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ISEP ANNOUNCEMENTS

LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

With this issue of the Journal, we examine two practically-oriented articles related to educational planning and policy as they occur in real and on-going settings in Illinois and Vermont. In the first article, F. Howard Nelson, a researcher with the American Federation of Teachers, discusses the resource cost model and the relation between planning and resources. In the second article, Perry Johnston and Helen Niedermeier provide findings of a study of a public policy and its implementation in Vermont. Both pieces should be of interest to practitioners as well as to the readership interested in theory.

ISEP members should note the new constitution and bylaws in the back of this issue. These were unanimously approved at the general business meeting of the Toronto conference in October 1987. A quorum of the membership was present.

You will also find in this issue a listing of ISEP board members and officers. I am sure I speak for the membership in welcoming Ray Bouchillon, Coordinator, Local Strategic Planning, Georgia State Department of Education; James S. Brown, Special Assistant to the Superintendent, Camden (New Jersey) City Public Schools; and Ronald A. Lindahl, Department of Educational Leadership and Counseling, University of Texas—El Paso.

F. Howard Nelson

THE RESOURCE COST MODEL IN ILLINOIS: UTILIZATION FOR PLANNING AND FUNDING

The Resource Cost Model (RCM) originates in the "best practice, exemplary program," or "reputational survey" approaches to cost estimation and program planning. According to Hartman (1981), these earlier methodologies do not allow for the inclusion of future programmatic changes or for evaluating programmatic tradeoffs. As an alternative, the Resource Cost Model (RCM) utilizes experts to construct programs as they might exist. Kakalik (1977) and Hartman (1981) employed frameworks similar to the RCM to assess the cost of implementing P.L. 94-142. The RCM approach in Illinois improves on these efforts by integrating price indexes into the cost analysis.

The RCM ultimately determines an appropriate cost of education for each school district. The appropriate cost is a function of: 1) the quantity of resources (e.g., teachers, supplies, buildings) needed by each district; and 2) the price of resources faced by each district. Thus, cost is the product of price and quantity.

The quantity of resource depends on: 1) the educational needs of students in the district (e.g., regular education, special education, vocational education, etc.); and 2) a set of program specifications or standards on how students should be appropriately served (e.g., minimum and maximum class size, materials costs, etc.). The cost of resources faced by a district depends on factors under the district's control, such as higher salaries for experienced teachers, and uncontrollable factors, such as higher salaries to compensate teachers for the higher cost of living in urban areas. The "price" of resources refers only to resource cost differences beyond the control of district decision makers. The RCM calculates prices facing each district as the product of: 1) the state average price, such as the state average teacher salary, and 2) a price index that separates the effects of uncontrollable costs from controllable costs, and through statistical procedures estimates the magnitude of uncontrollable costs.

The Resource Cost Model in Illinois

The Illinois RCM is comprised of a set of program configurations, program enrollment data, and a set of education price indexes.[1]

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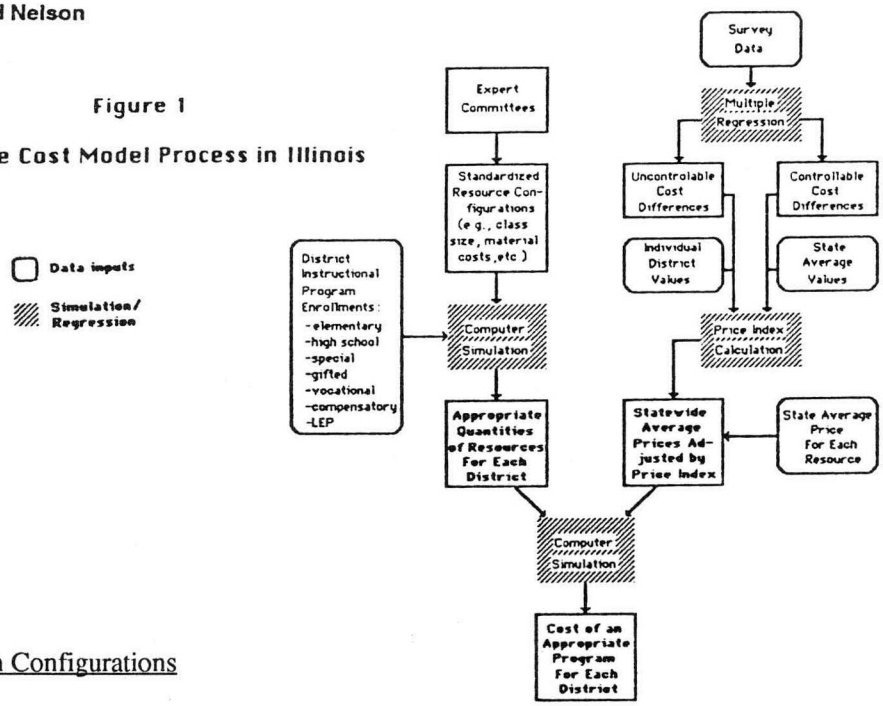
Figure 1

Resource Cost Model Process in Illinois



Program Configurations

Instructional Programs. Program committees decided resource needs for seven categories: elementary, secondary, special, gifted, vocational, compensatory (now called "poverty supplement"), and limited-English-proficient (LEP). Members of the committees were chosen primarily for their experience and expertise. Together, the seven program category committees created 160 instructional programs. Each program committee determined: 1) target, minimum and maximum class size or caseloads, 2) FTE personnel requirements, 3) purchased services, 4) supplies, 5) special equipment, and 6) building space needs. These determinations reflect "appropriate" requirements. An example from each instructional program configuration appears in Table 1.

Program, School, District Administration and Support Services. Program administration and school administration costs are proportional to enrollment—large programs and schools are not expected to experience economies of scale. At the district level, however, enrollment drives resource utilization, and costs decline continuously with size. The committees decided that a district achieves most economies of scale with an enrollment of about 1,000 students and exhausts almost all economies of scale with a 6,500 student enrollment. Taken together, general district administration costs were estimated at about $263 per pupil (1981-82 prices) for 650 students, based on state average resource costs (Chambers and Parrish, 1982, p. 99). A 6,500 student district costs $148 per pupil for district administration, and for a 19,000 district the figure falls to only $140.

Energy Needs. A computer program, designed by engineers, calculates the fuel and electricity needs based on a protypical building, its usage and climatic zone. The prototypical building represents current construction practices in the State and does not vary among the State's five climatic regions. The actual energy source utilized by the school district (natural gas, fuel oil, coal, liquid propane, or electricity) and actual prices are applied to energy requirements to calculate an energy cost index.

Table 1

Examples of Instructional Program Configurations

Program Category (Instructional Program)	Class Size or Caseload			FTE Pers. Per Unit		Expend Per Unit:			Bldg. Space
(1)	Targ. (2)	Max. (3)	Min. (4)	Tchrs (5)	Aids (6)	Purch. Svs. (7)	Supp Mtrls (8)	Spec. Equip (9)	Sq.F. (10)
1. Regular Elementary (Self-contained)	23	28	18	1.0	0	0	1500	1334	900
2. Regular Secondary (English Regular)	25	30	20	.2	0	0	50	235	125
3. Special Education (Speech/Language)	62	62	62	1	0	2500	1000	825	500
4. Gifted Education (Resource Center K-12)	100	100	100	1	0	500	975	2295	1800
5. Vocational Education (Industrial-Drafting)	21	26	16	2	0	40	80	500	498
6. Poverty Supplement (Poverty/Remedial)	35	35	35	1	0	1000	500	750	300
7. Limited English Proficient (Bilingual Pull-out K-8)	16	23	9	.5	.5	100	800	343	450

Source: Illinois Public School Finance Project, State Superintendent's Preliminary School Finance Reform Recommendations, September 1984.

