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FROM THE EDITOR

This edition of *Educational Planning* completes a milestone for the International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP). We have been re-publishing the journal for two years as planned. In that time, our goal of developing the newsletter into an academic journal, as a continuation of the older namesake, has been reached. We have received indications that both major educational abstracting services, Educational Administration Abstracts and the Current Index to Journals in Education, will begin abstracting our authors' work with this issue.

In this issue, as is our practice, we are presenting two papers given at the Washington, DC conference. Peter O'Brien provides an insight into the micro-politics of educational planning. The discussion on power and influence in relation to groups was a strong point for the conference. Doug Hamilton's paper on ideology in planning is unusual. Those attending this paper session remember and reflect favorably on Doug's presentation. Our third article comes to the journal from the review process. Ron Lindahl's manuscript comparing research conducted on factors associated with excellence in private sector organizations with similar studies in the public educational sector is timely and of great interest.

ISEP members will find that this issue contains a special section, For Members, which includes a message from the new president, George Crawford, and infor-mation from the conference regarding the annual business meeting, the names of the new board of directors, and general organizational goings-on.

Please note that the 1987 conference will be in Toronto, Canada during the latter part of October. A call for papers will be going out in about two months. Prep-arations for the next conference are well underway and perhaps new records can be set; however, that will be difficult after the success generated by J. Weldon Greene and his staff members, Sandy Anderson and Roger Fish.

Peter W. O'Brien

THE POWER TO PERSUADE: A WORKING PAPER IN THE MICROPOLITICS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The rational paradigm is deeply embedded in our consciousness, e.g., Benveniste (1983, p. 3) wrote that planning "is a rationalistic technocratic movement." Practitioners and theorists alike regard planning and administration as essentially rational processes—if plans are well thought-out, well set-out and well spelled-out, then systems can be improved. If the planning system fails, then failure is attributed to persistent technical problems associated with the system and to errors in implementation by the organization, i.e., to technocracy (or bureaupathology) failures developing primarily within the administrative system, such as injelitis (C. Northcote Parkinson's delightful term for the condition which results when an organization falls into the hands of administrators consumed by incompetence and jealousy), or hyperrationalization (Wise, 1977).

The rational paradigm in planning theory, however, has been challenged by writers such as Clark (1981), Larson (1982), McCaskey (1974) and Walter (1983), who wrote about goal-free, directional planning, while in organizational theory other models have been proposed. The better known of these organizational models are the social systems model (Miller and Rice, 1967; Katz and Kahn, 1978), and the metaphorical models of organized anarchies (Cohen and March, 1974), garbage cans (Cohen, March and Olsen, 1972) and loosely coupled systems (Weick, 1976) respectively, and the political model (cf., Baldridge, 1971).

The number of models available to practitioners and theorists suggest that we have not yet begun to understand the basic laws governing the behavior of complex organizations. There is in academic work a drive to reductionism which is all too often an excuse for restricting the definition of a problem until it becomes "simple," that is, the real, interesting complexity is assumed or defined away in order to create a manageable problem.

Hoyle (1982) noted that the "idiosyncratic, adventitious, unpredictable and intractable" nature of educational institutions suggests that social scientists and organization theorists have ignored the micropolitics of organizations—the dark side of organization life which produces staff gossip, is engaged in by everybody, which produces television series such as "Yes, Minister" and novels of academic life (including Cross' (1970) **Poetic Justice**, which contains a devastatingly accurate description of higher education planning) and which is largely ignored as a focus of investigation.

The political model recognizes the diversity of interests and lack of consistent and shared goals which characterize many organizations (including schools,

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colleges and universities) and suggests that organizations are best understood as political entities, i.e., as a system of interacting individuals and subgroups pursuing different interests, demands, and ideologies through the use of power and other resources (March and Simon, 1958; Cyert and March, 1963; Baldridge, 1971; Pettigrew, 1973; March and Olsen, 1976; Pfeffer, 1981). Accordingly, the degree to which actors succeed in furthering their own interests and ideology is assumed to be determined by the amounts of power and other resources they are able to mobilize compared with other competing actors. Gregg (1965) argued that an educational system is also a political system, where politics is conceived as the study of power and influence (both formal and informal). Allison's (1971) model of the "pulling and hauling" that is politics more accurately describes the activities of participants in educational organizations and institutions than does a model of rational analysis and decision-making.

Micropolitics is a subfield concerned with describing and analyzing the political behavior of individuals and small groups, and it focuses on the relationship between actors and their environment (including norms, structures, rules, etc.) with which they are involved (Roberts, 1971). As Hoyle (1982, p. 88) said: "Micropolitics embraces those strategies by which individuals and groups in organizational contexts seek to use their resources of power and influence to further their interests."

The purpose of this working paper is to examine, against the background notion of the micropolitics of organizations, the conditions under which educational planners influence, or fail to influence, educational policy making. Forester (1982, p. 67) wrote that "If planners ignore those in power, they assume their own powerlessness. Alternatively, if planners understand how relations of power work to structure planning, they can improve the quality of their analysis. . . ," and pointed out how the lack of power frustrates, noting how planners are often overwhelmed by the exercise of private political power. He demonstrated how

> by addressing or ignoring the exercise of political power in the planning process, planners can make that process more democratic or less, more technocratic or less, still more dominated by the established wielders of powers or less so. (Forester, 1982, pp. 67-68)

He examined the control of information as a key source of the planner's influence in the policy-making process, noting how planners shape not only documents but also participation, trust, expectations, cooperation, acquiescence, activism, attention to options for action, and particular arguments for and against proposals.

If we are to answer the question "When are planners influential?," we must begin to understand the organizational conditions in which they operate.

The paper briefly discusses the relationship between power and influence, the dimensions of influence, the factors on which the exercise of influence is contingent, and then posits, with a brief discussion, seven propositions relating to the exercise of influence. It is not intended that these propositions be exhaustive

but that they will be illustrative of those which must be developed in the micro-politics of educational planning, and they are presented as a basis for investigation.

The conception of planning employed in this working paper is that in the real-world of functioning organizations planning is in practice equated with any one or more of several loosely related activities such as forecasting, formulating and reviewing policy objectives, lending a longer and broader perspective to the organization's policy formulation process, preparing position papers on particular policy issues, and so forth. What is included in any particular case depends upon organizational conditions which, in turn, have a crucial impact on the planner's influence.

Micropolitics of Organizations

The focus of study of micropolitics is the space between the structures and associated processes of decision making, communication, power and so forth which are the objects of organization theory. This space is occupied by something other than individuals and their motives. It is occupied by micropolitical structures and processes, and it is characterized "more by coalitions than by departments, by strategies rather than by enacted rules, by influence rather than by power, and by knowledge rather than by status" (Hoyle, 1982, p. 88).

Glatter (1982) has stated that the micropolitical approach will help to "demystify" (Griffiths, 1979) organizations by drawing attention to the different purposes which individuals, groups and institutions have, the various ways in which they set about attaining these purposes, and the kinds of factors (e.g., power bases, power capacity, power activation and power conditions) which determine relative degrees of success in attaining these purposes.

Power

Power, it has been said, is something which we all know and understand—until we are asked to define the term! Power is conceived by sociologists to be "The extent to which persons or groups can limit or regulate the alternative courses of action open to other persons or groups, with or without their consent" (Lundberg, Schrag, Larsen and Catton, 1968, p. 754), and to be a property of the social relationship, not of the actor or actors (Emerson, 1962). Richman and Farmer (1974, p. 157) wrote of power as being "when someone has, or is perceived to have the means or ability to employ coercion, penalties, rewards or incentives to get something done," while Dressel (1981, p. 75) thought power was "the ability, by any means to control or determine the formulation, interpretation or application of policy." Political scientists, such as March (1966); Bell, Edwards and Wagner (1969); Hawley and Wirt (1974); and Lukes (1974) have learned that the term contains large (and apparently inescapable) elements of ambiguity which have marred or blurred research which uses power as a central concept.

There is some agreement in the vast and scholarly literature on the subject, however, that power has two aspects—authority and influence. The distinction between authority and influence is a fine one, conceptually important and often difficult to sustain empirically. Dressel (1981) distinguished between authority as

recognized power (i.e., power formally vested in an office or a person) and influence as informal power achievable in a variety of ways (e.g., through expertise in an area, social graces, or patience and persuasion). The distinction is important because the power deployed in micropolitics often takes the form of influence rather than authority as actors draw on other resources to achieve their aims.

Influence

Influence can be derived from a number of sources such as personal qualities (e.g., charisma, expertise, knowledge) and situational factors (e.g., access to information and to material and symbolic resources), and is manifested in the ability to produce an effect or to get something done without the direct exercise of command or the use of coercion (Foa and Foa, 1974; Richman and Farmer, 1974; Harrison, 1977; Boulding, 1978).

