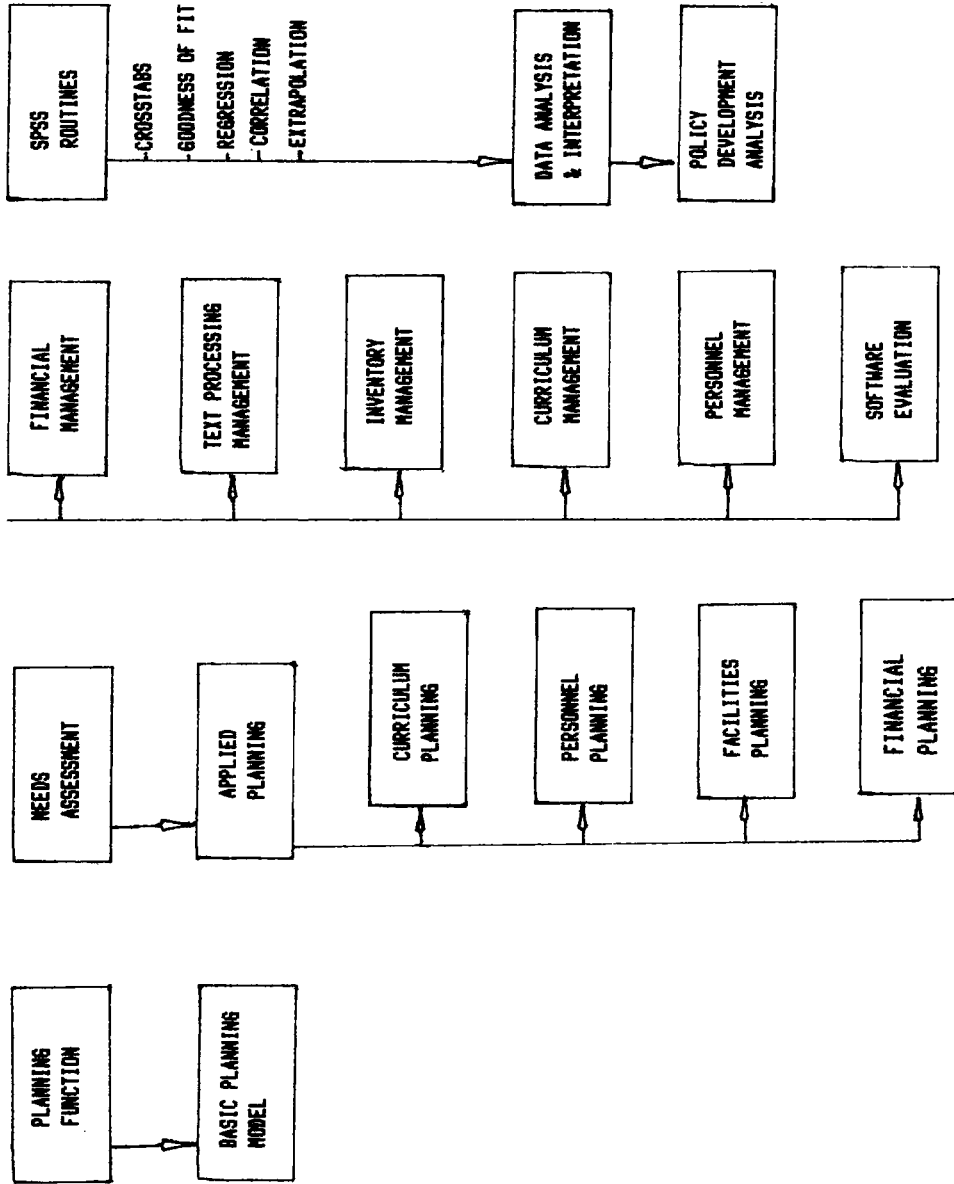
Our planning curriculum has served three primary groups: (1) those who included a cluster of planning courses as a minor field or as a network analysis research proficiency for doctoral programs, (2) those completing certification requirements who needed one or two planning courses, and (3) those from other specializations who take our planning courses as either electives or doctoral