Program Enrollments

The incidence and distribution of special needs pupils among schools and grades determine how students are served in the 160 instructional programs. The major data problems in Illinois came from the lack of sufficient detail to slot students into the hypothetical "appropriate programs," especially in regular elementary and secondary instructional programs. The label "12th graders," for example, does not indicate whether the students are in an advanced algebra or a remedial course. Better data collection could remediate this problem.

Relatively good data for special education described every student in the state according to: 1) the handicap of the pupil, 2) the nature of the program setting, 3) the severity of the child's condition, 4) the age of the child, and 5) the number of schools likely to be served by each staff person. A computer algorithm allocates each student to the appropriate instructional program(s) and/or related service(s). The state collects equally detailed data in vocational education. Though not as reliable, data on bilingual education enrollment are available. On the other hand, all districts received credit in the initial simulation for five percent of the district enrollment.

Education Price Indexes

The theoretical model on which the personnel price indexes of the Illinois CEI were constructed, the hedonic wage theory (Rosen, 1974; Lucas, 1974; Chambers, 1978), views salary determination as the outcome of a bargaining situation between individuals and school districts. According to the theory, districts recruit individuals for specific job assignments, and individuals seek remuneration according to their perceptions of working conditions; the cost-of-living; environmental factors such as pollution, traffic congestion and crime; access to medical facilities; and other factors. Therefore, the price of personnel is determined by studying individual reactions to the work situation rather than using school districts as the unit of analysis. Surveys of about 1800 teachers, 800 district support personnel, 700 school administrators, 900 district administrators, and 1250 non-certified personnel provided the data for the price indexes.

Calculation of a price index begins with a multiple regression analysis yielding a coefficient for each factor determining salaries that denotes the direction and size of the effect. Next, "controllable" variables are distinguished from "uncontrollable" variables. Sometimes, the distinction may simply be drawn between those variables policymakers want in the index and those that they do not want. Specifically, the Illinois price index for teachers designates the following types of variables as either uncontrollable or appropriate for inclusion in the index:

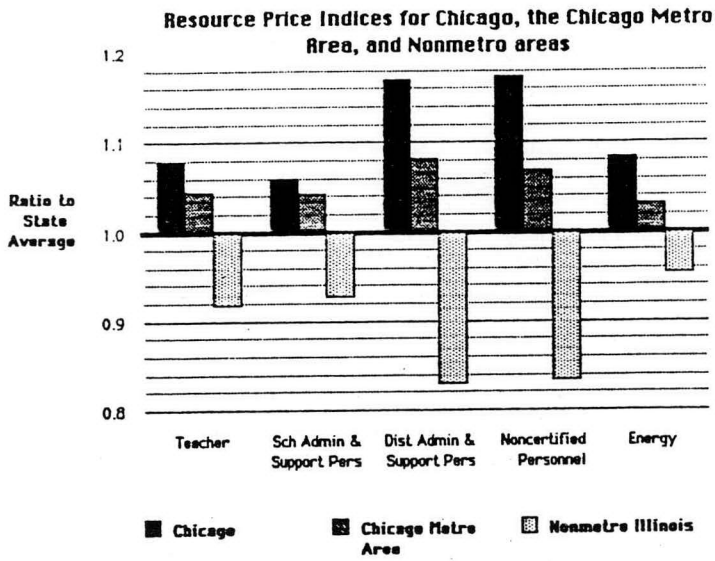
* price of agricultural land in county,
* population of the nearest central city,
* distance to nearest central city, and
* number of districts per square miles in county.

Except for "distance to central city," all of the variables in the index represent regional characteristics. The cost indexes now used in the Illinois RCM are county cost indexes. Noticeably absent from the list of uncontrollable variables used in the index are those related to the specific

working conditions of the school districts, such as the poverty background and academic preparation of pupils, the quality of support services and facilities, and safety of the work place.

The price index for each district is calculated by substituting state average values for the controllable variables in the salary equation, and using the actual district values for uncontrollable variables. The ratio of the statistically predicted salary to the state average salary is the index. Figure 2 presents the indexes for Chicago, the Chicago metropolitan area, and non-metropolitan districts. Clearly, resource prices in urban areas exceed those in rural Illinois. The price of teachers in Chicago exceeds non-metropolitan districts by 18 percentage points, and the price of district administrators and non-certified personnel are 34 percentage points higher.

Figure 2



The Appropriate Cost of Education (RCM Cost) for Each District

The hypothetical "appropriate cost" of education for each district, oftentimes referred to as the RCM cost of Illinois, is calculated by: 1) combining state program specifications with enrollments to determine the resource needs unique to each district, and 2) multiplying the quantities of resources by the appropriate prices determined from the resource price index.

Table 2 lists the total RCM costs summed over all instructional programs for several districts in Cook County (the county containing Chicago). The RCM costs are sometimes lower and sometimes higher than actual expenditures. The initial simulations showed the total RCM costs of $5.3 billion (1981-82 resource prices) in Illinois practically matched the actual 1981-82 costs of $5.1 billion, indicating that spending by other districts compared to the RCM estimates (Chambers and Parrish, p. 9).

The Illinois Public School Finance Project, funded by a special appropriation of the Illinois legislature, developed the Illinois Resource Cost Model. Not surprisingly, the utilization of the

RCM in distributing state general aid received the most attention. Some interest has been directed to the RCM as a planning instrument, and this section also describes some of these possibilities.

The RCM as a Basis for Distributing State General Aid

Though the RCM costs can play a role in any type of funding formula, the State Board of Education, its staff, and the former State Superintendent recommended that the RCM costs serve as the foundation level in a foundation formula.[2] Categorical funding of special programs by the State would be eliminated except for those programs with a regional or Statewide focus. Each district in the state would have a unique foundation level equal to the RCM cost. According to Table 2, for example, Chicago's foundation level in 1981-82 dollars would be about $2,775 per pupil, while Bellwood's would be $3,014 per pupil. The state would continue to require districts to levy a minimum property tax rate, and the difference between property tax levies raised by this tax and total RCM costs would be covered by state funds and federal funds.

Based on simulations using data from 1981-82 that assume: 1) no change from the present law in required tax rates, 2) all categorical funding becomes part of general aid, 3) no flat grants, and 4) no hold harmless provisions for districts that lose aid, the following outcomes result (Illinois School Finance Project, 1983):

* State revenues would need to increase $1.2 billion (compared to about $2 billion appropriated for education in 1981-1982).

* The proportion of total state and federal resources designated for Chicago would fall from the actual 32 percent in 1981-82 to 26 percent, but would increase for other district types, especially elementary and K-12 districts.

The RCM funding scheme proposed for fiscal year 1986 asked for only $660 million in additional revenue and made further adjustment for cities with large concentrations of poverty (described below). Chicago's percentage of state aid increased to 34.1 percent.

Planning

Masked by the connection to school finance, the value of the RCM as a planning and budgeting tool has received less attention. Multi-year projections of total costs or resource needs for the state for any combination of local services could be accomplished. More important, the simulation can be used to determine the cost consequences of alternative educational investment strategies and the distribution of the costs among districts. The cost consequences of naturally-occurring shifts in the composition of enrollment or the teaching force can also be predicted.