Given that influence is to be used, what form is that use likely to take? With the diversity of sources of influence, and the range of institutions in which influence may be used, it is not surprising that specific means of influence are numerous. Tedeschi and Bonoma (1972, pp. 8-9) have pointed out that "To focus upon all the means by which one person can influence another is tantamount to examining all of the basic types of social interactions which can take place." Of the many possible means of influence, however, the one most commonly advocated is persuasion, and much research has been devoted to its study. Gilman (1962, p. 107) defined persuasion as "the display of judgement in such a way that those exposed to it have an opportunity to become aware of the potential value of accepting it in place of their own." This definition is akin to that by Daniele Vare (Brussell, 1970, p. 145) of diplomacy as "the art of letting someone have your way," and it seems not unreasonable therefore to conceive of influence for the purposes of this working paper as "the power to persuade."

Influence, as an aspect of power, is not a unidimensional concept. Kaplan (1964) described three dimensions—weight, scope and domain—of power, and of these weight and scope are of particular interest here. The weight of influence brought to bear may be thought of as the degree, extent, or form of participation in the policy-making process. The scope of influence brought to bear may be thought of as the number and kinds of issues, values, decisions or policies affected by participation. In relation to these two dimensions it can be postulated that as the weight of planner influence increases so does the probability that their perspectives will be accepted, and that the scope of planner influence widens as they become involved in policy making in an increasingly wide range of issues.

Domain, as a third dimension of influence, refers to the number of actors (persons or collectivities) within an organization whose behavior is affected by the influence brought to bear by planners, i.e., the number of actors or units affected by the issues on which influence is exerted. In this working paper, domain is viewed as a corollary to weight and scope.

The scientific detection of the presence and effects of influence has turned out to be extraordinarily problematic, chiefly because of the ambiguity surrounding the team, the means by which it can be exerted, and its dimensions. Like power, distinctions are rarely made and much published research simply reports the undifferentiated perceptions of respondents.

Organizational Factors and Influence

When are educational planners influential in the policy process? The response to this question must be conditional upon consideration of three classes of factors in the organization: (1) individual characteristics of planners and decision makers; (2) organizational-bureaucratic characteristics; and (3) contextual-situational factors.

Individual Characteristics

Individual characteristics include background personal and social characteristics of planners, recruitment patterns, and the operating style of decision makers. For example, a decision maker's operating style will affect his or her ability to use the intellectual resources of planning staff members. If he or she avoids (micro)political interchange and interacts with planners on an individual rather than on a group basis, then the planning staff is less likely to develop a "sense of self," i.e., infrequent meetings of the group interfere with group cohesion and the perception of the group as an independent bureaucratic actor, which can (in turn) decrease the planners' influence by putting them in a disadvantageous position compared with other bureaucratic actors.

Organizational-Bureaucratic Characteristics

Organizational-bureaucratic characteristics cover a range from the relationship between planners and decision makers, access to information; the rise of competitors (e.g., "policy analysts"), and the scope of their responsibilities. A planning staff's influence may depend on the degree of personal closeness between it and decision makers, a relationship which can be summed up as follows: the success or failure of a planning staff depends not on what it does, but on the willingness of its superiors to listen to it, consult it, and to protect it from its enemies.

Contextual-Situational Characteristics

Contextual-situational characteristics include the nature of the situation facing decision makers, and the substantial issues with which policy is conceived. A significant contextual or situational variable is the presence or absence of a crisis. Many policy innovations occur in the context of crises rather than in more routine situations. The influence of planners in a crisis may be dramatic.

Each group of characteristics has an independent effect on the influence, or lack of influence, of educational planners on policymaking at a particular moment. The micropolitics of educational planning, however, requires more than simply the determination of characteristics relating to the conditions under which planners are influential in the policy-making process, i.e., if they are to "understand how relations of power work to structure the planning process." It requires the development of empirically verifiable propositions which relate these to the dimensions of influence.

Propositions Concerning the Dimensions and
Contingent Factors Affecting Educational Planner Influence

The propositions presented here are intended to be a basis for further investigation in the micropolitics of educational planning. They are presented in

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the knowledge that, in presenting them, I may be guilty of Andreski's (1972, p. 11) accusation of "engaging in research for things that have been found long ago and many times since." The propositions are derived from the nature of influence and power, from observations, from experience as a member of university planning committees, and from intuition—also a neglected aspect of investigation.

Proposition One: *The weight and scope of the influence of the planning staff in policy making is contingent upon the operating style of its director.*
     The director's individual characteristics may have a deep impact on the group's activities. If he or she is willing to engage in bureaucratic bargaining so as to draw attention to planning staff proposals, that is if he or she is prepared to adopt a promotive or activist role, then the planning staff is likely to have an impact on policy making. The more promotive or activist the director, the greater the weight and the broader the scope of planning staff influence.

Proposition Two: *The closer the personal relationship between directors of planning and decision makers, the greater the weight of planning staff influence.*
     If decision makers take planning directors seriously, they are more likely to be persuaded by planning staff presentations and arguments, and a close working relationship between them should ensure that planning staff participate in significant policy debates. Consequently, other bureaucratic actors are more likely to take the staff seriously.

Proposition Three: *The closer the personal link between the director of planning and decision makers, the more the scope of planner influence will reflect the decision makers' specific interests.*
     This is an "if-then" proposition, in which the link between the personal relationship and the scope of planner influence is less direct. If the director of planning and decision makers enjoy a close personal relationship and if the decision makers are concerned with a wide range of policy issues, then the scope of planner influence will be broad. As a consequence of the close relationship, the planning staff is likely to concern itself with those problems which interest the decision maker, and if they are concerned with a wide variety of issues then the scope of planner influence is likely to be broad. Conversely, if only a few issues concern decision makers, then only those issues are likely to be on the planning staff's calendar.

Proposition Four: *The scope of planning staff influence is narrowed when decision makers face a crisis situation.*
     Situational or contextual variables affect indirectly, though significantly, the operations of planning groups. Crisis situations, as occasions for decision making, tend to result in changes in routine organizational processes as, e.g., decisions tend to be made by fewer and higher ranking participants. **Ad hoc** decision-making structures may replace formal organizational processes and, under these conditions, a planning staff (to the extent that it participates at all) will concentrate on the immediate issue. Given the nature of crisis situations, the scope of planning staff participation is likely to be constrained.

Proposition Five: *The weight of planning staff influence in a crisis situation is contingent upon its relationship to the decision makers.*

This is another "if-then" proposition, and is related to Proposition Two. The extent of planning staff participation during a crisis situation, i.e., the weight of its influence, is conditional upon its relationship with decision makers, with the personal relationship between the director of planning and decision makers being an intervening variable. If the planning staff have a close relationship with the decision makers, and if there is a close personal relationship between the director of planning and the decision makers, then the planning staff will play an active role in policy making as a consequence of the impact of crisis on organizational structures. As the formal decision-making structures of the organization are distorted in crisis situations, the planning staff is likely both to participate in, and to greatly influence, the direction of policy making.

Proposition Six: *The weight of planner influence increases if and when a specific issue does not fall under the jurisdiction of a single regional or functional office or department.*

As with the nature of the situation, the nature of the issue facing decision makers affects the extent of planning staff influence. Inter-departmental or inter-office issues cannot usually be resolved without being kicked upstairs because such issues involve increasing numbers of actors with different, multiple, perspectives on the problem. If the planning staff has the trust of decision makers, they can play an active, influential, role in the policy-making process on such issues as the lateral bargaining resulting from such situations allows opportunities for participation by actors outside the usual chain of command.

Proposition Seven: *The domain of planning staff influence is contingent upon the relationship between the planning staff and the decision maker, and upon the nature of the issues facing decision makers.*

Where a number of other organizational sub-units is affected by the issues facing the organization, the influence of the planning staff is widest when they (and their director) enjoy a close relationship with the decision makers **and** when the issues facing the organization are not specific to a particular office or department. Under such circumstances, the distortion to routine organizational policymaking procedures allows the planning staff to assume an active role in issues affecting other units. This proposition is essentially a corollary of Proposition Six.

Conclusion

This working paper focuses on the educational planner as a bureaucratic actor. To explain planner influence or lack of influence in the policy-making process, we must understand the micropolitics of organizations. Focusing on the educational planner as bureaucratic actor is not to insist on operational involvement in the policy process but to demand engagement, that is, if educational planners are to be influential they must be engaged in the bureaucratic negotiations (or, as Boyan (1969, p. 3) once termed the negotiations which take place in the executive arms of governments, the "diplomatics") required to gain and to maintain access to

information and to high-level decision makers. Without an engaged perspective, educational planners perform a sterile intellectual exercise. Nor is focusing on the micropolitical element in organizations to accept anarchy but to argue that we should recognize that such an element must be accepted as a means of change and improvement.

It is ironic that, as the need for educational planning has grown, public and academic faith in educational planning has declined (Levin, 1981; von Recum, 1984). It is precisely because of this trend that we should turn our attention to the conditions under which educational planners are influential.

