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EDUCATIONAL

PLANNING

ARTICLES

A LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT

As I write my first ISEP President's Letter, I have several good thoughts and feelings. Foremost, I am grateful to follow the leadership of George Crawford who guided ISEP for several years of transition, growth, and renewal. I see a bright future for the Society as exemplified by the quality of our journal and by the upcoming publication of a planning book developed by Bob Carlson and Gary Awkerman. Our people resources offer us great hope as more members are joining us from regional laboratories, consulting firms, overseas nations and state and local school planners.

The annual conference was once again ISEP's flagship event. The Denver Committee headed by Shirley McCune, George Crawford, and their fellow committee members was an excellent conference in all respects. Ray Bouchillon is hard at work planning the next conference for Atlanta in October. I look forward to seeing our members there.

Sincerely,
Ken Ducote
President, ISEP

NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

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Laura S. Weintraub is completing doctoral studies at OISE, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. She has been a supporter of ISEP since 1980.

LETTERS

To the Editor:

A few weeks back I was discussing the problems one faces when assessing the needs of large and nationally dispersed audiences with a West Coast colleague. During this conversation she discussed your recently published article by Laura Weintraub, "'We Don't Need No Ejikay-shun': Needs Assessment Reassessed." I must have registered disbelief at some of the information which she purported the article to contain, for she suggested that I read it for myself.

Having reviewed the article, I must register disbelief with the author's naive verbosity. I was particularly insulted by the comparisons of work in needs assessment to the Nazi party and the head of the Reich Railways Department. Had Ms. Weintraub spent a bit more time going into greater depth with her article and less time using readily available references, she would have discovered that Dr. Kaufman fathered the field of Needs Assessment from the rather sketchy, but all-inclusive, field of "Systems Analysis" of the early '50s. Many in the field who are vitally concerned with the assessment of large audiences view Dr. Kaufman's pioneering work as indispensable to the field of Needs Assessment.

Perhaps Ms. Weintraub would like to consider one of Einstein's laws as a subject for future review—at first glance they too are difficult to comprehend.

Sincerely,
William R. Deutsch, Ed.D.

ERRATUM

The names of Dr. Susan Purser and Dr. John Crawford were reversed in the article titled "Perspectives on School-Based Planning," which appeared in Issue 7.2. Dr. Purser's name should have appeared first. The editors regret the mistake.

ANNOUNCEMENT

As part of the work to update some of my earlier research in needs assessment, I am doing an exploratory survey of the state of the art in *interagency planning*. If any readers have had experience with school-system/city or other agency joint needs assessment and/or planning, within the last 10 years, I would appreciate being notified. If you have not been personally involved in such a joint venture, but know another district that has, please let me know. I am also interested in such joint ventures by institutions of higher education, or county or state agencies.

Please write me at 201 Union Ave. SE, #132, Renton, WA 98056 or call (206) 271-1721.

Belle Ruth Witkin

PLANNING AND THE CULT OF POSITIVISM: A NEEDS ASSESSMENT REJOINDER

Laura S. Weintraub

Editors' Note: In Issue 6.4, Educational Planning published an article titled "'We Don't Need No Ejikayshun': Needs Assessment Reassessed," by Laura S. Weintraub. Responses to the article were quick in coming. Letters by Belle Ruth Witkin and Roger Kaufman appeared in Issue 7.2; a letter by William R. Deutsch is printed in this issue (above). In the following, Ms. Weintraub presents her response to concerns outlined in the letters. She begins with a consideration of the nature and terms of academic debate:

I. On Debate

Two recent reviews of Max Dublin's *Futurehype: The Tyranny of Prophecy*[1] posit contrary claims about the merits of his book. One reviewer is critical of "Dublin's failure to seriously address the subject of futurology, either in the case study chapters, 'futurehype' in the military, education and health care, or in the more philosophical chapters looking at the psychology and ideology of futurology."[2] The second review lauds the same work and its attack on the modern secular prophets who have, "by imitating scientific method and techniques and even language, divorced prophecy from its traditional ethical impulse," futurology which, "according to Dublin, derives from a deep desire to preserve and consolidate the status quo."[3] While some might object to my consideration of sources beyond the narrowest confines of academe or for having the temerity to call upon Canadian authors, I suggest that what is engaging about the reviews cited above is their authors' abilities to trade in ideas, to respond to the argument at the centre of Dublin's study and, in the case of the first reviewer, to maintain a focus on these central ideas despite the fact that Dublin presents a critique of the very genre that the reviewer herself utilizes in her own published work on technocracy.