One such application is a school district reorganization study by the Illinois State Board of Education. If each county in Illinois formed a K-12 district, thus reducing the number of school districts from about 1,000 to about 100, Illinois would save about $60 million a year due to scale economies, because County districts could more easily provide target-size classrooms and caseloads. In a study of educational reforms taken up by the 1985 Illinois legislature, the

Table 2

RCM Costs and Enrollment by Instructional Program, 1981-82

	Enrollment (1)	RCM Cost (2)	Actual p.[a] Exp. (3)	Wealth Per. Pupil[b] (4)	Reg. Elem. (5)	Req. Sec. (6)	Spec. Ed. (7)	Gift Ed. (8)	Comp. Ed. (9)	Lim. Eng Prof. (10c)
1. Chicago[c]	453,330	2,775	3,115	41,275	57.4	29.7	9.9	5.0	14.9	7.7
2. Bellwood[c]	2,754	3,014	2,547	59,462	90.4	0	25.5	4.9	4.5	4.3
3. Berwyn North	1,278	3,388	2,336	48,657	95.2	0	27.4	4.9	3.1	4.3
4. Elmwood Park	2,533	2,875	2,786	52,809	59.7	37.8	17.7	4.9	5.1	6.3
5. Evanston[c]	6,808	2,828	3,346	57,947	94.7	0	21.6	7.4	3.4	3.4
6. Hillside	384	2,882	3,801	141,373	94.5	0	21.1	4.9	0	1.8
7. Pennoyer	240	3,410	2,223	74,172	98.0	0	26.2	5.0	16.6	9.6
8. Skokie (#735)	773	2,892	3,870	92,796	96.3	0	25.5	4.9	2.1	11.3
9. Wilmette[c]	2,832	2,527	3,057	54,049	94.1	0	15.5	5.0	1.0	1.0

Source: Chambers and Parrish (1983: Appendix I and Appendix L): *Illinois Public Schools Financial Statistics 1980-81 School Year: Illinois Annual State and Claim Statistics 1978-79.*

[a] 1980-81 Operating expenditure per ADA: RCM costs based 1981-82 data.
[b] 1976 equalized valuation per 1977-78 elementary student ADA.
[c] Districts with bilingual programs receiving State aid.

Chicago Panel on Public School Finance (Nelson & Hess, 1985) utilized the RCM instructional program configurations to study such reform issues as student remediation costs, the provision of summer school for students achieving below grade level, relaxing physical education and driver education mandates, and early childhood education.

Though the Chicago Panel did not actually use the computer simulation, access of school

districts, community organizations, and other education groups to the simulation may be easy to obtain in the future. The Illinois Association of School Business Officials (1984), in conjunction with the Illinois State Board of Education, developed a version of the RCM that fits on an Apple computer. This allows local districts not only to figure out implications of an RCM-driven funding scheme for local districts but also access to a sophisticated planning instrument.

An Appraisal of the RCM

In Levittown v. Nyquist (1978), the four largest cities in New York successfully argued in the lower courts that the state-aid formula failed to recognize four overburdening conditions faced by the state's largest cities—municipal overburden, educational overburden, cost differentials, and absenteeism. Though the RCM accounts for many special pupil needs and price differentials, Chicago barely recaptures state resources currently funneled through an urban aid factor, and state categorical aid. This section describes the many problems associated with the well-intentioned and highly rational policy initiative that conceptually recognizes the special situations of both large cities and small rural districts.

Enrollment Data for Special Needs Pupils

Intuition tells us that the incidence of poverty, poor health, poor housing, and poor pre- and post-natal care in large urban areas should put the budgetary needs of special education in Chicago as the highest in the state.

Based more on this intuition than good data, some researchers (e.g., Guthrie, Garms and Pierce, 1978) have recommended added state attention to financing special education as a means of assisting cities. Visual inspection of Table 2, however, indicates that the proportion of enrollment served in special education determines much of the RCM cost variation within Cook County, and that Chicago serves only 10 percent of its students in special education. Though poor quality of enrollment data exists in many program categories, quality of special vocational education data has exceeded those in other instructional categories.

Actual enrollments in special education may differ from "appropriate" enrollments because: 1) the same procedural requirements for identifying and treating handicapped students in different districts yield varying results (Weatherley and Lipsky, 1977); 2) fiscal resources available to districts partly determine the scope of programs, and program enrollments often determine need (Nelson, 1982); and 3) State and federal funding mechanisms create incentives and disincentives for local decision makers that operate partly through program enrollment decisions (Hartman, 1980). In most large cities, many less expensive and/or more highly subsidized alternatives exist for the mildly handicapped such as compensatory education and bilingual education. Another complicating factor arising in urban situations comes from educational problems so profound that distinguishing the mildly handicapped from the nonhandicapped often proves impossible.

The impact of special education enrollment on the RCM cost estimates comes from its expense relative to other special-needs programs. Self-contained elementary programs with a larger size enrollment cost about $1,100 per pupil at state average prices in 1981-82 (Chambers and

Parrish, p. 94). At target enrollments, self-contained classrooms for the mildly handicapped range from $2,500 to $3,500 per pupil. Supplementary services, higher administration costs, and smaller-than-target class- or case-load size lift costs further.

Another bias systematically working against urban areas in the RCM arises from the absences of "appropriate" enrollment information for the remedial instruction program and the compensatory education (now called "poverty supplement" in the Illinois RCM) program category. Illinois does not yet collect data on students either needing or receiving remedial education. Consequently, the RCM arbitrarily allocates 7.5 percent of elementary students, or 1.0 percent of high school students, to remedial instruction, regardless of school or district characteristics. Yet, about one-third of Chicago's high school students flunk two or more courses each year, and well over 50 percent read one or more years behind grade level.

Part of the enrollment data problem in the compensatory education area arises from the need of the Illinois RCM to connect specific students to specific programs. In compensatory education, however, student names often cannot be attached to existing federal programs. Frequently, entire schools in Chicago engage in compensatory education, much of it without federal support. Perhaps, rather than associating compensatory education with federally funded programs, more emphasis should be placed on collecting good data on remedial education needs and constructing more precise instructional program configurations for remedial education within the regular elementary and high school curriculums.

Costs Imposed by Urban Poverty

The Illinois RCM views poverty primarily as a cause of special instructional needs, and secondarily frames poverty as a direct determinant of such non-instructional costs as vandalism, increased security, student transiency, non-payment of fees, etc. (Illinois Public School Finance Project, 1983). Originally, these non-instructional costs failed to enter the RCM. Partly as an outcome of political bargaining (Chicago officials felt that the RCM did not provide the current level of funding generated by a poverty weighting), and partly based on better documentation of non-instructional costs, the RCM now allocates $10 per pupil for districts with more than 15 percent of its students counted as poor. This provision would generate only about $4 million for Chicago's $1.5 billion budget. Another important adjustment, again perhaps as an outcome of political bargaining, was to lower the target caseload for the poverty/remedial instructional program from 50 (with a maximum of 60) to 35 (with a maximum of 35).

Another serious problem arises from the inability to measure the effect of poverty on the price of personnel. As constructed, the price indexes approximate county cost-of-living differences more so than measuring personnel prices based on the hedonic wage theory, principally because more good data exist at the county level than at the school district level. Index differences among Cook County's 140 districts depend only on their proximity to Chicago, with those bordering the city having the highest index. As a consequence of constructing the personnel indices in this way, districts in remarkably different bargaining positions, with respect to attracting employees, have almost the same indexes. Professional suburbs have almost the identical personnel price indexes as working-class suburbs. These suburbs, bordering Chicago, have almost the same teacher indexes as Chicago.

Clearly, Chicago enters the regional labor market for teachers with substantial disadvantages severely underestimated by the Illinois price indexes. The privileged suburbs offer employees quality working conditions (such as small classes, superior facilities, and academically talented students) and a safe, clean community in which to work. Chicago, on the other hand, must frequently compensate employees for large class sizes, academically unprepared students, deteriorating facilities, violence against teachers, and unsafe neighborhoods in which to work. According to the Safe School Study (Rubel, 1978), for example, 2.8 percent of large-city secondary school teachers report being attacked in one month compared to 0.7 percent in small cities, .5 percent in suburbs, and .02 percent in rural secondary schools. Antos and Rosen (1975) estimated the "battle pay" premium at about 10 percent of the annual salary of urban school teachers.

Some of the problems in establishing accurate price indexes for urban areas could be resolved by including the appropriate variables in the estimating equations, such as the poverty background of students, student achievement level, teacher assault data by school, neighborhood crime statistics, quality of facilities, and other variables. But comparable data among school districts is largely unavailable. Furthermore, from a policy perspective, such variables may have an undesirable "image" in an educational funding formula, and recognition of these factors might be seen as rewarding and encouraging violence and failure.