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Doug Hamilton

LINKING THEORY AND PLANNING ACTION: IMPLICATIONS OF AN IDEOLOGICAL AWARENESS FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS' USE OF INFORMATION

Central to the study of any discipline is a debate over the perceived rifts or incongruencies between its theory and its practice. In an applied field of study such as educational planning, this argument often centers on the question, "How does planning theory contribute to planning practice?" The objective of this paper is to address this query by examining ideology as a mediator in the relationship between planning theory and planning action. It begins with a discussion of some possible reasons why practicing educational planners tend to overlook theory and subsequently, defines the role that ideology may play in linking knowledge and action. The latter half of this paper explores how an awareness of ideology relates to the planner's use of information. It argues that as information becomes a much more focal resource, planners will need to be increasingly perceptive of the ways in which ideology is linked to planning practice if the constructive use of information is to be realized.

The Perceived Neglect of Theory in Planning Practice

Planning theory should provide a conceptual basis for the planner to describe or explain existing phenomena in planning practice and to predict future consequences from this action (McConnell, 1981). The development of conceptual frameworks and their application in practice has the potential to advance theoretically-oriented thinking about the field. Ideally, the practitioner can use these theoretical structures to compare actions in one context with those in another. Thus, theory and practice can appear to be interdependent and, as a result, theorizing should afford an opportunity for advancing knowledge about practice and for modifying action, if necessary.

Hightower (1969, p. 326) makes a distinction between "Theory of planning" and "Theory in planning." Theory of planning focuses on explaining **how** and **why** planners plan, while theory in planning involves the study of **what** planners are planning. Thus, theory of planning is primarily concerned with understanding the processes of planning. On the other hand, theory in planning focuses on understanding the phemonena or substantive issues with which planning is concerned.

In order to adequately explain the processes of planning, theory of planning should provide insight into how planners understand themselves and how they come to understand the ways in which they practice planning. Faludi (1973, p. 9) argues that theory of planning should help to explain how "the planner faces the

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challenge of constructing an image of himself [sic] in his role as a planner; the agencies in which he [sic] operates; their procedures; the environment as it is affected by, and is affecting, the operations of these agencies." Yet, despite the perceived utility, educational planners often neglect to consider the relevance of this insight in the course of performing their planning functions. The search for meaning and identity in professional practice must occur within the context of performing action because planning, by its nature, demands action. It is these demands of action, however, that can hinder planners in their attempt to reflect on their practices and to put them into a theoretical context (Schon, 1982). Planners can become so preoccupied with carrying out various functions on a day-to-day basis, that they do not have the time, the energy or the inclination to philosphically consider what they are really doing when they are "planning." In many circumstances, theory focusing on this type of introspection appears to provide little relevance for the planner. As a result, the planners' assumptions that are imbedded in the action become implicit and unidentified. Consequentially, planning becomes perceived as a value-free, neutral, technical tool, and the participants serve only as procedural technicians.

As procedural technicians, planners lack the insight into how they understand themselves and their practices that is derived from any appreciation of the theory in which planning is based. Rather, any attempt at theorizing becomes encapsulated in the technical details of planning. In this role, planners place excessive emphasis on the methodology of carrying out their actions. Subsequently, theoretical inquiry becomes focused only on an understanding of the actual application of new techniques and procedures in order to improve the performance of specific planning functions.

Even though its influence may not be immediately apparent, theory does play a signifcant role in guiding the planners' actions. To the practising planner, theory will never be more than a dynamic set of loosely interrelated beliefs, values, hypotheses and concepts (McConnell, 1981). Thus, we need to think of theory, not just as a collection of abstract principles, but as a set of beliefs, perceptions, explanations or justifications that permit the practitioner to think about the interconnectedness of his or her actions. Nevertheless, if conscious and intentional insight into the meaning of specific planning action remains underdeveloped, then how does theory guide planning action?

This process can be better understood if we think of theory as being grounded in the specific ideology of the specific participant. To this end, discussion of the influence of ideology provides fertile ground for explaining how theory translates into planning action. Although theoretical conceptualizations do not directly translate into guidelines for the planner's professional development, theory is often selectively interpreted by the practitioner. No theory is comprehensive enough to be all things to all planners. Every theoretical orientation is selective. Certain ideas about practice are emphasized and others are ignored or overshadowed. McConnell (1981, p. 40) argues that the planner possesses an "ideological screen" which provides a filter for the interpretation of theory. This "process of selection" is dependent on the theorist's own value base and beliefs about the nature of the world (McConnell, 1981, p. 40). As will be argued in the next section, however, the role of ideology in tempering the relationship between theory and practice is much more salient than even McConnell suggests.

What is Ideology?

Although it has been subject to interpretation at many different levels of abstraction, the term ideology is frequently used in a pejorative manner. It is often associated with the notion of specific political ideals or perspectives, particularly Marxist doctrine. As, Bailey (1975, p. 24) exclaims, ideology "has been used more as a banner than a concept which can enlighten and sensitize." A more appropriate definition of ideology describes it as a "set of beliefs about the conduct of life and social organization" (Corbett, cited in Healey, 1974). These sets of beliefs are not necessarily logically consistent or theoretically justifiable, but they do represent an individual's organized means for structuring meaning and for making sense out of the world (Healey, 1974; Bailey, 1975). Furthermore, the development of ideology is not static. People independently and interdependently engage in a continual process of defining their own belief systems.

We all need belief systems to function in a social world (Healey, 1974) and therefore, we must all have ideologies that temper our action. An individual cannot make a choice between alternative sets of actions without appreciating the nature of the beliefs that underly these actions (Bailey, 1975). How people intend to act in any given situation is often different from how they are observed to actually behave. Agyris and Schon (1974, p. 6) refer to this as a distinction between "espoused theory" and "theory-in-use." Espoused theory is described as the overt protocols or principles by which a person intends to act under particular circumstances. Theory-in-use are the latent guidelines that actually govern a person's actions in real situations. Theory-in-use cannot accurately be described by individuals because their perceptions are always influenced by their espoused theories. Theory-in-use can only be constructed by observing people in action as well as interacting with them. Espoused theories of planning develop under the influence of the knowledge gained through planning experience, through relationships with others and through formal training. Individual theories-in-use originate from the selective synthesis and filtering of these influences on a situation-by-situation basis. Bolan (1980) describes this process:

> Confronted with a specific situation of expected professional performance, a theory-in-use is constituted, somewhat on the spot, where some messages are remembered, some are forgotten, some are consciously discarded after being judged inapplicable, and some take on new importance under the stimulus of the specific elements of the situation and the participants confronting the individual. (p. 264)

Therefore, across a variety of situations, theoretical influences will have differential effects on action.

At the same time, this differential influence is still mitigated by the nature of the person's own ideology. Ideology provides the belief structure that makes possible the translation of espoused theory into theory-in-use. An individual's own specific ideology will provide the selective criteria for guiding action. Krieger (1981, p. 55)

argues that an ideology "establishes what is significant and relevant, what is worthy of note and why." Therefore, ideology necessitates that one must accept certain assumptions for action to occur. No action can be undertaken without an ideological foundation. Because it takes the form of theory-in-action, however, ideology is often transparent to the practitioner. Unless it is a highly meaningful or isolated situtation, a person very seldom purposefully deliberates about why s/he performs actions in specific ways.

Ideology, in the context of planning, centers on the development of planners' identity vis-a-vis the planning functions which they perform. In our own implicit way, we continue to individually ask ourselves "What is my role as a planner?," and then confirm an answer through our beliefs and actions.

Not only does ideology guide action, but action will also reinforce the development of certain belief structures. Thus, ideology and action are constantly involved in a state of mutual justification. Yet, as we will see in the next section, there are dangers inherent in this mutual dependency for actual planning practice.

Ideology in Information Use

The planners' use of information is an example of a current area of focus in planning practice in which the understanding of planning ideology has significant implications. Information is central to planning. Planning action can only be performed through the acquisition, synthesis and production of information. It dictates how and why we plan.

Planning has traditionally been regarded as a means for reducing uncertainty (Inbar, 1986). In the course of defining and structuring a planning problem, certain conditions are perceived by analysts as requiring preventative or remedial attention. Planners interpret these conditions as requiring specific forms or types of information that may help to fill specific knowledge gaps about the problem. Thus, the search for information is often perceived as a way of reducing uncertainty about specific planning problems. Inbar (1986, p. 11) suggests that educational planners are often predisposed to the "over-gathering" of information as a result of this assumed negative correlation between information and uncertainty. Rather, because judgments of uncertainty involve subjective perceptions and because problem definitions can be somewhat arbitrary, Inbar argues that it is important for planners to not only be aware of how much information they gather but also what types of information they use. He suggests that this is particularly significant when problems resist unambiguous definition and interpretation. As a result of so much uncertainty being involved in defining these complex problems, the planner must set arbitrary boundaries for collecting and classifying information based on his/her limited knowledge of the problem being addressed.

The appreciation of ideology, however, introduces another dimension of understanding to the role of information in reducing uncertainty in planning practice. It forces us to not only question the types of information and how much information that we think we require but also **how we define** it and **how we use** information. As more focus is being placed on information as a highly-valued resource, it becomes more important to question how we define and how we use information in educational planning.