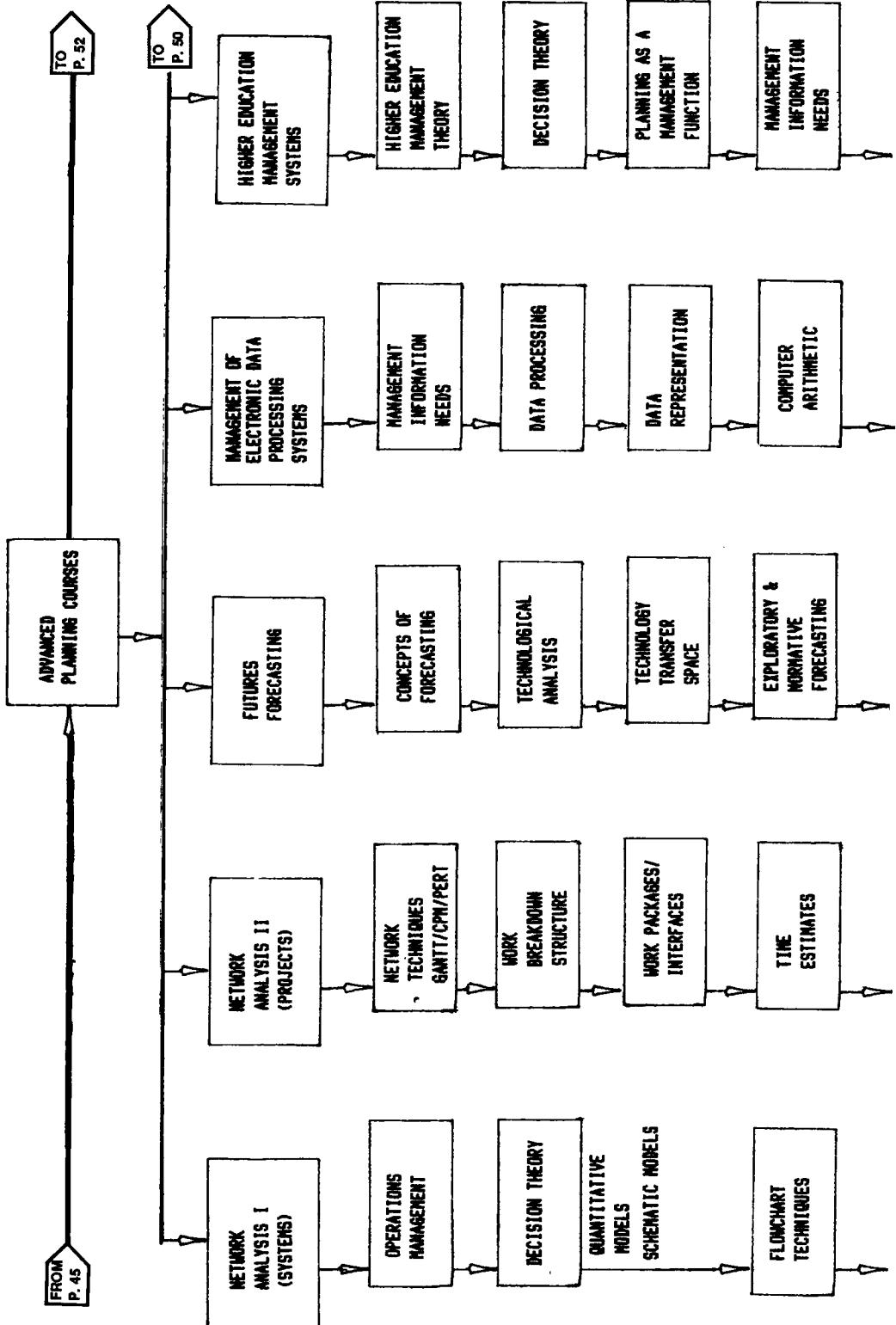
Bruce A. Peseau

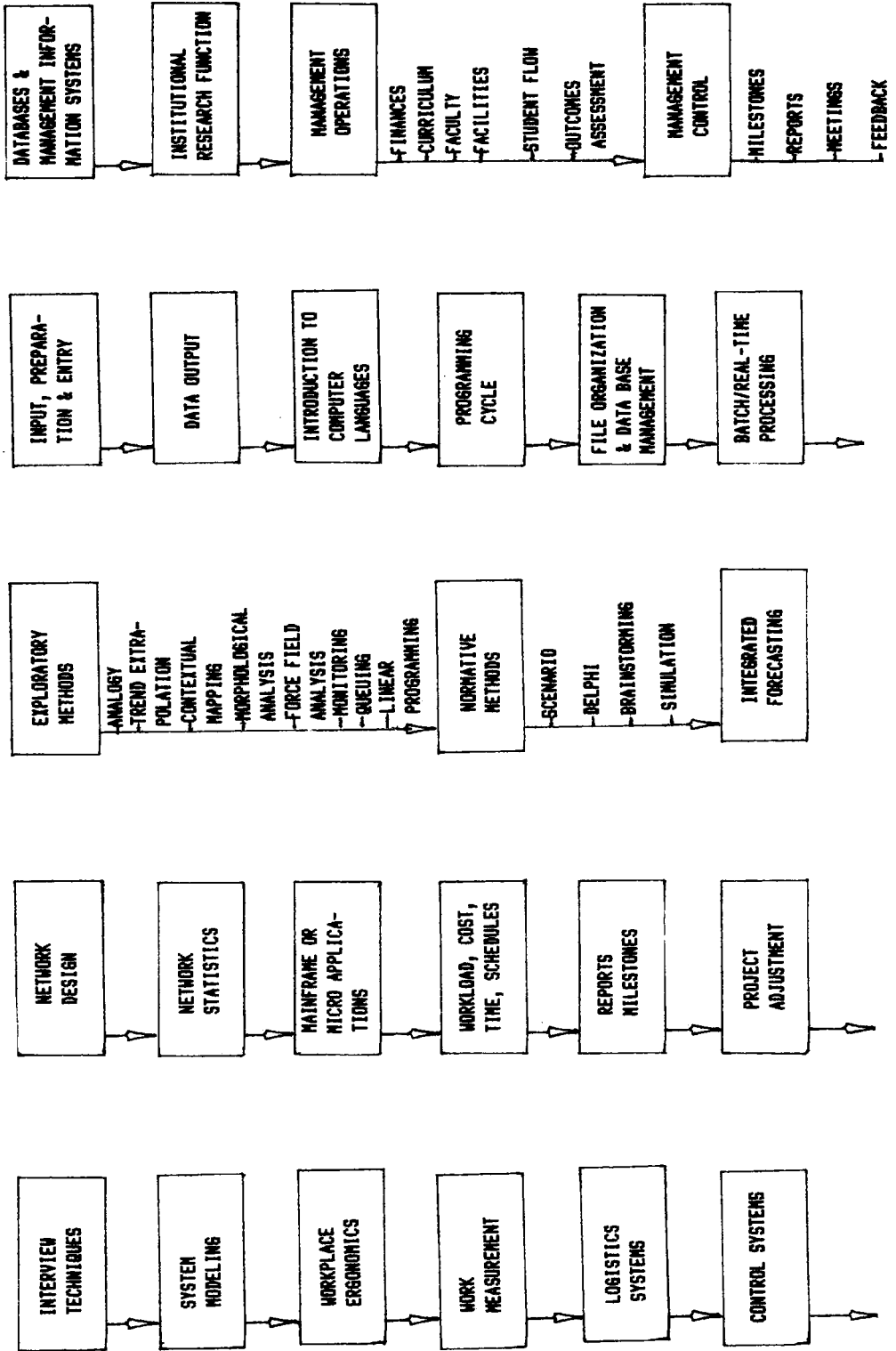
minors. We have recently received approval to offer a Graduate Certificate in Administrative Planning: the completion of the four core courses and two other advanced courses will be followed by an exam. The 18-semester hour certification program can be taken either independently or embedded within a doctoral program.