Technical Concerns with the CEI

Even though the outcomes of the Illinois price indexes are "largely consistent with similar studies conducted in other states" (Chambers and Parrish, p. 66), some technical problems emerge in the regression analysis. First, some variables in the regression equation had the wrong sign compared to theoretical expectations. Districts in urban areas with medium-sized central cities, for example, face the highest prices for teachers, according to the calculations, but the lowest prices for school and district administrators. Second, some indexes were not specified well. The county-wide price of agricultural land in Illinois, for example, theoretically represents the base price of land in urban areas and thus higher-cost housing for employees, an important component of the cost of living. Without a variable to hold the quality and potential use of land constant, however, the price of agricultural land in rural areas partly measures wealth. Consequently, the state could be subsidizing wealth through the price index.

These and many other problems were studied by consultants hired by the Illinois State Board of Education (Adams, Berne, & Wendling, 1983). In a few instances, re-analysis solved many of the technical objectives. On the other hand, such adjustments contributed to fears that technicians could "tinker" with indexes for reasons not clearly visible to local officials—an important concern if indexes helped distribute state aid.

Construction, Maintenance, and Energy Costs

Urban school districts pay more for land, more for buildings, and more to maintain buildings and facilities. The average cost of land per acre in 14 city school districts surveyed by the

Research Council of the Great Cities (1964) was 23 times greater than non-urban districts in the same states. School construction costs exceed those of suburbs because of more restrictive building codes and higher union wage scales, and facility costs tend to vary among school districts more than operating costs (Wilkerson, 1981). The absence of new construction in most central cities, including Chicago, mitigates many of these problems. Maintenance costs, however, exceed state averages (Fox and Hurb, 1971), and high construction costs probably slow down replacement of outdated, inefficient facilities.

Excluding capital costs and maintenance from the RCM in Illinois ignores important cost pressures faced by older urban districts that have an indirect impact on instructional spending. Furthermore, energy use assumptions come from a "prototypical" building based on current construction standards. While the state clearly has an interest in not subsidizing inefficient buildings, old schools in urban areas will not likely be replaced soon; yet certainly these expenses draw resources from programs aimed at pupils.

CONCLUSION

Within the basic RCM framework, several changes could remove the bias against urban areas. First, enrollment ceilings in special education, particularly in the learning disabilities category, would partly alleviate the favorable treatment of subburbs. Second, the costs of poverty could be judged better by: 1) obtaining data on actual enrollments and need in remedial instruction; 2) considering costs imposed by school district characteristics, as well as student characteristics, such as desegregation; and 3) accounting for student body characteristics and work place conditions in the price index calculations. Third, methodological problems with price index calculations that appear to be systematically biased against urban districts could be worked out.

State officials, in fact, have worked to accommodate many of these concerns, though lack of data often constrain such actions. Constant adjustment of the various components of the RCM, however, is often interpreted by local officials as political tinkering rather than technical improvements, and indeed some political tinkering may occur. Instead of continuing refinement, changes in the RCM contribute to an image of being "poorly developed" (Chicago Tribune, June 26, 1985). The RCM process itself, however, tends to unify special interest groups more than a categorical program and funding approach. At least during an era of declining power for special interest groups, including city school systems, a unified approach to educational funding may be the best of all school finance policies.

The connection to funding in Illinois, and the emotional controversies that inevitably emerge, mask the importance of the RCM as a planning instrument. Particularly for the substantial educational reforms demanded by State legislatures in the mid-1980s, the RCM could not only deliver an assessment of full implementation costs (or savings) but could also estimate the impact of reforms on particular districts. But while experts engage in technical debates about the specification of regression equations, the entire concept of price indexes escaped legislative debate in Illinois over such issues as minimum teacher salaries.

Notes

[1]In Illinois, the program configurations are inaccurately called "Program Cost Differentials," the education price indexes are inappropriately labeled "Education Cost Indexes," and the energy and transportation configurations are treated as energy and transportation cost indexes rather than resource configurations.

[2]The foundation formula is: $s_i = F - (r \times V_i)$ where S_i is the state aid contribution per pupil in district, F is the foundation amount per pupil, r is the required tax rate and V_i is the local property value per pupil in district i. The current Illinois aid formula functions as a foundation plan with F = $1,658 per pupil in 1982-83. Under the changes, F is replaced by F_i, the foundation level unique to each district, and F_i equals the RCM cost of district i. The application of the RCM to various other aid formulas is detailed in Chambers and Parrish (1982, pp. 110-113).

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A.P. Johnston and H.G. Niedermeier

STATE-SPONSORED EDUCATION REFORM IN THE 1980'S: SCHOOLS AS POLICY JUNKYARDS

> . . . It's just something more that came down the pike; we're gonna go through this . . . and as soon as they leave, in the end, what's it all going to mean? You know, just like we went through with the basic competencies, and then it was the Vermont plan before that, and you know, I think that in the end it wasn't going to change anything.

The structure of the education reforms of the past two decades has been characterized as "galloping centralization," a reference to a perception of excessive rationalism by states as they enact policy to improve the schools. Though the term belies the speaker's bias against centralization of education policy, it does capture a characterization which many of our practitioner and professional colleagues affirm. The research reported here is one attempt to explore a state education policy which is essentially centrist in initiative and in its requirements for implementation, and how it has fared from a policy-user perspective.

The intent of the study is to add to the paucity of research on state policy implementation on how to design more effective policy. As long as education remains of interest in the state political arena, politicians will have their own reasons and means to "fix" the schools. Unless policymakers learn of the effects of their action, they are quite likely to continue enacting policy which may or may not coincide with their intention.

This study seeks to answer the following questions concerning the Vermont reform policy, Public School Approval (hereafter PSA): first, what was the extent of implementation of the policy? second, what factors (variables) were associated with policy implementation? third, what were the consequences to teachers and students, positive and negative, of the implementation? and fourth, in the perception of teachers, what state policy making roles would be most helpful to achieve educational improvement?

METHODOLOGY

Qualitative methodology was adopted for the study to learn about PSA implementation from the perspectives of instrumental participants in the process. Thus, the research was designed to understand these perceptions without structuring the data according to predetermined hypotheses. The utility of this orientation toward research on educational reform implementation has been endorsed by other researchers (Kirst, 1985; Burnes and Lindner, 1985).

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Three Vermont secondary schools served as research settings. These sites were selected for a number of reasons. Each school participated in PSA implementation in 1984, the year of the policy's inception, which permitted this research to study sustaining effects of the policy. Moreover, since each school was a participant in at least one previous PSA study, preliminary data on implementation of the standards was available (Moore, 1986; Proulx, 1987). The schools were originally selected in the author's attempt, "... to choose three schools which are somewhat typical Vermont high schools" (Moore, 1986). Finally, diversity among the settings was also sought to broaden the universe of potential respondents, thereby enhancing the validity of the study's findings (Patton, 1980; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Goetz and LeCompte, 1984; Agar, 1980).

In order to focus the study within the reasonable limits suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (1982) and Wolcott (1976), this research centered on the general academic requirements and specific standards governing the disciplines of English, mathematics and science. Besides representing core elements of secondary school curriculum, each of these academic disciplines was chosen upon the basis of a distinct rationale. The English regulations, without specifying additional graduation requirements, were perhaps the most comprehensive curricular standards. In mathematics, the policy did mandate an increase in state graduation requirements. The science provisions contained potentially expensive facilities specifications, as well as an increase in graduation requirements.

Respondents were selected through a combination of comprehensive and purposive criterion-based sampling strategies (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; ECS, 1984; Agar, 1980; Goetz and LeCompte, 1984; and Lofland and Lofland, 1984). While administrators served as initial contacts and informants, teachers were the primary source of data. In the smallest school, all teachers in the three departments were interviewed and were asked to complete a questionnaire. In the two larger schools, administrators identified key respondents who were interviewed; all teachers in each of the three departments were asked to complete a questionnaire.