Searching for a widely accepted definition of "information" in the literature is a futile task. Part of the reason why little agreement can be reached over a common definition lies in understanding the ideologies that we as planners bring to bear on our practices that influence how we define information. The word "information" implies that it has value above and beyond "data." Thus, information arises from data when, for whatever reason, it becomes more valued.

Value, however, is a relative term (Hodgkinson, 1978) and is dependent on the particular ideological mind set that the planner possesses. Thus, what one planner calls information may be different from how another planner labels it, and this particular conceptualization will be dependent on the planner's own belief structure.

Yet, the basis for the belief structure lies in the values that guide the planners' thought and action (Levin, 1985). According to Hodgkinson (1983), values are subjective, personalized inclinations of what is desirable. Extended to planning, values are concepts of the desirable that form the basis of an individual's planning-relevant decision making. Cunningham (1982) describes the crucial role that values perform for decision making in planning:

> Decision making [sic] does not, as so many studies of decision-making proclaim, flow from a consensus on the facts. Decision making [sic] requires a judgement related to alternative strategies. Decisions are based on various conditions that the decision maker [sic] is not always sure about and on the different realities and values of people viewing the decision. The final decision grows out of the clash and conflict of divergent opinions and out of the serious consideration of competing alternatives. It is not through consensus but through the appropriate managing of conflict that creative alternatives and appropriate choices are made. (p. 167)

Hodgkinson (1978) makes a similiar argument:

> The point is essentially this. The intrusion of values into the decision making [sic] process is not merely inevitable, it is the very substance of decisions. (p. 59)

Because the basis for the planners' values cannot be separated from the subject of their decisions, values play a critical role in determining the problems to be defined, the techniques of analysis to be employed, the inferences to be drawn from the analysis and the recommendations to be communicated (Klosterman, 1983). As a result of the role that ideology plays in structuring meaning for the planner, the values that provide the foundations for the individual's particular ideological perspective tend to be rooted in what Hodgkinson (1983, p. 39) labels as "transrational." They are not based just on personal preferences or formed only

through consensus or as a result of anticipated consequences; instead, they take the form of guiding principles based on matters of conscience, faith, will and intuition. As a result, ideology tends to have a pervasive and intrusive influence on how we define and use information to structure and analyze what are often referred to as "wicked problems."

According to Rittel and Webber (1973, p. 160), "wicked problems" are issues relevant to the development of public policy that are difficult to clearly define, lack criteria for comprehensive understanding, provide little opportunity for trial-and-error testing, are interconnected to other complex problems and defy efforts to isolate causes and develop consensual explanations. On the other hand, tame problems usually have relatively clearly defined boundaries, verifiable solutions and easily delineated sources and types of information requirements. Because, as argued earlier, we all have our own dispositions for imposing value onto data, the criteria used to translate data into information and, then, to categorize it according the problem's perceived information requirements are subjectively determined. Under conditions of high uncertainty where specific knowledge and experience in defining and analyzing the particular problem is lacking, the planner is likely to fall back on a reliance on his/her own personal belief structure to provide a basic frame of reference for understanding the problem. In absence of more specific experience, it is the belief structure itself that helps to reduce the planner's uncertainty. Thus, when contending with complex problems where uncertainty is high, ideology can play a major role in determining how the problem is structured and, therefore, how the "required" information is defined.

Little opposition can be mounted against Inbar's (1986) contention that most problems faced by educational planners are wicked, even if, at first inspection, they appear to be tame. Yet, there are routine procedural tasks faced by planners everyday that are not usually considered problems but which require as much of an appreciation of ideological foundations as wicked problems require. Awareness of the influence of ideology helps us to be more cognizant of the false sense of trust that we may place on the use of information to complete these procedures. Many routine planning activities involve the assessment of "indices" such as teacher-pupil ratios, minimum enrollment cut-offs, participation rates and optimal sizes of catchment areas. Bailey (1974, p. 18) refers to these indices as "certain kinds of limited information [that are] symptoms of more hidden yet important states of activity." Therefore, indices can be viewed as succinct representations of other forms of information and data. As representations, these indices are viewed as objective and value-free. Nevertheless, Hoos (1967, p. 178) argues that the aggregation, selection and organization of data are all part of a value-laden, mission-oriented process that renders absurd the notion that any "information' is neutral." For instance, specified teacher-pupil ratios (TPRs) represent the beliefs of decision makers that there is an optimal number of teachers for a specific number of students, and this can facilitate student learning and enrollment management. This perspective cannot be totally validated in practice, however, as teachers, students, parents and various administrators may have different beliefs about what type of TPR is the most appropriate. Furthermore, there could be discrepant beliefs about the worth, for pedagogical and administrative purposes, for calculating teacher-pupil ratios at all. Because the practice of calculating these ratios has become accepted as a routine part of the planner's function, these discrepant

perspectives are often not recognized or, at least, are not taken seriously when compared to the dominant ideological beliefs which perhaps suggest that calculating TPRs serves a very worthwhile purpose. Thus, as this example helps to illustrate, the definition and use of information is always biased by the beliefs and values of different users.

This false sense of trust and assumed objectivity is inadvertently promoted by the use of computers. Computers provide planners with access to and potential control of increasingly large amounts of data. Coupled with the latest innovations in telecommunications, computers provide an efficient data transfer medium across long distances and disparate locations. At the same time, the use of computers lessens the need for the direct exchange of information from one person to another. Therefore, information can often be identified separately from its source. Any future users of this knowledge may not associate it with the identity of the people responsible for collecting, modifying and disseminating the resource. As a result, the information is assumed to be "objective" because it is perceived to not be associated with any particular person's belief structure. This separation, however, makes it more difficult for the user to determine the formative criteria that were applied for the specific information's generation and classification. Consequentially, the increased access to data resources provided by improved telecommunications and computer technology make it necessary to question how we define and select information for use in current practice. Examining our ideological biases helps us to recognize that information will always be used for particular professional and personal purposes.

This awareness may be even more critical if expert systems are introduced into the educational administrator's domain. Expert systems attempt to capture a manager's specialized knowledge on a computer and apply it to specific decision-making situations (Blanning, 1984). To create an expert system, a model is developed of a particular manager's use of specialized knowledge within select decision processes. Once the model has been developed and tested, the manager then can apply it to making future decisions in similiar situations. Furthermore, this model may then be used to train less experienced managers about appropriate decision-making processes for other specific situations. The danger of using information enhanced through expert systems lies in their predisposition to facilitate the transfer of the modelled manager's ideological biases to other situations and to other neophyte managers. These biases will be inherent in the type of information that the manager selects for inclusion in the model. It will also be evident in how he or she uses the information within the test situation. Sawicki (1985) provides a similiar warning in his discussion of the cautions of using computers in planning. He contends that programs developed for particular planning applications may be inappropriately used by other planners if these users are not aware of the concepts, theories and assumptions underlying the development of the specific program.

Regardless of whether information takes a computer-enhanced form or otherwise, treating it as a value-free and objective knowledge base promotes the danger of planners falling into ideological traps. The ideological filtering process may encourage planners to accept information that supports only those conceptualizations which are espoused by others with similarly acceptable views

(Burrows, 1986; Healey, 1974). Over time, some planners may become less willing to seek other alternative forms of information. This may inhibit them from appreciating the value of an alternative perspective if it appears to conflict with their own belief structures.

As the technological means for collecting, analyzing and disseminating vast quantities of information continue to improve at a rapid rate, educational decision makers will have to seriously assess their current information usage strategies in order to determine what information is most meaningful for their purposes. Without serious consideration of their information usage practices, administrators and planners run the risk of being encumbered by excessive and inappropriate information. Thoroughly understanding their information usage practices requires that the planners build into their planning functions some form of self-evaluation process that permits them to continually monitor how they utilize the information resources at hand. This process must provide a vehicle for planners to increase their awareness of their own belief structures and to facilitate an appreciation of the ideologies of people who relate to them through their many information exchanges.

Practicing planners can initiate this evaluation process by asking themselves questions such as: "What information do I rely on to perform certain planning actions?," "Why do I prefer this specific form of information?," "Who has been involved in the exchange of these forms of information?," "How has this affected my use of this resource?," "Are there other sources or forms of data or information that I've overlooked?," "Why have I overlooked them?."

Without self-evaluation, there is the danger that planners will unquestioningly accept their use of information as always being appropriate and justified. This blind acceptance could eventually deny planners the opportunity to improve their effectiveness by not being aware of other information resources that could contribute to the analysis of planning problems.

Conclusion

It is reasonably easy to discuss the potential influence of ideology on planning practice; it is a much tougher task to develop sufficient understanding of how ideology affects the individual planner's actions. The major thrust of this paper has been to provide some awareness of the important role of ideology in linking thought and action in planning practice. Understanding our ideologies and appreciating the differences in the ideologies of our coworkers and colleagues suggests that planning should be viewed not only as a technical activity but as a social and a moral activity as well.