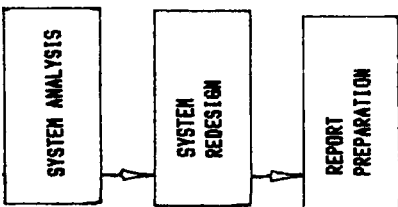
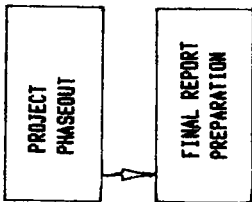
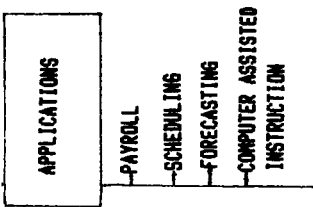
A CURRICULUM MAP FOR PREPARING EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS

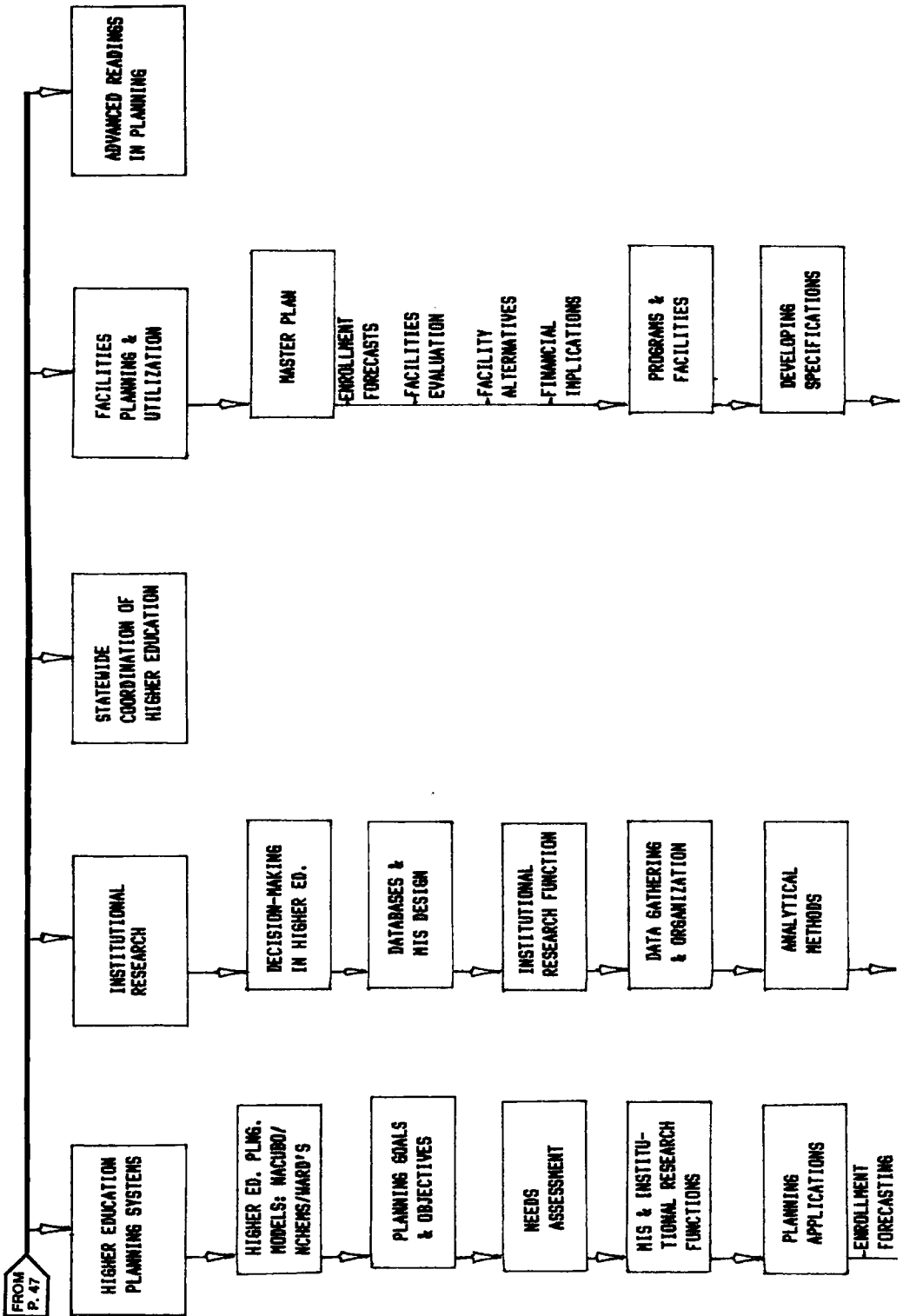


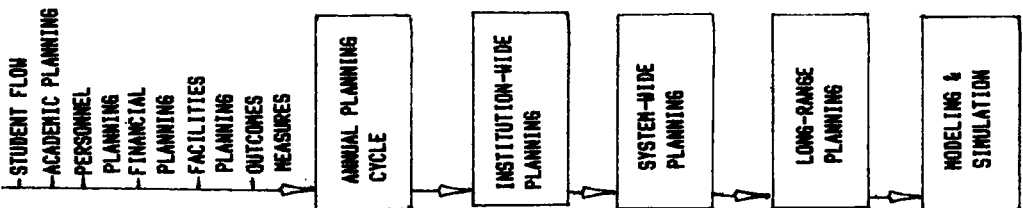
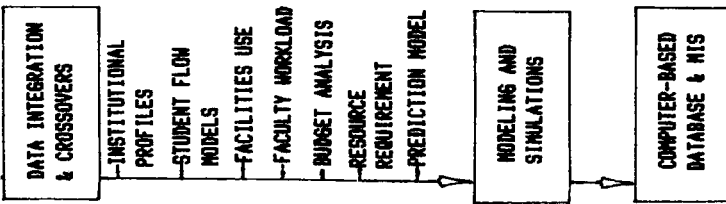
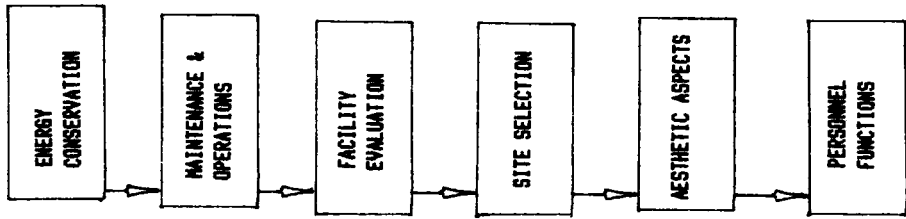