Interviews followed the interview guide format outlined by Patton (1980) and utilized in ECS (1984) studies on educational reform implementation. Prior to the interview, subjects received a general outline of discussion topics representing the study's four research questions. Within the minimally structured interviews, every attempt was made to encourage depth of response and discussion of unanticipated topics (Patton, 1980).

The questionnaire was adapted from a prior PSA study (Proulx, 1987). Questions were added to this instrument to seek supplementary information directly relevant to this particular research. Question format included both the provision of response alternatives and the opportunity for open-ended comments. Use of both interviews and questionnaires from varied respondents, supplemented by school documents as available, provided a mechanism to achieve triangulation and therefore to heighten the validity of the data (Tamivaara and Enright, 1986; Bogdan and Biklen, 1980). A pilot study tested the utility of the study's methodology at another Vermont high school which was also a first year PSA participant.

Data were analyzed initially by separating responses in each of the three academic disciplines; they were then coded according to the four research questions. After the information had been sorted in this way, responses were examined to discover themes which emerged from the responses to each question.

FINDINGS

EXTENT OF IMPLEMENTATION

Describing the extent of implementation, respondents referred to both the type and the degree of policy-inspired practice.

Type of Implementation

Measured against the total range of general academic regulations and specific discipline-related provisions, the type of PSA implementation described by respondents was substantively focused. As was the case in earlier PSA findings, the schools continued to concentrate on visible, "prescriptive", "high profile" standards (Moore, 1986; Proulx, 1987). Respondents mentioned three particular regulations as those which had received most attention and translation into practice: the development of curricular scope and sequence s; the addition of course offerings and graduation requirements, and the fulfillment of physical facilities and equipment specifications. Even in the academic discipline of English, where few "concrete" changes were dictated by the policy, these more tangible areas received most attention.

On the other hand, abstract, "philosophical", or "low profile" standards, such as those requiring interdisciplinary work among teachers or coordination of curriculum with sending schools, received little or no attention. The implementation activity which did occur with respect to these standards was more variable across departments and settings. Summarizing the type of policy implementation, one respondent stated, "We did plans as to how we were going to meet the standards in areas where we were not meeting them. Some of those things obviously have happened, but I don't think we've kept up with it as well as we could have."

Degree of Implementation

A second group of themes, related to the degree of implementation, also indicated the incomplete nature of PSA-inspired practice. First, it was apparent that some implementation which occurred was coincidental. In varying instances, school practices had previously fulfilled the policy's mandates; that is, in the words of one respondent, "... there were lots of things we were doing that were already up to snuff ... just sort of coincidentally met the standards." In other cases, schools were already headed in directions suggested by the PSA regulations. As one interviewee stated, "We were well on the way to increasing the number of credit hours, well on the way to many other kinds of things, so when PSA came along, I think it was a superfluous kind of a[n] activity."

A second theme equated PSA implementation with completing the requisite paperwork; ac-

cording to one respondent, ". . . largely the time spent was just in generating lots of words, as you can see by the thickness of the report." Other respondents amplified this theme suggesting that, while implementation occurred on paper, the relationship between what was stated as implemented and what was actually practiced in the school was non-existent or contradictory. As one respondent summarized:

> . . . we generate a whole bunch of paperwork. We say a lot of things, some of them are true, some aren't. We construe the statistics so that they make you look the best possible, and, as much as anything, I think the only thing that PSA achieves is it forces everyone to have to go through the paperwork development process. And as far as . . . leading to meaningful improvement . . . I think that's pretty minimal.

A third theme suggested that implementation was a temporary phenomenon. First, there was sense that PSA implementation ended with completion of the mandated evaluation procedures. As one respondent stated: "We spent a lot of time writing corrective action plans, but nobody really knows what's in them anymore and where we're supposed to be according to our time line . . . it seems as though we went through the process, breathed a big sigh of relief, and that's it." A second dimension of this theme emerged particularly from one setting. In that school, changes were made in response to the policy but were subsequently rescinded. According to one interviewee, ". . . we had it for a year and before the program and the courses could really get off the ground, the position was cut. I don't know exactly how we're going to manage kids taking three years of math, three years of science."

FACTORS IMPINGING ON IMPLEMENTATION

The second research question focused on an examination of in-school factors which either assisted or obstructed PSA implementation efforts. The variables discussed most frequently by respondents were divided into three broad categories: structural, procedural, and attitudinal. Some of these variables worked similarly across departments and settings; others impacted in different ways. All, however, appeared to play an important role in shaping the course of PSA implementation.

Structural Factors: Characteristics of the Schools

Three structural variables in particular appeared to impinge upon PSA implementation: leadership, first, was important in the continuation of implementation efforts. This is, leadership played an instrumentally positive role in organizing the initial PSA procedures and shepherding teachers through them in all three schools. Nevertheless, it subsequently impinged on implementation differentially across settings. Administrative priorities and leadership stability varied among the three schools, affecting the shape of implementation in terms of the standards which received or did not receive emphasis and the very continuation of efforts to implement the policy.

Similarly, while lack of state-provided finances accompanying the regulations impinged on implementation in a generally negative way across all three departments and settings, the differing financial resources available to each school again shaped the course of continuing implemen-

tation differentially. In one school, money was used as a tool to enhance implementation of selected PSA stipulations; in another, it delayed but did not completely prevent implementation of certain curricular and physical facilities regulations; in the third, lack of financial resources and diminishing revenues did obstruct efforts to continue work implementation and negated earlier changes which had been made.

That the relationship between lack of finances and lack of implementation was not necessarily straightforward, however, was obvious in the following respondent statement:

> . . . let's not lay the problem entirely at the door of money . . . I think it's safe to say that if something is really wanted, the money's there. Yes, it's a poor community, but you know that isn't the whole answer. I don't think you can just sit down and say it's a poor community nothing has been done to implement this because we have no money. It's not that simple.

As this statement indicates, the absence of school-based financial resources did not, by itself, prevent implementation of PSA provisions. Instead, the money available to the school, in interaction with other variables such as school priorities, apparently shaped the continuation (or lack thereof) of PSA-related activities.

Finally, the availability of human resources played a positive role in the two larger schools. That is, the size of both the school's facility and the student body was seen as a boon to efforts to implement the standards. On the other hand, in the smallest school, the limited number of teachers and students hindered or prevented implementation of several curricular standards. For example, one teacher cited the lack of students with the capability to enroll in such PSA-required courses as calculus and finite mathematics as an impediment to implementation of these particular standards.

Procedural Factors

Certain aspects of the PSA procedures, conducted in fairly similar ways in each school, also affected continuing efforts to implement the standards. Among these variables were:

> a) time - the amount and quality of time available to teachers to work on implementing the standards;
> b) organization of implementation activities - the committee structure used to complete PSA-mandated activities;
> c) informational resources - the availability of curriculum models and materials needed to implement varied regulations;
> d) assistance from the State Department of Education (SDE) - technical and procedural advice and information.

It was apparent that the first three of these factors acted in a generally positive way to enhance implementation. It was also apparent, however, that these factors were evanescent; they were available, and helpful, during the initial evaluation year, but disappeared thereafter. Their unavailability during the subsequent time period hindered the continuation of policy-mandated efforts. The impact of the fourth procedural variable, SDE assistance, was seen as negative

throughout the entire implementation period, either as a result of its absence or of its generally unhelpful nature when present.