The distinction between critique and ad hominem comment is thoughtfully considered by T.B. Greenfield: "If scholarship is to be maintained when such conflicts arise, the aim of the editors and authors alike must be to ensure that it is the texts that are in conflict, not the authors as persons."[4] Greenfield does not argue against reasoned contention—the "clash of ideas should not be restrained or politely muted"[5]—but rather in favour of vigorous intellectual exchange. O'Brien presents a similar argument from a different perspective: "Perhaps what passion and scholarship have in common is context: passion never occurs in a vacuum—passion is passion *for* something—and neither does scholarship occur in a vacuum, all protestants of objectivity notwithstanding."[6]

I freely admit that when invited by the editors of *Educational Planning* to respond to the three correspondents' *ad feminam* sentiments I was tempted merely to correct their misreadings, nod at their understandable defense of established needs assessment methods and, instead of reiterating my central ideas, refer the letter-writers to a line by the Canadian poet Leonard Cohen: "They sentenced me to twenty years of boredom/ For trying to change the system from within."[7]

However, reconsideration of the Greenfield and O'Brien arguments has enticed me into attempting to identify the unarticulated or half-formulated concepts underlying the correspondents' objections, and to respond to their assumptions, as best as these can be teased out from

their hiding places. But first let us set aside some of the niceties that they raise.

II. On Niceties

Did I inaccurately cite one publication date, writing 1977 instead of 1979? Yes. Did I draw upon "secondary" (i.e. Witkin) as well as "primary" (i.e. Kaufman) sources? Yes, although if secondary sources are now reduced to secondary status and banned from the pages of academic literature at the request of "long-standing ISEP supporters," then perhaps this rather novel standard for judging scholarly work should be stated clearly in editorial policy. Are several endnotes misnumbered? Yes, and other minor misprints, apparently unnoticed by the correspondents, appeared both in the text and the notes. I gather that authors are now responsible for typesetting errors despite lack of access to the galleys and despite the obvious fact that misprints are as annoying to writers as they are to readers.

Are there additional objections of this nature? Yes. As I failed to *label* categories of dentists, instead of merely differentiating between sub-specialists, I immediately offer correction: those who remove cavities are properly called dental surgeons, while those who straighten teeth are known as orthodontists. I did not, however, "confuse" the reporting and endorsement of models, but rather questioned inaccuracies in the description of models and the unsupported claims about those models. Nor, if we are considering accuracy, did I argue to do away with dentists. There seems to be some difficulty in understanding argument by analogy but perhaps a different comparison will assist. Although critics of traditional special education frameworks argue that the medical model is an inappropriate metaphor and may actually interfere, conceptually, with successful service delivery, it is illogical for their opponents to claim that critics don't want anybody to see doctors. Similarly, although a critic of traditional needs assessment models has argued that the dental model with its metaphor of cavities and gaps is also inappropriate, it is illogical to claim that such a critic wishes to do away with dentists.

Did I "interpolate" Witkin's description of summative evaluation as *Witkin's* allusion to Lot's wife? The allusion to Idith is obviously my own. Did I, as Witkin claims, fail to look at the mainstream needs assessment literature beyond 1977? A simple scan of my bibliography establishes that I did indeed cite more recent works, including a 1985 editorial by Kaufman, and a 1984 book on the subject by Witkin herself, adequate currency, I would imagine, for a paper written and delivered in 1985 although not published until 1988. If I neglected to refer to Kaufman's and Witkin's "new definitions and models" in their most recently published works then I for one am pleased to learn of their reconsideration of the very analyses that I critiqued. Neither Kaufman nor Witkin articulate, document or even hint at what aspects of their own work they have revised, repudiated and/or maintained, yet surely this information would be of value to readers evaluating the merits of the needs assessment arguments and to those committed, in Kaufman's words, to "well-considered and well-grounded presentations." This type of failure to address directly the substance of the article under debate, substituting instead heated accusations about the works cited, and non-argued attacks on the interpretations provided, stand as vivid examples of Greenfield's caution:[8]

> Perhaps some social scientists already know and acknowledge the limitations of their knowledge as truth. But to the many more schooled in the liberal tradition of science as an accumulation of evolving truth about the world at large, I suspect it comes as a shock to think that what they assert as truth rests as firmly upon the values they hold as upon the facts they observe.