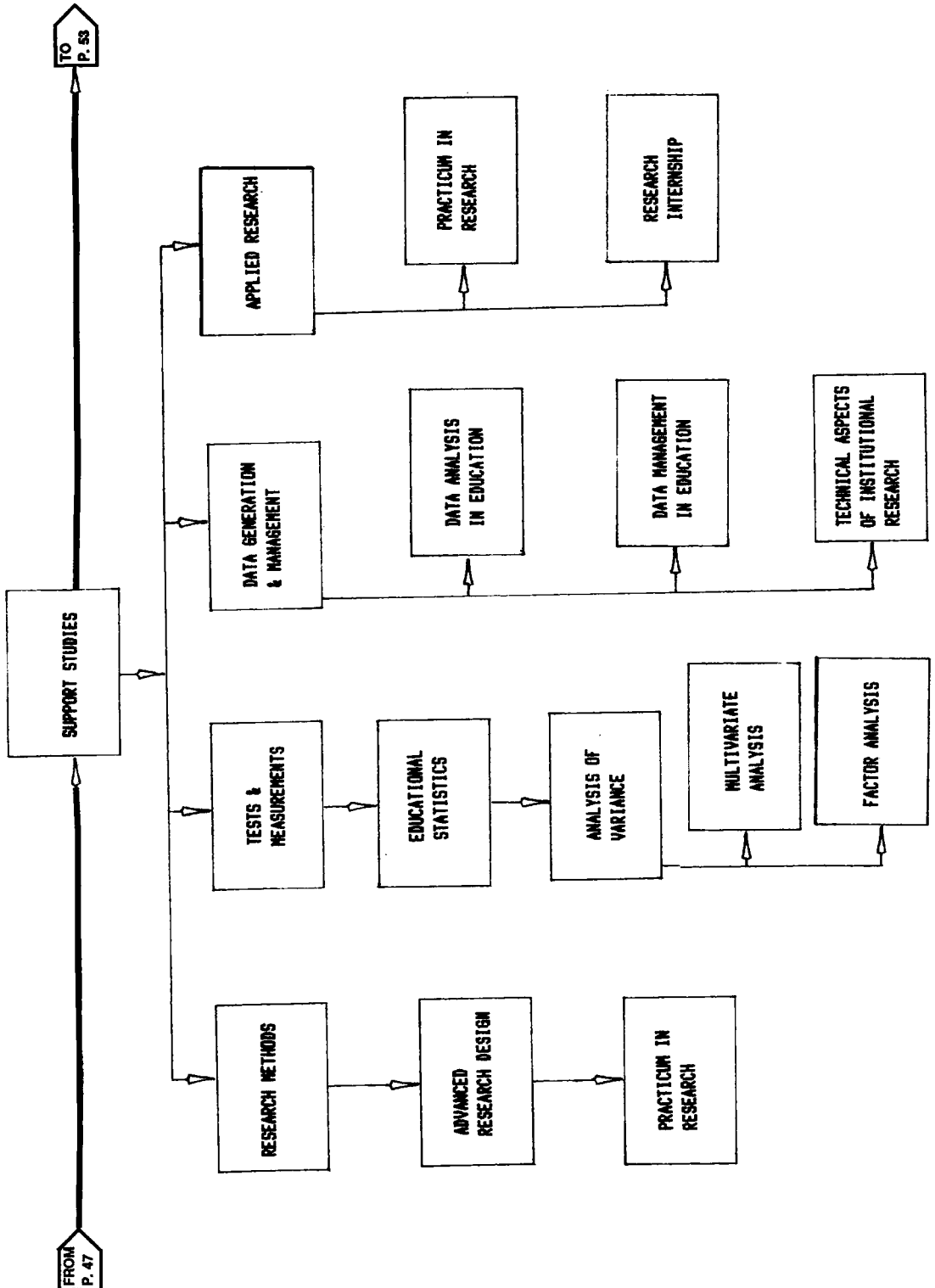


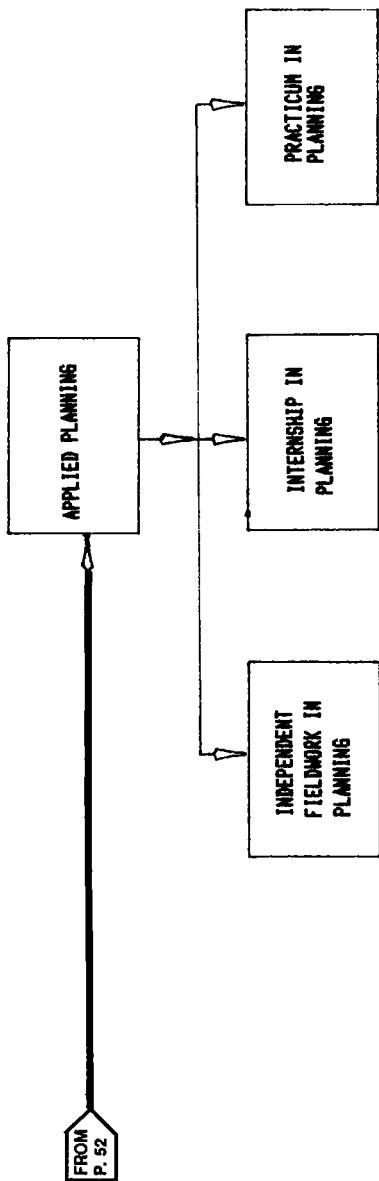








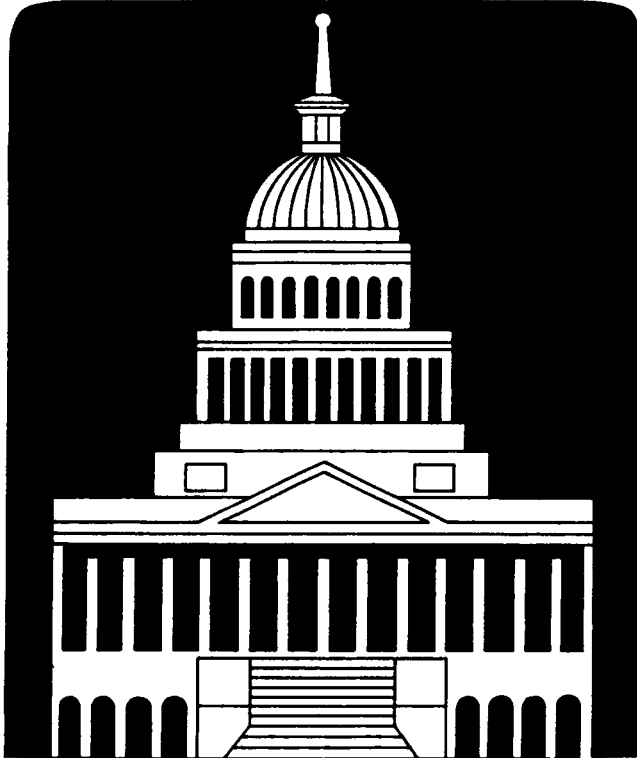




REFERENCES

- Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Culbertson, J. (1963). Common and specialized content in the preparation of administrators. In D. J. Leu & H. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administrators* (pp. 34-35). Seventh UCEA Career Development Seminar, East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.
- Culbertson, J. (1964). The preparation of administrators. In D. Griffiths (Ed.), *Behavior science and educational administration* (pp. 303-330). The Sixty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Dewey, J. (1910). *How we think*. Boston: D. C. Heath.
- Faludi, A. (1978). *Essays on planning theory in education*. New York: Pergamon.
- Fayol, H. (1949). *General and industrial management*. (C. Storrs, Trans.). London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons. (Original work published 1916)
- Furse, B. S., & Wright, L. O. (Eds.). (1968). *Comprehensive planning in state education agencies*. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Board of Education.
- Griffiths, D. (1959). *Administrative theory*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Hencley, S. (1963). Functional interrelationships within administrative performance systems. In D. J. Leu & H. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administration* (pp. 61-95). Seventh UCEA Career Development Seminar, East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.
- Jantsch, E. (1967). *Technological forecasting in perspective*. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Jantsch, E. (Ed.). (1969). *Perspectives of planning*. (Proceedings of the OECD Working Symposium on Long-Range Forecasting and Planning, Bellagio, Italy, October 27-November 2, 1968). Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Knezevich, S. (1962). *Administration of public education*. New York: Harper.
- McNally, H., & Stuart, D. (1963). The elementary school principal. In D. J. Leu & H. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administrators* (pp. 111-122). Seventh UCEA Career Development Seminar, East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.
- Newman, W. (1950). *Administrative action*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Umstadd, J. G. (1953). *Secondary school teaching*. 3rd ed. Boston: Ginn.
- Urwick, L. (1943). *The elements of administration*. New York: Harper.