Attitudinal Factors

Attitudinal factors, as well, played a role in shaping the type and degree of PSA implementation. Certain attitudinal variables appeared to act in a generally negative way, impeding implementation efforts across departments and schools. Among these attitudinal impediments were negative teacher attitudes toward top-down policy making, toward the SDE, and toward change in general. Other attitudinal factors were more variable in their effects on PSA implementation in different schools. The internal politics of the school was one of these. That is, in departments or settings where teachers' attitudes toward one another were positive, this variable was seen as enhancing implementation efforts; the reverse was apparently true in situations where internal politics were characterized as less than salutary. The same was true of teachers' attitudes toward the policy's content. Where there was agreement between policy provisions and internal school or department practices or priorities, implementation of those regulations was facilitated; where lack of such agreement existed, implementation was hindered.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF PSA IMPLEMENTATION

The third research question, focusing on perceived consequences of PSA implementation, yielded data particularly relevant to two school constituencies directly affected by the policy: students and teachers. Although numerous respondents initially asserted that the policy had little or no effect on either group, other comments indicated varied consequences related both to the policy's content and to its goal of inspiring continued improvement in the direction of equally excellent education for all students.

Consequences for Students

With respect to its student beneficiaries, PSA's consequences were seen as substantively limited in content in the sense that implementation itself was substantively limited: respondents most frequently mentioned additional courses and graduation requirements as the primary policy effects for students.

In terms of the policy's goal of the provision of equally excellent education for all students, PSA's consequences were seen as equivocal. Respondents agreed, first, that PSA had considerable consequences for "general", "non-college preparatory", "lower-ability-level" students, and minimal consequences for "college-preparatory", "higher-ability-level" students. Those curricular components and graduation requirements which were added in response to the policy were courses aimed at the former group of students, e.g., practical algebra and geometry, consumer science.

These academic additions, however, were not necessarily envisioned as enhancing educational quality for the "lower-ability" students. Several respondents suggested that the content of the new courses simply constituted repetition of previously presented material. As one respondent bluntly stated, "It's all sixth-grade math put in a different wrapping paper."

The policy's attempt at equality of educational quality was, moreover, seen as having some negative consequences for these same students. A decrease in attendance at vocational programs and a related increase in the dropout rate were forecast as likely consequences during the next two years, as the affected students proceeded into the junior and senior years. Addition of the curricular components intended to benefit the "lower-level" students was also perceived by numerous respondents as exerting negative consequences on the quality of education offered to "higher-level" students. As one interviewee stated, "...as usual, the honors students are the ones that get the raw end of the deal."

Consequences for Teachers

In a similar way, the content-related consequences for teachers centered on the necessity to develop or teach added curricular components, and in certain instances, increased class loads. PSA was generally seen as exerting no effect on classroom procedures or instructional practices.

For teachers, policy consequences with respect to the inspiration of continued work on improvement in the direction of equally excellent education for all were also seen as questionable. While a positive consequence of engaging in the PSA evaluation procedure was increased communication with colleagues on improvement issues, heightened communication apparently disappeared with the end of the procedures. Subsequently, the need to devote scarce time and resources to continuing implementation of the policy was seen, instead, as exerting negative effects on teachers' efforts to improve education, e.g., diverting time away from class preparation and instruction, diverting financial resources away from curricular materials and salary enhancement for teachers.

STATE POLICY MAKING ROLES

Teachers envisioned five educational policy making roles for state government. Two of these reflected functions traditionally fulfilled by the state: regulator and financier. The study's respondents acknowledged a state responsibility for setting minimum standards in such areas as curriculum content and graduation requirements, teacher certification, and health and safety matters. In addition, they proposed that the state should develop both sources of educational funding and equitable means of revenue distribution.

Respondents premised their recommendations for this first group of state policy making roles upon considerations of educational equity, which they viewed as an important responsibility of state government.

The second group of roles suggested by teachers was less reflective of the existing reality of state educational policy making. Respondents proposed, first, that the state should function as an educator, with respect to two different constituencies: the general public and practicing and prospective teachers. In addition, they recommended that the state fulfill a facilitating role, enhancing linkages among schools and professionals. Finally, they envisioned the state as their collaborator, working with and through schools and practitioners. This second set of state roles, according to respondents, was generally characterized by shared state-school responsibility and was essential for the development of school improvement efforts.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on this study of the Public School Approval Policy of Vermont, three general conclusions seem warranted:

1. The extent of implementation of PSA was a function of a) the content and procedures contained in the policy, acting as a dependent variable, and b) numerous "independent variables" acting in the organizational and policy environment in which PSA was implemented.
2. Policy makers did not know or did not act in accord with a user perspective of the policy environment of local schools.
3. Public School Approval, as a state policy, lacked validity, i.e., policy theory did not link intention with implementation.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It has been nearly two decades since Berman (1978) reported his study of federal policy implementation, yet the results of this study match his findings in important respects. Policy was in some cases not implemented at all, in other instances it was coopted for the district's own ends, and in still others, the policy was adapted. This finding is also consistent with what Bardach (1977) called "implementation games", one of which was the deflection of policies which implementors chose not to implement. Those successful instances in which implementation did take place largely as specified, found in PSA but not in Berman, were either school projects which coincided with state goals, or regulations which were difficult to circumvent, given their high political profile.

The usual conception of implementation is that the force itself, as an expression of legislative requirement, overrides the wishes of those who are employed or contracted to implement it. But, as Van Horn and Van Meter (1976) point out, the independent variables in policymaking can be directly tied to the subtle but real power of the implementation process. Though this latter conception runs contrary to the normal way in which policy is conceived, this research clearly pointed up policy as the dependent variable in implementation.

In this study, the independent variables which proved crucial to implementation were financial and human resources, communication within implementing districts, local leadership, and dispositions toward the policy among the implementors.[1] All of these would have been predicted by the theoretical model constructed by Van Horn and Van Meter, and were clearly sufficient reason for the dwarfed and truncated implementation of PSA. In addition, the PSA policy, as implemented, provided virtually no helpful technical assistance from the state.[2] Each of these independent variables is worthy of consideration, but it is the broad concept of policy validity which we have chosen to discuss, as it cuts across all variables and is not dealt with extensively in the literature.[3]

In this study there were two types of validity which affected the outcome. This first concerned the inability of the policy to elicit the behaviors necessary for successful implementation from the implementors. The policy was inattentive to the motives of the implementors to do more than implement the letter of the policy, and not even that if they did not have to. Indeed, the only real motive for meeting the spirit of PSA was in the case of a coincidence of goals between state policy and what the local was already doing, or trying to do. If the local was already taking action which was in accord with the policy, there was obviously no need for added motivation — i.e., the policy. In cases where PSA gave the locals "clout" to move ahead on their own agenda, it was clearly helpful, at least politically means. But in this case, as well, no added incentive was really needed, only the political And, as above, there was no valid claim for promulgating the policy simply beyond establishing standards. That is, state law alone would seem to have been sufficient, with little need for the elaborations of PSA procedures which, in the view of users, caused unwelcome and dysfunctional interruptions in their efforts to teach the children. In short, the policy, as promulgated, at best was vaguely connected to school improvement, and at worst was a detriment in leaving useless policy junk, in the form of diverted energy and interest and piles of paper, at the schoolhouse door.

The second type of validity which caused a major problem in PSA was its lack of causal or predictive validity. A policy must demonstrate some degree of cause-effect relationship between the problem implied or specified by the policy and the resolution which the policy mandates. The "problem" as addressed by PSA was seen primarily as a lack of quality and equity in the schools of Vermont. The policy directed that new courses be added, curriculum and some instructional practices be reviewed and facilities be upgraded, among other things. Form the policy literature (Schon, 1987, 1983) and as viewed by practitioners in our research only partially valid in the relationship of these things to equity and was largely invalid in their effects on quality. In a word, it is safe to say that the policy simply lacked efficacy.

Though not demonstrated explicitly in this study, we suspect that there was also a policy maker oversight concerning a more theoretical predictive validity associated with implementation theory and organizational development research. There is ample scholarship in these areas (Schon, 1987, 1983; Sergiovanni, 1987; Sirotnik, 1987; Adams, 1984; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Burns, 1979; Murphy, 1974) which suggests that the most important resource of any organization is its people and that the way in which they are treated is key in improvement efforts. PSA focused on standards and procedures, not people, apparently in the belief that local educators had the capacity but lacked the willingness to improve (Schon, 1971). If these were the conditions, a compliance relationship is arguably appropriate.[4] But we have serious doubts that the implicit, but it should have been, given its emphasis in both the implementation and organizational literature and its potential consequences for PSA implementation.