Planning involves the synthesis of thought and action and some form of consensus over what action is to be performed, but this does not necessarily mean that there is or should be agreement over the ideologies on which it is based. More understanding is needed of how planners can increase their awareness of the ideological foundations of the information that they use and, at the same time, how they can still share their resources and planning knowledge in a mutually constructive fashion. Examining theory of planning in terms of how it translates into ideology and then into action should be of interest to both theoreticians and practitioners. Perhaps it is not too optimistic to suggest that a more concerted

pursuit of the study of planning ideology, as a link between theory and practice, has the potential to rejuvenate a dialogue between both theoretically-minded and practically-minded planners in education.

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PLANNING FOR MORE EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS: WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM RESEARCH ON AMERICAN INDUSTRY?

Over the past few years America's public education system has been besieged by a plethora of studies, commissions, and reports, the vast majority of which all addressed the same issue—how to modify current practice in order to promote excellence in the education of America's youth. State legislatures and local school boards have not necessarily been idle in attempting to pursue this lofty, yet laudable goal; unfortunately, the directions for change arising from these studies were not always clear, or even palatable. All too often the response of educational planners and decision makers, at all levels, has been to intensify existing practices and fortify established structures. Course requirements became more specific, and more "Carnegie units" were added to graduation requirements; new "career ladders," competency testing, and more rigorous evaluation practices have been mandated in an effort to promote "better" teaching and administration; and tougher student discipline measures, more stringent grading practices, and minimum competency exams have all been implemented to place more pressure on students. Considerable question remains, however, as to the extent to which these measures will produce the desired change—a significant move toward excellence in education.

While these studies and the subsequent reactions were occurring in the educational sector, very similar questions were being leveled at the private industrial sector. The same concerns of continued world "competitiveness" which ignited criticism of America's public schools also occasioned studies, commissions, and reports regarding how best to modify current practices to promote excellence in the industrial sector. The very popularity of such recent bestsellers as Peters and Waterman's **In Search of Excellence: Lessons From America's Best Run Companies** (1982), Kanter's **The Change Masters: Innovation and Entrepreneurship In the American Corporation** (1983), and Peters and Austin's **A Passion for Excellence: The Leadership Difference** (1985) pays some measure of tribute to America's recognition of the problem and its willingness to attempt to find solutions through comparative research studies of organizations exhibiting varying relative degrees of success, innovation, leadership, etc.

Unfortunately, although the challenges in education and in industry are readily perceived as being parallel, if not directly linked, the tendency has been to consider the approaches to investigation, the findings, and the approaches to implementing those findings as being highly specific to that particular sector. As both sectors arose from the same set of societal norms, experiences, and values,

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there may well be a higher degree of overlap than has been generally credited. Following this premise, this article compares some of the research on excellence in the private sector with research conducted on excellence within the public educational sector. To the extent that they are compatible, many of the conclusions arrived at in the private sector may be valuable in helping to plan for effective schools as well.

Comparing the Context of Industry and Schools

Peters and Austin (1985) pointed out quite strongly that American industry no longer enjoys a boom environment tolerant of marginally acceptable productivity levels and practices. Foreign competition and high energy costs threaten to eliminate all but the most competitive of firms. American schools also face similar competition. Rising costs of health care, changing population demographics, increased demand for social services, and constant pressure for massive military spending have placed schools into an ever-worsening competition for tax dollar support. As Goodlad (1984) noted, "American schools are in trouble. In fact, the problems of schooling are of such crippling proportions that many schools will not survive. It is possible that our entire public educational system is nearing collapse" (p. 1).

Among the traditional barriers to cross-sectoral research has been the perception of vastly differing goals between public educational institutions and private, profit-making organizations. Although this distinction merits continued consideration, careful examination of the issue may reveal that there is con-siderable common ground. As Kanter (1983) pointed out:

> Moreover, the aspect of productivity that needs serious attention
> is not the mechanical output of a production facility; it is, rather,
> the capacity of the organization to satisfy customer needs most
> fully, with whatever resources it has at its disposal. (p. 22)

This same statement might well have been written about the dilemma facing American public schools. Changing social, ethnic, and linguistic characteristics of the student population, changing curricular expectations of schools by the society at large, and competition for scarce resources (primarily financial and human resources) are significant factors in the growing question of the adequacy of American education. Simplistic attempts to measure school productivity, such as the rise or fall in standardized test scores, fail to consider such changes in goals, resources, and student population. Additionally, regardless of the quality of the educational process, unless it is actively pursued by students in the classroom, recognized by parents and community members as being commensurate with their expectations and value systems, and accepted by the labor market as being adequate to existing and projected needs, schools run the same risk as any business which fails to promote customer satisfaction.

In summary, from the contextual standpoint, there appears to be significant similarity between American public education and the private sector.

Comparing the Research Methodologies
Used to Examine Industry and Schools

As mentioned previously, vast amounts of research have been conducted over the past decade on both schools and industry. Some of the private sector research summarized and reported in more popularized formats has generated sufficient attention to guarantee its authors long-term stays atop the bestseller lists. Education studies have not stimulated such broad public appeal, but works such as Goodlad's **A Place Called School** (1984) or Joyce's **Improving America's Schools** (1986) have received considerable attention among professionals involved with education.

The case study was the most generally accepted research methodology in both the private and public sector research. Peters and Waterman (1982), Kanter (1983), and Peters and Austin (1985) all based their research on repeated personal contacts with selected private sector firms. Peters and Waterman (1982) sampled 62 companies, representative of various industrial segments, all of which had achieved acclaim within the private sector for innovation and excellence and which showed sustained superior financial performance. Nineteen companies were excluded from the research for failure to meet the criteria, and only 21 of the remaining 43 firms were examined in depth. Kanter (1983) also sought to identify firms which could be considered excellent through matching subjective nominations of innovative, human resource-oriented companies with profitability and financial growth data over the past 25 years. Goodlad made no such pre-determination of "excellence," preferring to seek diversity and representativeness in a sample of small size" (p. 18), while also considering the cost factors involved in gathering data on geographically-dispersed school campuses. The study reported upon by Lewis (1986), on the other hand, dealt with 200 elementary schools which had already earned designation as outstanding, effective schools.

The selection of the case study approach as the most appropriate means of determining factors which contribute to "excellence" stems from the perceived need to study the organization as a complete system rather than isolating single elements for more detailed investigation. Goodlad (1984) devoted considerable discussion to the need to study schools as total entities, examining not only specific variables, but the interaction of those variables and the organizational climate thus created. In discussing the limitations of earlier, more narrowly-based research, Joyce (1986) went as far as to state: "There is little research about how to improve education—our opinions are probably as good as the implications of the knowledge base" (p. 8).

In summary, the similarity of the research questions being addressed and of the complex organizational contexts in which they must be investigated has resulted in comparable research methodologies being applied in both the public and private sectors.

Comparing the Major Conclusions of
Private and Public Sector Research

In its review of the professional literature concerning excellence in schools, the Texas Education Agency (1986) identified eight major characteristics of "excellent" schools which were common to a majority of the studies: collaborative planning

process; clear mission; effective leadership; high expectations; orderly, pleasant, safe, and non-oppressive climate; high percentage of time-on-task; frequent monitoring of progress; and strong relations with the community. The frequency with which these variables were found to be associated with outstanding schools supports their value as a structure through which to compare the findings of the public and private sector research.

Planning Process

Although the specific planning tools and vocabulary used may differ somewhat from those employed in the educational sector, there is little argument that the current status of planning in education closely resembles that of the private sector. School systems typically designate a limited number of central office specialists to generate budgets, formulate control systems for the administrative, financial and in-structional functions of the schools, determine curricular objectives and instructional practices for attaining them, and make qualitative projections on such factors as enrollment, teacher supply, and utilities costs. Planning within the educational sector is often conceived as a hierarchically top-down process in which research findings or the results of data analysis are converted into curricular or structural reforms at the national, state, or district level. These changes are then imposed onto the local campus levels. Consequently, school-level administrators and faculty are often characterized as reactionary, responding to the planning process rather than being proactive participants in it. Little exception was found in the literature on excellence in schools or in the reform efforts spawned by these studies in various states.