International Society for Educational Planning



ANNUAL FALL CONFERENCE

THEME:

"Educational Planning: Theory and Practice"

October 26-29, 1986

Washington, D. C.

International Society For Educational Planning 1986 Annual Conference

**Washington, D.C.
October 26-29, 1986**

The Nation's Capital will be the site of the Annual Fall Conference of the International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP) on October 26-29, 1986. Seat of the federal government and home to more than 638,000 local residents, Washington, D. C. also welcomes 17 million American and international visitors yearly. The conference theme is: "Educational Planning: Theory and Practice." Serving as host for the ISEP Annual Fall Conference, the District of Columbia Public Schools extends to you a warm welcome to a city of majesty, beauty and grace!

In addition to providing a forum in which to hear stimulating and informative conference speakers of national and international stature and sessions emphasizing advancements in planning technology, holding the conference in Washington, D.C. affords conference participants many advantages unique to the Nation's Capital including the opportunity to:

MEET AND CONFER WITH:

- Senators and Representatives
- Administration Education Officials
- Policy Analysts and Government Relations Representatives
- Representatives of International Organizations
- Embassy Officials

VISITS AND TOURS:

- **Smithsonian Museums:** Air and Space, American History, and Natural History
- **Art Galleries:** National Gallery and East Wing, Corcoran, Freer, and Portrait Galleries
- **Historic Sites:** Capitol Building; White House; Supreme Court; Washington, Lincoln and Jefferson Monuments; Sumner Schoolhouse Restoration; Library of Congress; National Cathedral; Vietnam and Kennedy Memorials; Olde Town Alexandria and Georgetown.

The 1986 annual Conference will utilize the special resources available in the Washington metropolitan area, feature recognized keynote speakers, provide a forum for paper presentations by ISEP members and the sharing of recent planning products and materials, adopt procedures for the establishment of international affiliates, and promote the continued development of the science of educational planning.

Suggestions for conference activities should be addressed to:

J. Weldon Greene, Director
Division of Program Development and Planning
District of Columbia Public Schools
415 12th Street, N.W., Room 900
Washington, D. C. 20004
(202) 724-4168

ISEP PRE-REGISTRATION

(All costs are in U.S. dollars or equivalent)

- Pre-conference registration** -- \$125 includes reception, refreshments, and annual dues.
- On-site registration** -- \$150 includes same as above.
- Single-day registration** -- \$65 pre-registration; \$75 on-site.
- Student registration** -- \$55 pre-registration and \$65 on-site. Student rates include reception, refreshments and annual dues.
- Extra reception tickets** -- \$25 each. Please indicate number of reception tickets desired (____).
- On-site registration** -- Registration will begin at 4:30 p.m. on Sunday, October 26 at The Charles Sumner Schoolhouse, the conference site.
- Hotel/room reservations** -- Room reservations are to be sent under separate cover directly to The Carlyle Suites (see reservation form).
Note: reservations are required by Tuesday, September 30, 1986.

PRE-REGISTRATION FORM

Please register me for the 1986 ISEP Conference:

Name _____
(as you wish it to appear on your badge)

Organization _____

Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip _____ Phone _____

_____ \$125 single registration, October 26 - 29, 1986, regular rate to include reception, refreshments, and annual dues.

_____ () extra reception tickets @ \$25 each *Checks or money orders
U. S. dollars only*

_____ () student registrations @ \$55 each

_____ Single-day registration @ \$65 each *(Make checks payable to ISEP)*

Return Completed Registration Form and Conference Fees to:
J. Weldon Greene, Division of Program Development and Planning, Room 900,
District of Columbia Public Schools, 415 12th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
20004.

CALL FOR PAPERS

ANNUAL FALL CONFERENCE

**International Society for Educational Planning
Washington, D.C. - October 26-29, 1986**

Proposals for papers, workshops, and symposia on a wide variety of subjects are being accepted for the Annual Fall Conference under the overall conference theme: "Educational Planning: Theory and Practice." Creative presentations are encouraged on planning for elementary, secondary, and higher education. Possible topics might include:

Impact of Microcomputers on Educational Planning
Focusing Planning on the Product: The Graduate
Models for Planning
Cost-Benefit Analysis of Planning
Planning for the Third World
Models for Improving the Quality of the Teaching Force
Principal and Teacher Assessment Centers: Do They Work and Are They Worth It?
New Planning Techniques
Responding to Gramm-Rudman
Developing Mission Statements

Education in the Year 2000
Data Basing Application for Planning
Systems Approaches to Complex Organizations: Tools for the Planner
Market Research and Implications for Planning
Planning for the Unexpected
Human Resource Development
Work-Flow Analysis: A Tool for Improving Management
Planning Resources of Federal, State, and Provincial Governments
Strategic Planning
How to Bring the Planning Office (Timewise) Ahead of the Budget Office
Decision Support Systems

Note: Conference sessions will be 90 minutes long. Workshops or symposia may occupy an entire session while a paper session may be presented in 10-15 minutes with 5 or more minutes for audience reaction. Three to five papers will be presented in each session. Presenters are invited to discuss international, national, state/provincial or local experiences in planning.