There remains then a dual but interactive validity problem for PSA. The content and procedures were neither logically explicated nor did they make sense to the users as a means of improvement. Simply put, the policy lacked predictive validity in that means and ends were not well connected. PSA also lacked process validity in that it did not provide a motivation for

teachers and principals to implement it. Our contention, based on this study, is that an education policy needs to have both types of validity in order to be effective.
The policy content must make sense, and it must contain a reasonable strategy for carrying it out. In the case of PSA, we would speculate that, on the basis of the incremental change required, the policy intent and the strong literature base which focuses on people as the source of change, if resources were provided directly to teachers to improve the quality of education, much would have been accomplished (ECS, 1985). The difference between the PSA policy and our speculation is enormous: *compliance* with behavior sought by the state, as distinguished from *incentives* to improve in ways meaningful to the implementors and to the intent of the policy. From prior research it is more than just hypothesis that state policy can be useful in school improvement, but pursued in the manner of PSA, and so many of the state reform initiatives of the 1980's, it is so much junk, cluttering up local school yards.

Notes

[1] Some research suggests that how a policy is perceived, favorably or unfavorably, prior to its implementation is an important determinant of the assessment of the policy after its implementation. See Mazmanian and Sabatier.

[2]Murphy (1974) found in his study of state departments of education that inadequate attention was given to the upgrading of personnel in the departments, a factor which contributed to the muted effect of policy.

[3] We recognize that this limits the analysis in important ways; a political perspective may have been taken, for example, which could dismember this analysis altogether if the motive and "real" purpose of PSA was to put in place a high profile effort either to justify the existence of the State Department of Education or, as is sometimes held, for purposes of seeking financial assistance for the schools. In other words, the assumption which we have made in the analysis which follows is that PSA was enacted for the primary purpose of improving schools.

[4]Proulx (1987) found that teachers were most willing to improve, but saw PSA more as busywork than an opportunity to learn.

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The International Society For Educational Planning
Secretary-Treasurer's Report
1986 - 1987

This year ISEP carried forward surpluses from 1986-1987 of approximately $900. This reflects a pro-rata reduction to cover expenses in extending our fiscal year through December. This additional amount of $1,500 brings the surpluses for the year to about $2,400. We bring forward a balance from the start of the year of $1,427 which will see us with $2,300 at the start of 1988. Much of this is due to the fine work at the last conference by the Washington, D.C. group.

It is of interest to note that we are within $600 of being self-sustaining, i.e., only 18 additional memberships! This is an important number. The support from The University of Alabama will end in October of 1988, at which time ISEP membership must have increased by 18 members if we are to stay in the black.

At this time, we are generating $14,467 as compared to $11,157 for last year. This is about a 30 percent gain. In 1983 the budget was $4,500. In five years, the activity of ISEP has expanded 221 percent.

Educational Planning remains an issue behind our scheduled publication dates. Hopefully, this will be corrected in the next nine months. The Journal is now abstracted in the Current Index to Journals in Education and in Education Administration Abstracts. The editors have expressed some concern regarding the membership not taking full advantage of the potential for publishing which *Educational Planning* provides. If you have something to say or an idea on planning, send it along. Practical, field-based manuscripts are especially well received; and, if you have doubts regarding writing ability, then note that there are five editors to help with an item. Book reviews and letters are also needed.

This has been a good year for the Society. With the constitutional revision and the Futures Report, it is clear that the board is committed to continuing this past productive effort. With your continued support, the forthcoming year will be our best.

Robert H. Beach
Secretary-Treasurer

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The following positions will be filled at the General Business Meeting during the annual conference at the Driskill Hotel in Austin, Texas (October 9 - 11, 1988):

Officers:
The position now held by:

Mr. Beach - Secretary/Treasurer (Four-Year Term)

Members: (Three-Year Term)

Three positions now held by:

Ms. Harrison
Mr. McInerney
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Nominations for these positions may be made from the floor and/or may be forwarded to the secretary for presentation to the nominations committee.

** Officers elected to new or modified terms as required to meet provisions in the new constitution.

* New Board Member.

Member completing two terms in office and ineligible for nomination to a third consecutive term.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

CONSTITUTION

PREAMBLE

The International Society for Educational Planning is established to encourage and support the increased use of planning in the improvement of education, both in public and private organizations; in local, national, and international agencies; from pre-schools through post-graduate and training institutions; within schools, school districts, states, provinces or territories; and within and between all nations.

ARTICLE I: MISSION

The mission of the International Society for Education Planning (the Society) is to improve education through the application of planning processes. This mission shall include the following statements of the functions of the Society:

To advance the education of humankind through the application of knowledge, resources, and creative abilities of educational planners;

To improve the knowledge, resources and creative abilities of educational planners;

To encourage, support, guide and advance educational research and evaluation cooperatively with educational planning;

To support and assist educational institutions in the establishment and improvement of organizational entities, activities, and programs which enhance the effectiveness of educational planning;

To enlarge the vision of educational administrators and the effectiveness of educational programs through knowledge and use of educational planning techniques; and

To improve the educational achievement and feelings of self worth of all students through the planning for and improvement of teaching and learning experiences.

ARTICLE II: MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. Membership in the Society shall be open to all persons who are interested in promoting educational planning and who request membership in the Society.

Section 2. Membership shall not be denied on the basis of nationality, race, creed, religion, gender, sexual orientation, or public or private educational affiliation.

Section 3. Membership shall be granted to each person or institution who has paid dues as defined in the bylaws.

Section 4. Membership shall include the right to vote as described in the bylaws.

Section 5. Membership may be denied only as provided in the bylaws, which may not violate Section 2 above.

ARTICLE III: OFFICERS

Section 1. Officers in the Society must be members of the Society and shall consist of a President, Vice-President and Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. Officers shall be elected by a majority of the membership using the process defined in the bylaws.

Section 3. Officers shall be Established or Ex Officio Members of the Board of Directors.

Section 4. Officers shall serve a term in office as provided in the bylaws.

Section 5 . The President shall preside at all meetings of the Society and the Board of Directors.

Section 6. The Vice-President, in the absence of the President, shall preside and have all the powers of the President.

Section 7. The Secretary-Treasurer shall keep appropriate records of the Annual Conference, as defined in the bylaws, and other meetings of the Society and the Board of Directors.

The Secretary-Treasurer shall have custody of all funds and properties of the Society, shall present an annual report and balance sheet to the Board at the Annual Conference, and shall maintain all records in good order.

ARTICLE IV: BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Section 1. The activities of the Society shall be governed by the Board of Directors (the Board).

Section 2. A member of the Board must be a member of the Society.

Section 3. The Board of Directors shall consist of twelve Established Members of the Board,

Officers who may serve as Ex Officio Members of the Board, and Chairpersons of the standing committees who serve as Ex Officio Members of the Board. Voting members shall be Established Members of the Board and Officers.

Section 4. Established Members of the Board of Directors shall serve terms as specified in the bylaws.

Section 5. The Board shall report annually to the membership on the general state of the Society and administrative actions taken since the last report to the Society.

Section 6. The Board shall appoint the members of and assign the duties to standing and ad hoc committees, as provided in the bylaws.

ARTICLE V: CHAPTERS OF THE SOCIETY

Section 1. Chapters of the Society may be established on a state, regional, national or international basis as provided in the bylaws.

ARTICLE VI: FINANCES

Section 1. Each member of the Society shall pay dues as provided in the bylaws.

Section 2. The Board of Directors shall require an annual budget and annual audits for the fiscal year to be established from January 1 to December 31, inclusive, in each calendar year.