Further consideration of the nature of the correspondents' paradigm shock will be addressed shortly. Here, in responding to the pettier of the complaints printed, I finally acknowledge that I did actually cite one mimeographed paper (and explain its context in addition to recording, in my bibliography, the absence of publication date) among the twenty-five other references also cited. If I follow Witkin's advice I must necessarily offend Deutsch, who contrarily advises that I consume "less time using readily available references." Perhaps the truly scholarly compromise (for Kaufman) is to include the occasional obscure (for Deutsch) but non-mimeographed (for Witkin) reference in future publications.

But are there implied or perhaps subtextual objections to the types of references that informed my original article? Are there, beyond the niceties, substantive concerns about the legitimacy of remarking on "popular culture" and planning texts of contemporary or historical periods? Is there, perhaps, a serious suggestion that writers who stray from or repudiate the dominant social sciences ideology in the planning field thereby forfeit claim to "scholarship"?

III. On Scholarship

Misdemeanours set aside, then, let us turn to the crimes. I could discern four objections implicit if not fully articulated in the reactions to my article and, since these represent arguments meriting more serious consideration, I will respond to each in turn. The four substantive areas of contention are (1) objections to my quotations and use of transcript material from *Shoah*; (2) the aforementioned paradigm shock; (3) the tensions between claims for needs assessment's humanistic participation versus claims for the "conscript client," and (4) the values and—if I may actually use the term in a planning journal—political implications arising from attachment to any given paradigm.

Although Deutsch was the only writer to use the word "insult," it is apparent that all three respondents took great exception to my discussion of the planner in charge of one district of the Nazi Reich Railways Department, and to my inclusion of the *verbatim* transcript of Stier's rationale for his contributions to the German war effort. First let me clarify what I did not state. I did not argue, as Witkin inexplicably claims, that planners, administrators or anyone else for that matter be put "on the next train for Treblinka." Nor did I compare "educational planners to the monsters of the Holocaust who sent the trains to Treblinka." Nor, apparent impact to the contrary, did I intend to insult.

What I did intend was to raise a cluster of serious questions, questions that remain unaddressed by the correspondents and that I restate here. What are the origins of thought that permit us to so readily separate efficiency from impact, technology from its uses, the powerful from the weak, the planner from the planned, the expert from the ignorant, the rulers from the ruled, the adult from the child and, ultimately, the self from the other? When we permit these separations to permeate our mundane worlds of work and daily existence, what powers do the ideological dualisms that we hold let loose? How can we struggle to a closer understanding of the uneventful participation by countless in the very destruction of countless? Do we, as administrators, as planners, as educators, as academics, as women and men, have nothing but a willful silence to contribute to these questions? My critique was a forthright examination of the very real dangers inherent in a blithe acceptance of the mundane ideologies of efficiency and technocratic supremacy that are far too commonplace in the educational planning and, more specifically, needs assessment literature.

Does this mean I argue that we as planners are to be shipped to death camps or are respon-

sible for Treblinka? It does not. It does mean that on the basis of questions raised about dangerous dualisms, I take exception, for example, to Kaufman's previously cited belief that "[t]echnology has the knowledge and tools to increasingly make politics obsolete as an alternative to rational decision-making .... Technologists, at least our brand, do possess a useful alternative to politics and its let's-do-it-the-way-we-all-agree syndrome."[9] I see danger in the claim for supremacy of technology over politics. I see danger in naming the supremacist claim "rational decision-making." I see danger in distinguishing between "our brand" of technologists versus theirs and therefore ask who is the us, who is the them, and what historical lessons might we heed in pondering such distinctions? And I also see danger in the dismissal of social debate, of social participation, of social agreement premised on debate—in short, dismissal of politics—as "syndrome."

I was, when I wrote the article, mindful that careless reading could cause the long quotation from *Shoah* to be misconstrued. I therefore attempted to prevent any such misinterpretation by stating then that "*I do not claim that those who propound the utility, efficacy and efficiency of needs assessment technology are to be equated with Stiers*, but I do confess alarm when proponents of particular planning techniques uncritically celebrate the alliance of technology and rationality in the name of rendering the syndrome of politics obsolete." I trust that these comments are sufficient to assure the correspondents that insult was not intended but that I do raise questions about the planning field, questions that should, in my opinion, be addressed by those who advocate the vanquishing of politics by technology and who christen this conquest "rationality."