FORMAT FOR PROPOSAL

Papers

Name of author(s)
Affiliation and mailing address
Telephone number
Two key words to help classify paper
Special equipment needed

Symposia/Workshops

Name of organizer
Affiliation and mailing address
Telephone number
Names and affiliations of all participants
Special equipment needed

TITLE

ABSTRACT (25 words or less)

SUMMARY OF NO MORE THAN TWO PAGES INCLUDING THE ABOVE INFORMATION

Papers will be requested after tentative acceptance by the Review Committee.

NOTE: All individuals who are members of symposia, workshops, or are presenting papers must register for the Conference.

Send proposals to: J. Weldon Greene, Division of Program Development and Planning - Room 900, District of Columbia Public Schools, 415 12th Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20004.

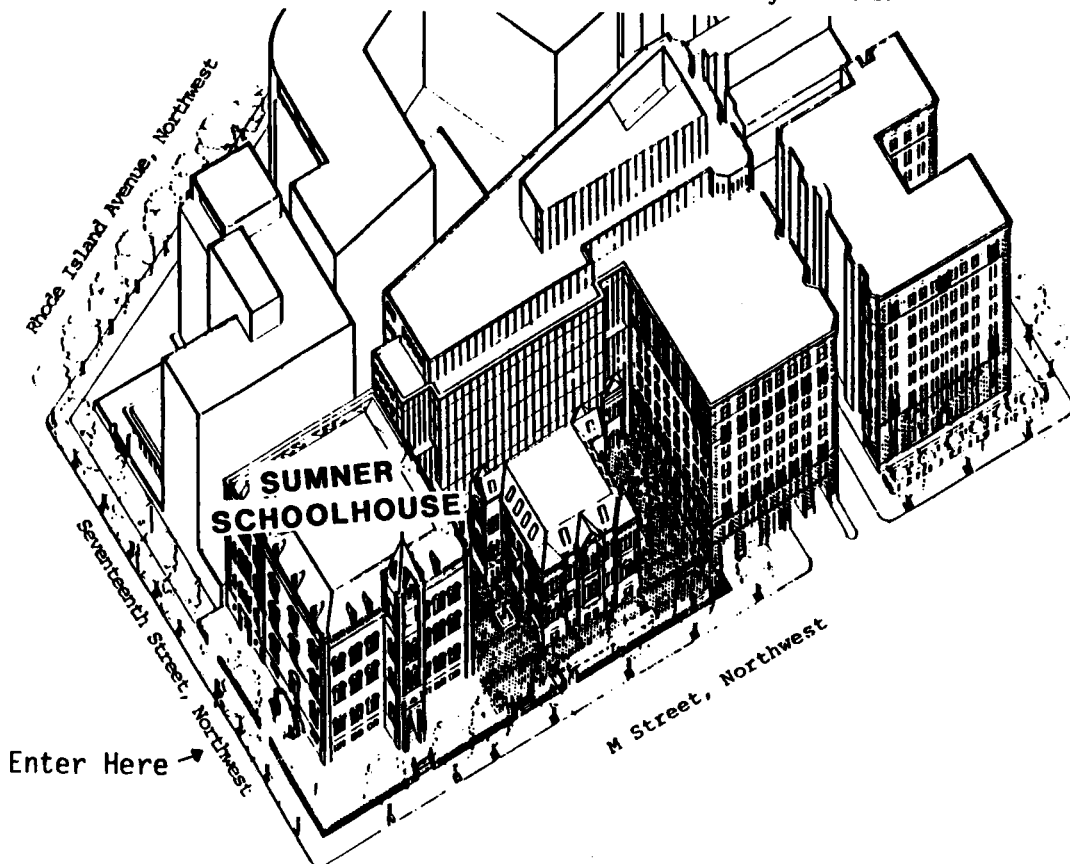
ISEP CONFERENCE SITE

The Sumner Schoolhouse

17th Street, N. W. between M Street and Rhode Island Avenue
Washington, D.C.

In 1872, a decade after Emancipation in the District of Columbia, the first comprehensive schoolhouse for the free public instruction of the children of former slaves was erected. Washington's leading architect, Adolph Cluss, was selected to design and oversee the construction. The public school plans and models submitted by Cluss won for the City of Washington a medal "for Progress in Education and School Architecture" at the International Exposition held in 1873 at Vienna, Austria.

The Sumner Schoolhouse was named in honor of Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts who, in the estimation of contemporaries, ranked with Abraham Lincoln and Thaddeus Stevens in leading the struggle for abolition, integration and non-discrimination. With the completion of the extensive rehabilitation of this *National Register* landmark in 1985, the Charles Sumner building has resumed its time honored tradition of service to the citizen.. of the District of Columbia and its many visitors.





**THE
CARLYLE SUITES**
1731 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009
(202) 234-3200

Every traveler longs for that perfect travel experience—a clean comfortable room, friendly, available service, great location and value. It's here in the Dupont Circle area!

Designed for space and comfort

- * 176 quiet, spacious suites
- * Complete with fully equipped kitchens
- * Dining/sitting areas
- * Meeting rooms to accommodate up to 100.