Kanter's (1983) analysis of planning practices in the private sector illuminated many similarities, citing a **Wall Street Journal** columnist and Vice-President of a firm which specializes in strategic planning, who wrote that perhaps planning has become "a task providing an illusion of control in an environment that is clearly out of control: at least one can forecast, gather statistics, write reports, and hold meetings to provide the illusion of activity and control" (p. 50). This sector norm she contrasts with the planning process in innovative organizations, which achieve security through flexibility and quick reaction time, not from having everything under control (p. 64). Peters and Waterman (1982) used the same terminology in asserting:

> Innovative companies are especially adroit at continually responding to change of any sort in their environments. . . . The companies that seemed to us to have achieved that kind of innovative performance were the ones we labeled excellent companies. (p. 12)

Clearly, analysts of private sector planning found that there was a need for some change in direction or emphasis, concluding that:

> The balance between planning—which appears to reduce the need for effective reaction—and structural flexibility—which increases the capacity for effective reaction—needs to shift

toward the latter. The era of strategic planning may be over; we are entering an era of constant replanning, focused on tactics as well as long-range direction. (Kanter, 1983, p. 41)

Kanter carefully qualified this, asserting that these advocated new approaches to planning "clearly do not replace the need for rational, analytic techniques," but help us to see the role of these tools in better perspective (p. 304). Thus, the problem, as defined by Kanter, "is not to invent more tools, but to use the ones we have" (p. 64). Virtually the same conclusions were reached by Peters and Waterman (1982), who found that:

the rational approach to management misses a lot. . . . Actually, the companies that we have called excellent are among the best at getting the numbers, analyzing them, and solving problems with them. . . . What we are against is wrong-headed analysis, analysis that is too complex to be useful and too unwieldy to be flexible, analysis that strives to be precise (especially at the wrong time) about the inherently unknowable . . . and especially analysis done to line operators by control-oriented hands-on staffs. (pp. 30-31)

Peters and Austin (1985) found that organizations which supported a collaborative planning process are more likely to resemble open systems capable of making the necessary adaptations to changes in their environment. Peters and Waterman (1982) characterized excellent companies as having "a bias for action, for getting on with it" (p. 13). They concluded that although there was a need for analytical decision making, companies must not be paralyzed by this process, but rather that they should take an action research approach to planning. Kanter (1983) echoed these conclusions, criticizing segmentalist organizations which "decide to reorganize or to change policies, and then order people in the middle to pick up the pieces and make the new system work, with little warning and assistance" (p. 85).

The Texas Education Agency (1986) reached very similar conclusions from its review of the literature, finding that effective schools maintain a collaborative planning process. Goodlad (1983) advocated forming collegial teams of teachers to perform school planning functions and providing sufficient free time for them to accomplish this. Furthermore, he supported the use of this approach to address both short- and long-term planning issues. Joyce (1986) agreed with Goodlad's conclusions, citing lack of planning time and the relative isolation of teachers as major detriments to effective planning and instruction. Lewis (1986) also attributed great importance to this planning process, considering it essential if the specific goals which comprise the school's mission are to be translated effectively into specific activities.

In summary, there exists a similarity between the traditional planning processes employed in the public educational and the private sectors. However, research in both sectors suggests that the hierarchically top-down, analytical, reformist approach to implementing research findings to promote organizational improvement may not be the most effective model.

Clear Mission

The Texas Education Agency's (1986) review of the literature concluded that excellent schools have a clearly articulated mission which the staff understands and to which it shares a commitment. Lewis (1986), reporting on the study performed by the Research for Better Schools organization, took this one step further, advocating not only teacher understanding of the school's mission, but also helping to influence the determination of that mission. Goodlad's (1984) findings supported this, concluding that a clear articulation of a comprehensive set of goals was an essential component of effective schools. A clear mission was also found to be an important factor in achieving excellence in the private sector. Peters and Waterman (1982) address the issue of mission in two of their eight attributes of excellent organizations: "hands-on, value driven" and "stick to the knitting" (p. 15). These authors cite Thomas Watson, Jr., President of the IBM Corporation, as stating that "the basic philosophy of an organization has far more to do with its achievement than do technological or economic resources, organizational structure, innovation, and timing" (p. 15). The existence of a clear-cut mission defines the organizational values to which Watson referred. The understanding of, acceptance of, and commitment to this mission throughout the organization is what Peters and Waterman refer to as "hands-on." They go beyond this with their advocacy to "stick to the knitting;" in other words, it is essential not only to define clearly an organization's mission, but to ensure that that mission lies within the area of responsibility and capability of that organization. Kanter (1983) supported this, calling for the "assignment of meaningful and manageable tasks with clear boundaries and parameters ... and standards that groups must meet" (p. 275).

In summary, little disagreement was found between the private and the educational sector research findings regarding the essentiality of a clear, understood, accepted, and achieveable organizational mission.

Leadership

The Texas Education Agency's (1986) synopsis of the literature concluded that principals of effective schools act as the instructional leader, communicate the mission of the school to the staff, parents, and students, and both understand and apply the characteristics of the school's instructional program. Lewis' (1986) summary of the Research for Better Schools study called for the principal to provide both vision and energy in leading the school toward achievement of its goals.

Peters and Austin's (1985) findings closely paralleled those of their education counterparts. Leaders in effective private sector organizations were found to provide vision, cheerleading, enthusiasm, love, trust, verve, passion, consistency, the use of symbols, coaching, listening, and the creation of heroes at all levels of the organization. Peters and Waterman (1982) relied heavily on Chester I. Barnard's concepts of leadership, calling on the executive to be the "shaper and manager of shared values in an organization" and attributing to the leadership role

the functions of providing a system of communications, promoting the securing of essential efforts, and formulating and defining organizational purpose (p. 97). In her interpretation of the manager's role, Kanter (1983) defined three skills crucial to leadership in innovative organizations: skills in persuading others to invest information, support, and resources; skills in managing the work of teams and of promoting employee participation; and skills in understanding how change is effected in an organization. As part of the manager's responsibility for sharing power and persuading others to contribute their efforts to the organization, Kanter also stressed the importance of developing and maintaining feedback and reward systems. Thus, although she did not refer to Barnard, nor did she employ Barnard's terminology, her conclusions regarding the role of leader were extremely close to those reached by Peters and Waterman (1982).

In summary, research in both sectors concluded that strong leadership is an essential factor in promoting organizational excellence. That leadership is closely tied to both the planning process and the mission factors discussed previously, in that leaders of effective organizations encourage and facilitate the participation of all employees in the planning process and help to interpret and communicate the organizational mission to all levels of the organization. In addition, the effective leader in either sector provides energy and enthusiasm in helping organizational members to make their maximum contribution to the accomplishment of the established goals.

High Expectations

One global conclusion of research on effective schools is that excellence can only be attained when the school displays a climate of expectations in which the staff believes and demonstrates that all students can attain mastery of basic skills and that the staff has the capability to help students attain this mastery (Texas Education Agency, 1986). This was further supported by Lewis (1986) in her synopsis of the Research for Better Schools study. Unlike the majority of the studies, which assigned to the principal the responsibility for developing high expectations within schools, Joyce (1986) called for school districts to contribute such spiritual leadership and to help schools believe that they can deliver education of the best quality to their students, while striving to be even better.

In industry, Peters and Waterman's (1982) advocacy of "value driven" organizations also attests to the necessity of creating a climate of high expectations. They describe the late Ray Kroc, founder of the McDonald's Corporation, regularly visiting the stores and assessing them on the qualities and factors revered by the company (Quality, Service, Cleanliness, and Value). They describe IBM's climate of high expectations in the following terms: "The brainwashed members of an extremist political sect are no more conformist in their central beliefs" (p. 15). They also describe Digital Corporation's expectations as "a fetish for reliability" which "is more rigidly adhered to than any outsider could imagine" (p. 16). Peters and Austin (1985) relate Frito Lay's, Domino Pizza's, and Nordstrom's high expectations for service and even Sunset Scavengers' high standards and expectations in the garbage removal industry.

In both sectors, the research findings were consistent: the superior organizations set higher standards of expectations than the norms; the people who serve in those organizations not only take pride in those higher levels of expectations, but contribute their efforts to make those expectations a reality.

Organizational Climate

According to the general findings of the research, effective schools must maintain an orderly climate without being rigid. They must be pleasant, clean, and safe places conducive to teaching and learning (Texas Education Agency, 1986). Lewis (1986) expanded on this, calling for schools to offer warmth and care to those who work and study there. Joyce (1986) described the ideal climate as a climate of support, one in which risk-taking and trial-and-error processes were acceptable as long as the organization was in pursuit of a "homeostasis of improvement."

Of all the variables contributing to excellence in private sector organizations, Peters and Austin (1985) gave more emphasis to climate than to any other. According to their findings, the two key variables in organizational climate are care extended to customers and a penchant for constant innovation. Kanter (1983) called for the "encouragement of a culture of pride" (p. 361) and the establishment of an organizational climate and structure which would be "loose enough to allow for flexibility and some trial-and-error, yet connected enough to the existing organization that the lessons learned could easily be seen as relevant to the larger setting and, ultimately, incorporated into ongoing operations" (p. 172). The organizational acceptability, and even expectation, of risk-taking and trial-and-error processes advocated by Kanter and Joyce are discussed by Peters and Waterman (1982) in terms of "autonomy" and "entrepreneurship." These researchers describe IBM's efforts to foster this climate as exceptional: "They don't try to hold everyone on so short a rein that he can't be creative. They encourage practical risk taking, and support good tries" (p. 14). However, Peters and Waterman go beyond this aspect of climate and include "productivity through people" as one of the eight essential factors of superior organizations. They assert that it is people, not capital investments or technology, which will lead to greater productivity. This respect for the individual as the key to excellence closely parallels Lewis' (1986) conclusions regarding the human-orientation of successful schools. Peters and Austin (1985) provided a case study anecdote about Marks and Spencer canceling a contract with a large meat supplier because that supplier failed to provide comfortable working conditions for its employees. This attests to the importance of a safe, comfortable environment in promoting organizational excellence.