Section 3. The Society shall not engage in any activity which is not educational, scientific or charitable within the meaning of Section 501(C) (3) of the 1954 U. S. Internal Revenue Code, and on dissolution of the Society, its assets shall be distributed to an organization operated for similar education, scientific or charitable purposes. No part of the income or principal of the Society shall inure to the benefit of or be distributed to any member, Director or Officer or any other private individual. No substantial part of the activities of the Society shall be the carrying on of propaganda or otherwise attempting to infuence legislation.

ARTICLE VII: AMENDMENT

Section 1. Amendments to this Constitution may be proposed to the Board of Directors by petition signed by no fewer than twenty members. Proposed amendments shall be published and provided to members at least one month prior to the Annual Conference. A proposed amendment shall be adopted upon a vote of two-thirds of the members present and voting at the Annual Business Meeting.

Section 2. Bylaws to this Constitution may be proposed, passed, repealed, or modified by a two-thirds vote of members present and voting at the Annual Business Meeting.

ARTICLE VIII: EFFECTIVE DATE

Section 1. This Constitution shall be effective upon approval by a two-thirds majority vote of members present and voting at the Annual Business Meeting to be held in autumn 1987.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

BYLAWS

1. Membership Dues

(a) A person is considered a member only if dues for that membership year have been paid.

(b) All dues shall be payable by the first of January of each year and convey membership until the thirty-first of December of that year.

(c) Each member shall pay annual dues of an amount determined by the Board.

(d) The Board may establish different rates for dues to take into account the following categories only: (i) professional membership; (ii) student membership, for which any student who is enrolled in an accredited institution at least one half time is eligible; (iii) emeritus membership; (iv) chapter affiliation and membership; and (v) institutional membership, which shall include any corporation, organization or educational institution.

2. Voting Rights

(a) Each professional, student, or emeritus member shall have one vote.

3. Denial of Membership

(a) Membership may be denied for conduct which is inconsistent with the purposes of the Society as stated in the Preamble and Mission of this Constitution.

Membership may be denied only upon the vote of two-thirds of the Board Members at a meeting of the Board for which a quorum of nine Established Board Members shall be required.

The person or chapter or institution being considered for denial of membership must be notified in writing prior to the meeting of the Board of Directors, be advised of the conduct for which

the membership denial action is being taken, and be given an opportunity to present at the meeting a defense or denial of the conduct under question.

A person, chapter, or institution denied membership by the Board of Directors shall have the right to written appeal at the next Annual Business Meeting. The general membership of the Society may reinstate the member by a two-thirds majority vote.

(b) Membership may be denied for non-payment of dues providing a period of six months has elapsed. Once the dues have lapsed, the member is not eligible to receive the journal of the Society.

4. Election of Officers

(a) Persons to be nominated or appointed as Officers must be Members of the Society.

(b) Officers are to be elected by a majority of members present at the Annual Business Meeting of the Society.

If an annual meeting is not held, election of officers shall occur by members being provided ballots and voting by mail. The Board shall be responsible for counting the votes, and shall be prepared to present evidence to substantiate the final count.

(c) Candidates for office shall be nominated by the Board of Directors. An ad hoc committee of at least three persons shall be appointed by the President with approval of the Board to recommend persons for nomination to the Board. Nominations may be received from the floor at the Annual Business meeting or as write-in candidates if balloting is conducted by mail.

5. Term of Office

(a) The President and Vice-President beginning with the election in autumn 1987 shall be elected for coterminous terms of two years.

(b) The President may not serve a second consecutive term in office.

(c) The immediate Past President shall be an Ex Officio Member of the Board for a term of two years.

(d) The Secretary-Treasurer shall be elected for a term of one year, beginning in the autumn of 1987. Beginning in the autumn of 1988, the Secretary-Treasurer shall be elected for a term of four years, and shall not consecutively serve more than two terms of office.

(e) A vacancy in the position of President shall be filled by the Vice-President.

(f) A vacancy in the positions of Vice-President or Secretary-Treasurer may be filled by a Member of the Society appointed by the President to serve until the next annual election.

(g) Elected Officers shall assume office following the last general meeting of the Annual Conference.

6. Meetings

(a) The Society shall hold a conference, known as the Annual Conference, once per year. The time and place of the Annual Conference shall be established by the Board.

(b) The Board shall notify the membership of the time and place of all meetings of the Society, including the Annual Conference, at least three weeks prior to the meeting or Conference.

(c) A quorum for conducting the business of the Society at meetings of the Society shall be twenty members.

(d) The Annual Business Meeting of the Society shall be held during the Annual Conference.

(e) The Board shall meet at least once during the Annual Conference.

(f) A quorum for a meeting of the Board shall be seven Established Members.

(g) Additional meetings of the Board and Society may be held between Annual Conferences as determined by the Board.

8. Standing Committees

(a) Standing Committees shall consist of: (i) Publications and Editorial Board; (ii) International Expansion; (iii) Membership; and (iv) Finance.

(b) A Chairperson and two or more members of each Standing Committee shall be appointed by the Board to serve a one-year term.

(c) The Publications and Editorial Board Committee shall be responsible for all publications of the Society.

(d) The International Expansion Committee shall be responsible for providing direction to the Society for increasing the participation in the Society of citizens of many countries.

(e) The Membership Committee shall be responsible for providing direction to the Society for increasing Society membership.

(f) The Finance Committee shall be responsible for developing an annual budget and providing for an audit.

(g) The chairs of standing committees who are not Officers or Established Board Members shall serve as Ex Officio, non-voting members of the Board.

9. Ad Hoc Committees

(a) Ad Hoc Committees may be appointed by the President to serve purposes as determined by the Board at the time of appointment.

(b) The Chairperson and two or more members of each Ad Hoc Committee shall serve a period of time as determined by the President.

(c) The Chairperson of an Ad Hoc Committee shall not be considered to be a Member of the Board of Directors.

10. Chapter Affiliations

(a) Acceptance of a petition to become a Chapter of the Society must be approved by a two-thirds majority of the Board of Directors.

(b) A Chapter of the Society must represent a geographically distinct region of the world, such as a state, district, province, region, nation, or a group of nations.

(c) A Chapter must abide by the Constitution and Bylaws, and may amend the Bylaws only upon approval from the Board of the Society.

(d) A Chapter must have an initial membership of at least ten persons.

(e) A Chapter must organize according to the model of the Society except that only eight person must be on the Board of Directors. A President, Vice-President, Secretary-Treasurer and Chairpersons of the Standing Committees shall be appointed and/or elected according to the Bylaws of the Constitution.

(f) Membership fees of the Chapter to the Society shall be established by the Board and shall be sufficient to cover the cost of all postage of letters, mailings, and Society publications to the Chapter members.

(g) The Chapter may establish membership fees as determined by the Chapter Board of Directors. These fees must be inclusive of the Society Membership fee which shall be paid to the Society.

(h) Members of a Chapter of the Society shall have the full rights and responsibilities of a member of the Society.

11. Publications

(a) The Society shall publish a journal on a quarterly basis.

(b) The journal shall be entitled ***Educational Planning.***

Invitation To Submit Manuscripts

The editors of ***Educational Planning***, a referred journal of educational planning issues, invite the submission of original manuscripts for publication consideration. ***Educational Planning*** is the official journal of the International Society for Educational Planning.

The journal's audience includes national and provincial/state planners, university faculty members of educational administration, school district administrators and planners, and other practitioners.

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

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

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

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

Please submit manuscripts to:

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

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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(PLEASE PRINT)

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Organization and Department if applicable: _____

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City State Zip Country

FEES: Professional Membership and Subscription to Educational Planning $35 US
Student Membership and Subscription to Educational Planning $15 US
Payment by check, money order, or PO required with application.

Return membership application and payment to: The International Society for Educational Planning (ISEP)
Dr. Robert H. Beach - Treasurer
The University of Alabama
P.O. Box Q
Tuscaloosa, AL 35487
USA

NOTES

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:  Dr. Robert H. Beach, Treasurer The University of Alabama Post Office Box Q 204 Wilson Hall Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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