To pamper our guests

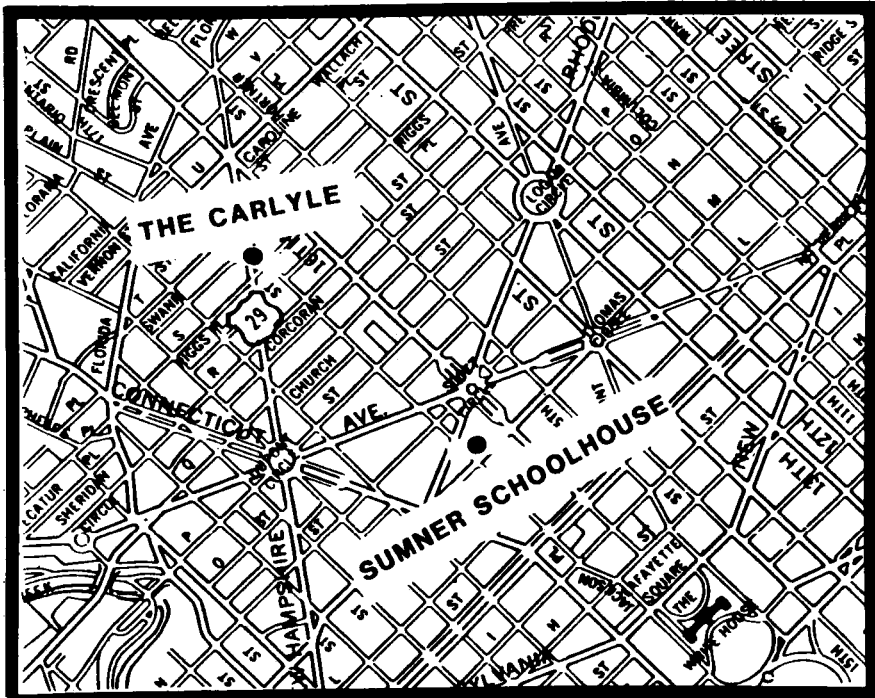
- * Color TV, am/fm radio, individual alarm clocks
- * Complimentary tea and coffee in your kitchen
- * Family plan—children under 18 free in same room with parents
- * Coin-operated laundry facilities
- * Non-smoking rooms available.
- * Casual dining in our cafe/bar for breakfast, lunch and dinner

The right address

- * Located in prestigious Dupont Circle
- * Minutes from Metro, and exclusive Connecticut Avenue Shops.
- * Neighbor to many of Washington's Embassies and National Associations
- * Near Washington's historic sites, monuments, and art galleries.

All this, and great rates too

Single Suites from **\$59.00**
Double Suites from **\$69.00**
Carlyle Suites **\$125.00–\$150.00**



International Society for Educational Planning

MEMBERSHIP/SUBSCRIPTION FORM (Please Print)

Name _____
Last First Middle

Organization and Department if applicable: _____

Mailing Address for publication _____

City State Zip Country

FEES: Membership and subscription \$25

Payment by check, money order or PO # required with application.

Return membership application and payment to: **International Society for Educational Planning**, Robert H. Beach, Treasurer, University of Alabama, P.O. Box Q, University, AL 35486.

International Society for Educational Planning

MEMBERSHIP/SUBSCRIPTION FORM (Please Print)

Name _____
Last First Middle

Organization and Department if applicable: _____

Mailing Address for publication _____

City State Zip Country

FEES: Membership and subscription \$25

Payment by check, money order or PO # required with application.

Return membership application and payment to: **International Society for Educational Planning**, Robert H. Beach, Treasurer, University of Alabama, P.O. Box Q, University, AL 35486.

Invitation To Submit Manuscripts

The editors of *Educational Planning*, a referred journal of educational planning issues, invite 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 members of educational administration, 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 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:

1. Each manuscript submission must be accompanied by a letter signed by the author.
2. The length of a manuscript should not exceed 20 typewritten pages (including reference lists, tables, charts and/or graphs).
3. The manuscript should be typed in PICA typeface on one side of white bond paper (8½" x 11").
4. Double spacing is to be used between **all** lines.
5. Margins should be 1" wide along both sides, the bottom and the top of each page.
6. Each manuscript must be submitted in triplicate, one copy of which should be the original.
7. Pages should be clipped together, not stapled.
8. An abstract of not more than 200 words should be attached to the manuscript.
9. A biographical sketch of each author should be attached to the manuscript.
10. Each manuscript should conform to the stylistic requirements of the American Psychological Association *Publication Manual* 3rd ed.

All manuscripts will be evaluated on the basis of relevancy, substance, style and syntax, and ease of comprehension. Manuscripts accepted for publication are subject to editing.

Please submit manuscripts to:

Robert H. Beach, Editor
Educational Planning
P.O. Box Q
216 Wilson Hall
University, Alabama 35486

<p>ORGANIZATION</p>	<p>The Society was founded on December 10, 1970, in Washington, D.C. Over 50 local, state, national, and international planners attended the first organizational meeting.</p> <p>Since then its growth has demonstrated that there is need for a professional organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.</p>
<p>PURPOSE</p>	<p>The International Society for Educational Planning was established to foster the professional knowledge and interests of educational planners. Through conferences and publications the Society promotes the interchange of ideas within the planning community. The membership includes persons from the ranks of governmental agencies, school-based practitioners, and higher education.</p>
<p>MEMBERSHIP IN THE SOCIETY</p>	<p>Membership in the Society is open to any person active or interested in educational planning and the Purposes of the Society. To join the Society or renew a membership, please submit the following:</p> <p>Name Address Current Position Present interests and/or activities in the planning area Membership fee of \$25 (make check payable to ISEP)</p> <p>Please forward check and information to:</p>  <p>Dr. Robert H. Beach, Treasurer Post Office Box Q 216 Wilson Hall University, Alabama 35486</p>

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Box Q • 216 Wilson Hall • University, AL 35486

Non-Profit Blk. Rt.
U.S. Postage
P A I D
Permit No. 16
University, AL
35486