In summary, the climate seen as desirable for public schools closely resembles that found in industrial organizations with proven records of excellence. Furthermore, research in both sectors supports the pivotal role played by organizational climate in determining organizational productivity and achievement.

Time-on-Task

Not surprisingly, the Texas Education Agency (1986) review of literature found that the percentage of time spent addressing basic skills and spent in direct pursuit of the organization's objectives was highly linked to school excellence. Lewis (1986) concurred, stressing the need for a curriculum geared to basics and fundamentals and the importance of providing teachers with the necessary resources to pursue school goals, including the crucial resource of adequate time.

In the private sector, Peters and Waterman (1982) discussed the importance of companies "staying reasonably close to businesses they know" and not becoming distracted or overly diversified. They cite numerous research studies which confirm

"the difficulty of absorbing the unusual" (p. 296). They quote Robert Wood Johnson, founder of Johnson and Johnson, as saying: "Never acquire any business that you don't know how to run" (p. 299) and conclude that "any 'back-to-basics' move is, according to the studies we have reviewed and the excellent companies' message, good news indeed" (p. 305). Peters and Austin's (1985) discussion of the price of excellence concludes that: "Excellence is a high-cost item.... The cost of excellence is time, energy, attention, and focus" (p. 419).

In summary, intensive attention to a limited scope of activities and goals seems to be characteristic of excellent organizations in both the educational and private sectors.

Frequent Monitoring of Progress

The existence of cybernetic loops throughout the system, with multiple forms of assessment and frequent opportunities for feedback, was found to be a factor highly associated with excellence in schools (Texas Education Agency, 1986). This variable was given considerable attention by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1986), which recommended interviewing at least one student per day, walking the halls frequently, making at least one home contact per day, and providing both performance feedback and appreciation to faculty and staff.

Peters and Waterman (1982) and Peters and Austin's (1985) books both devoted considerable attention to this need for ongoing assessment and feedback. From this arose their concept of "Management By Walking Around" (MBWA), which incorporated both first-hand assessment by the leader and immediate provision of performance feedback and appreciation to organizational members. The most significant component of MBWA in more than eighty studies reported upon by Peters and Austin was found to be that of "naive listening," with input from customers being relied upon as a key measure of performance. In conjunction with this source of feedback on organizational performance, Peters and Waterman (1982) found that "excellent companies are a vast network of informed, open communications" (pp. 121-122). This is complemented by an environment "that utilizes, in the extreme, positive reinforcement" and in which management makes a conscious effort to: "(1) honor with all sorts of positive reinforcement any valuable, completed action by people at the top and especially way down the line; and (2) seek out a high volume of opportunities for good news swapping" (p. 124).

In summary, excellent companies and schools consistently monitor their performance and maintain an open system of communications throughout the organization, by which information on performance results is shared with organization members and performance practices are reinforced and modified, as necessary.

Community Relations

As discussed at considerable length by Peters and Austin (1985) in their presentation on MBWA, "customer listening is the watchword" (p. 10). They placed such importance on this factor that they concluded that "the number one managerial productivity problem in America is, quite simply, managers who are out of touch with their people and out of touch with their customers.... Being in touch

means tangible, visceral ways of being informed" (p. 8). This mirrored earlier conclusions by Peters and Waterman (1982), who listed being "close to the customer" among the eight salient characteristics of excellent companies. They concluded that: "These companies learn from the people they serve. . . . That comes from listening, intently and regularly" (p. 15).

Both Lewis (1986) and the Texas Education Agency (1986) reached similar conclusions regarding schools, finding that in the most successful schools there is generally a mutual agreement between the school and the parents which supports the role of the school. Furthermore, parents are made to feel that they have an important role in achieving this mission. Goodlad (1984) expanded this need for collaboration even beyond the school and the parents, stating: "Our schools will get better and have continuing good health only to the degree that a significant proportion of our people, not just parents, care about them" (p. 32). Joyce (1986) elaborated on this, encharging the general public, teachers, administrators, technical consultants, and patrons all to share in the responsibility for the governance and continued improvement of the public schools.

In summary, research in both sectors found that the most effective organizations were open systems, interacting freely with their environment and actively seeking feedback from their customers and constituencies regarding perceived adequacy and quality levels of organizational products and services.

Conclusions and Implications

The most obvious conclusions are that the context and situation of both private sector firms and public sector schools, the research methodologies appropriate to examining each, and the results of the research into characteristics of superior organizations within both sectors are all remarkably similar. The significance of these conclusions lies not only in the identification and cross-sectoral confirmation of specific factors associated with organizational excellence, but also in the validation of an expanded scope of professional literature to which educational planners may turn in seeking guidance for planning decisions.

Having once again confirmed and reinforced the findings regarding specific factors which contribute to, or at least are commonly associated with, excellent schools, the question persists as to how to bring about changes which will promote these characteristics in the vast majority of our public schools. The traditional approach has been through hierarchically top-down reform measures of major scope and magnitude. Educational planners at all levels have experienced considerable frustration with this model. Those at the state and national levels helped to design reform measures consistent with research findings and data regarding the specific school situation of their area of responsibility; however, as these plans were implemented in the various schools and school districts, not always did the outcomes resemble those originally intended. Planners at the district or campus levels have also experienced frustration from the "major reform package" model; often, feelings were generated that change was being imposed rather than occurring with the impetus and participation of those who would be responsible for implementing it. At other times, lower echelon planners have felt that the mandates and constraints passed down to them did not accommodate their local conditions to the extent that effective implementation would be possible.

Perhaps, then, the greatest contribution that can be gleaned from the private sector research is in the suggestion of an alternative model of planning and change. Rather than encouraging designated groups of educational planners with the responsibility of translating the conclusions of the research on effective organizations into action plans and guidelines to be followed, the most effective industrial organizations have accomplished greater change results by making all of their members aware of the key elements to excellence and providing them with an environment in which they, individually and collectively, would be encouraged to incorporate the essential concepts into their daily work lives. Instead of planning for wholesale, organized change, these organizations depended on the cumulative efforts of all organizational members making smaller, yet constant, improvements. Translating this to the educational sector, planners would concentrate less on deriving "solutions" based on the research findings, but rather would become responsible for communicating those findings in such a manner that they could be understood, accepted, and then utilized by all levels of the organization in designing more effective ways to contribute to the attainment of the organizational mission. The planner would then assume the role of evaluator, helping organizational members to perceive the impacts (positive and negative) of their innovations. Finally, the planner would assume a dissemination role, helping to communicate these results to all members of the organization and to the community served by the schools.

One caution is provided by Peters and Austin (1985), who counsel that the key to successful organization-wide implementation of the research findings may be that of simplifying those conclusions and presenting them in terms approaching what they term "a blinding flash of the obvious" (p. 3). It would be interesting to compare the results which might be obtained by a motivated district or campus' faculty equipped with the very brief and basic findings summarized in this article with the results obtained through massive state-level reform packages based upon the same results.

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1987 Annual Conference

ISEP '87
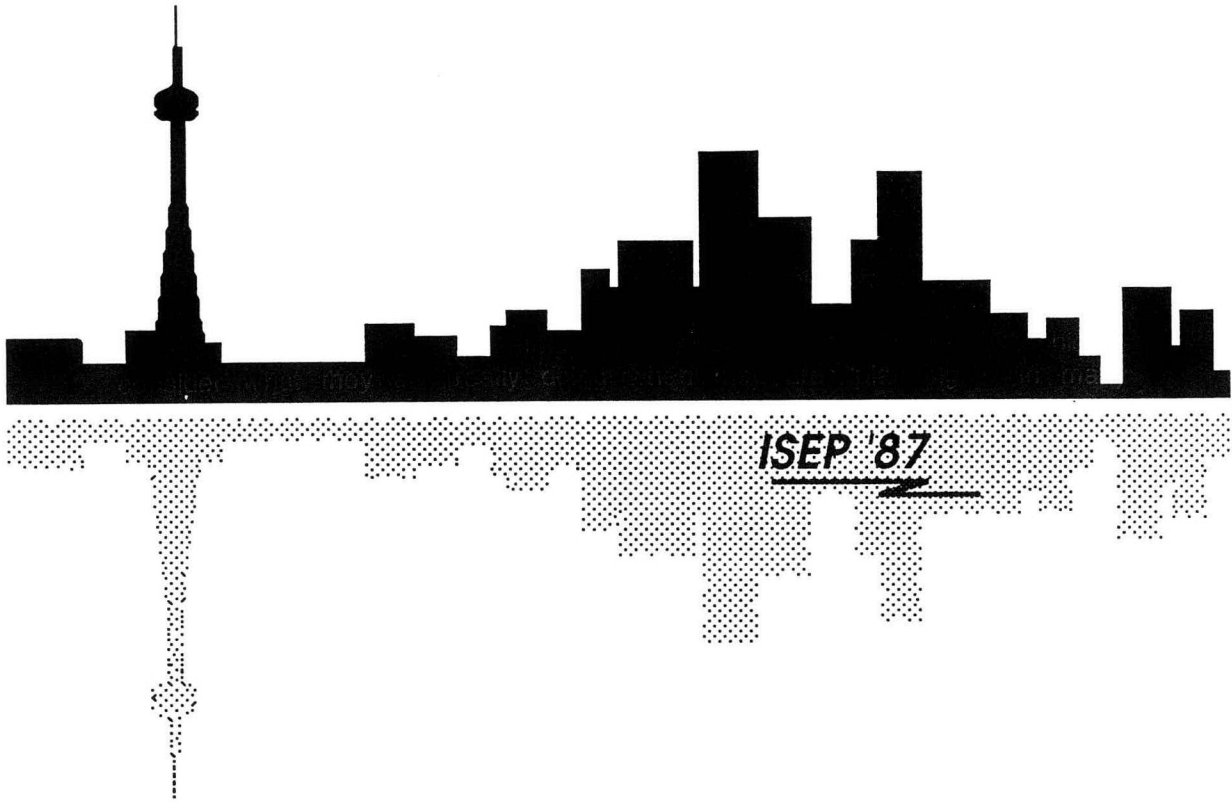
Conference Theme:

"Planning as an Integrative Process"

October

Toronto, Ontario, Canada

F O R

M E M B E R S

ANNOUNCEMENTS

FROM THE PRESIDENT'S DESK ...

It's eye-catching. The fine, almost-lace-like tracery of the line drawing stands in sharp contrast to the matted black background. If you see it, you quickly recognize a sophisticated architect's rendering of Washington D.C.'s historic Charles Sumner School, the site of ISEP's 1986 conference. If you had been there, you could now have at least one of these thoughtful conference mementoes gracing your favorite wall.

The poster of the Sumner School was presented to conferees at the conclusion of the meeting and serves as a reminder of the thoroughly-satisfactory physical setting of our annual meeting. The quiet good taste of the commemorative poster also serves as a reminder of the overall quality of this year's conference. It was, as I observed to J. Weldon Greene, Director of Planning in the Columbia Public Schools and chief organizer of the conference, "a thoroughly civilized proceeding." Having said this, I must hasten to include the names of Sandra Anderson, Roger Fish, Rolande Kirkland and Robert Mann, J. Weldon's planning staff colleagues and collaborators in organizing a conference which was simultaneously valuable, memorable and pleasant. Thanks to all who worked so long and hard to make it possible.

Those who have heard or read Past President Carlson's comments on the Burlington conference will recall that his appraisals of that experience were, especially for a New Englander, uncharacteristically immodest. Justified though his assessments certainly were, Past President Carlson may now be forced to agree, albeit reluctantly, that bragging rights for ISEP conference sponsorship now belong to colleagues in the nation's Capitol.

All of those in attendance had their preferred experiences. The substance and thematic relevance of the paper, panel, and clinical presentations were remarkable for their quality this year. The theme, "Educational Planning: Theory and Practice," was complemented effectively and naturally in virutally every session on the varied program. The conference site, coupled with the creative effectiveness of the conference's planners, made possible the bringing together of relevant planning topics and effective presenters.

One of the most civilizing aspects of the conference was the inclusion of talented adult and student musicians who provided "musical scenes" throughout. Conferees also were pleased that Superintendent of D.C. Schools, Floretta Dukes McKenzie, supported the conference with her presence and compliments for ISEP, Mr. Greene and his colleagues at the opening reception.

Thanks to the enterprise of newly-elected Vice President Ken Ducote, two promising new features were added to the proceedings. First, was a program inaugurated for the purpose of providing public recognition for exemplary achievements by public school planning divisions. Awards were presented to the school districts of Dade County, Minneapolis, Detroit, Washington, D.C., and St. Louis. The second addition was a panel presentation, "Forum on Exemplary Comprehensive Planning Processes and Adopted Plans for Local School

Districts." This aspect of ISEP's program promises to be a particularly enriching and valuable feature of the organization's future. The potential value of exchanges among public school planners is large. What was realized this year sets a healthy and promising precedent for the future.

Ted Humphreys and colleagues at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education are already busily at work in preparation for the 1987 conference. Let us all look forward to the further, mutually-beneficial growth we may enjoy in the fall in Toronto, and let us look back on a very healthy '86 with expressions of gratitude to Bob Carlson, Bob Beach and all the others who have kept ISEP on a progressive course.

George Crawford
President

SECRETARY - TREASURER'S REPORT: 1985 - 1986

This past year, ISEP carried forward slightly over $1000 to this year's budget. While this is the second largest amount brought forward in recent times, it reflects an actual operating loss of about ten percent for the year as a whole. This situation exists as a result of three factors, two of which are non-recurring. First, the increase in member dues created some misunderstanding regarding rates; and dues were, in some cases—notably overseas members where an information lag of several months is normal—only partially collected. Second, Journal inventories were created, prior to increased budgeting, which will be used for library solicitations and back-issue requests. These two items are non-recurring and account for the slight deficit experienced. Finally, conference activities were off slightly which negated the small surplus typically generated.

Revenue has increased by a factor of 2.5 over 1983. Committed revenue for 1986-1987 has, even this early in the year, exceeded last year's expenses. Expenditures will show only a slight increase over last year. Our financial condition is, therefore, stable with no pressing problems.

The Journal is running approximately seven weeks behind. This will be corrected by either back-to-back issues or by a double issue before the end of the summer.

The University of Alabama has renewed its $3000 support for the Journal over each of the next two years. This agreement expires in 1988 and additional support for *EDUCATIONAL PLANNING* may have to be found at that time.

CONFERENCE 1986: REPORT OF MEETINGS

In light of the foregoing, the board recommended and the members approved an increase in dues from $25 to $35 for the 1987 - 1988 year. In addition, a student category was authorized which will carry dues of $15. An institutional membership category was created to service libraries, etc. which will cost $40.

New officers and board members were elected to serve with past continuing members. Officers and board members for 1986-1987 are:

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University of Kansas
Department of Educational Administration
1 Bailey Hall
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Ken Ducote
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Director of Planning
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New Orleans, LA 70122

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Secretary Treasurer -Term (4 yr): October 1984 -1988*
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Administration and Educational Leadership
P. O. Box Q, 204 Wilson Hall
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Ann Harrison   Term (3 yr): October 1985 - 1988*

                      Program Analysis and Development
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William McInerney   Term (3 yr): October 1986 - 1989*

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Herbert Sheathelm   Term (3 yr): October 1985 - 1988

                      Department of Educational Leadership
                      University of Connecticut, U-93
                      Storrs, CT 06268

Anna M. Vacca   Term (3 yr): October 1984 - 1987*

                      Jefferson County Board of Education,
                      Birmingham, Alabama

* Indicates a member who, at the completion of this term, will have served less than
  2 consecutive terms (6-8 years, depending on the office) as an officer or board
  member and will be eligible for nomination following the expiration of the current
  term.

A constitutional committee has been appointed to examine and make recommen-
dations for any changes which can be of benefit to ISEP. The constitution will be
published, for member information, in the next issue of the Journal. Comments will
be welcome.

The Board approved Toronto, Canada as the location for the 1987 conference.
The Ontario Institute for Educational Studies will be our host.

IN MEMORIAL

Richard L. Featherstone

Professor *Richard L. Featherstone*, who served the Society over an extended period, died June 9, 1986. Dr. Featherstone was a Professor and Chair in Educational Administration and Higher Education and Assistant Dean for Continuing Studies at Michigan State University.

As an early secretary to ISEP, his efforts and dedication to the field of educational planning provided the support necessary to move a new organization to a point of maturity. The Society has lost a warm and generous friend. He will be missed.

Friends wishing to forward contributions should contact: The Richard Featherstone Prize for an outstanding undergraduate student, MSU Development Fund, 220 Nisbet, 1407 S. Harrison Rd., E. Lansing, MI 48824.

Invitation to Submit Manuscripts

The editors of *Educational Planning,* a refereed 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(s).
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 (8-1/2" 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 Assocation *Publication Manual* 3rd ed.

All manuscripts will be evaluated on the basis of relevancy, substance, style and syntax, and ease of comprehension. Submission of a manuscript for review constitutes permission to edit and to publish.

Please submit manuscripts to:

Robert H. Beach, Editor
Educational Planning
P. O. Box Q
204 Wilson Hall
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487

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Notes

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ORGANIZATION	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. Since then its growth has demonstrated that there is need for a professional organization with educational planning as its exclusive concern.
PURPOSE	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.
MEMBERSHIP IN THE SOCIETY	Membership in the Society is open to any person active or interested in educational planning and the Purposes of the Society. To join the Society or renew a membership, please submit the following: Name Address Current Position Present interests and/or activities in the planning area **Membership fee of $25 (make check payable to ISEP)** Please forward check and information to: **ISEP** Dr. Robert H. Beach, Treasurer The University of Alabama Post Office Box Q 204 Wilson Hall Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487

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