There is, however, another criticism to be considered here although it is not a concern raised by others, but rather my own internal debate about the legitimacy of calling forth the words of those who staffed the Reich even when one is attempting to understand how ordinary employers and employees, professionals and specialists, planners and educators, administrators and bureaucrats, could have become so enmeshed in the industries of lucrative atrocity. Here I am referring to the eloquent considerations by artists such as George Steiner who plead for silence in the face of the unimaginable, who argue that since we will never successfully comprehend what occurred, we can only set it aside by our silence.[10] Steiner himself of course broke his own command when he wrote *The Portage to San Cristobal of A.H.*, but there is still great power in his argument for silence, one that I have not resolved in my own mind.

There is also a body of debate that more specifically addresses Claude Lanzmann's work *Shoah*, including a recent argument by Ron Burnett:[11]

> . . . for every film which attempts to assert historical truth another can use the same techniques to turn the truth upside down. *Shoah* is caught by all of the phantasms which it is trying to unmask and would have perhaps been more significant as a film if it had confronted the way those phantasms govern historical discourse rather than trying to reveal how they must be eliminated.

Again, I have not yet determined whether or not I agree with Burnett's assessment, but the correspondents' reflections contribute nothing to this determination. Is the objection to my quotation from *Shoah* premised on ideas similar to Steiner's or, perhaps, more closely aligned with Burnett's warning of the inevitable and defeating paradox that confronts those who seek to understand human agency in historical events? Are the correspondents perhaps more

attracted to Lucy Dawidowicz's contentions about the origins of state-*planned* slavery and genocide,[12] or are they better convinced by Hannah Arendt's analysis of the origins of totalitarianism and its companionable "banality of evil"?[13] Does the more recent argument by Alice Miller perhaps hold greater sway, with her claim that the roots of planned--*planned*--state violence lie in our everyday practices of childrearing?[14]

Might these debates not affect educational planners? Might these concerns not legitimately interest scholars? Might we not, indeed must we not, give thought to the origins, historical lessons and implications of technology split away from politics, expertise split away from polity? I would contend that if such questions are deemed to be beyond the pale of legitimate scholarship, then we are left with the mere shell of scholarship, its form strictly guarded but its content and meaning annihilated.

Standards of scholarship that preclude the freedom to enquire into sweeping claims about the imputed democratic nature of (for example) needs assessment are simply standards for the inherently conservative defense of what is. The prohibition against even raising the issues I examined in my earlier article is particularly ironic given Kaufman's published statement that "almost anything may be changed and questioned," that needs assessment defends "no sacred cows."[15] Readers may recall that I have already cited Greenfield's argument in favour of clarity about our moral judgments, but the quotation bears reemphasis here:[16]

> Administrative Science has too often yielded to the temptation of power and desired to wield it, not just to study it. Those who stand close to sovereign powers readily find reason to assist them .... The new science of administration must be free to talk about the values that power serves, but free it cannot be if it is closely dependent upon the Sovereign. To escape that dependency, the new science should abjure those activities that are most likely to endear it to the Sovereign—recognizing that the Sovereign, like the Devil, can take many forms.

The defense of rationality located in Kaufman's editorial on means and ends is also directly related to the second substantive area of contention. We are thus led to a consideration of epistemology, of the relationship between method and methodology, of the existence—no matter how shocking or offensive that presence might be—of alternatives to the dominant social sciences paradigm.

There is indeed intellectual life beyond positivism. While the signs of such life are too rarely evident in the educational planning literature, fundamental and quite interesting debates abound elsewhere in social science, research, education and philosophy publications that raise quite legitimate and scholarly questions about the ideology of objectivity and the awkward non-logic that mars argument when the ideological basis of objectivity is cloaked as the one acknowledged reality. Perhaps phenomenology addresses this issue most robustly, while the critical paradigm shows evidence of ambivalence or at least internal divide and feminist theories of epistemology are, postmodernism aside, most newly emergent, but the point made here is that scholarship does not forbid but rather urges the exploration of divergent paths.

While I do not expect that the mere existence of alternative routes to knowledge would cause those more attracted to positivist modes of thought to abandon their conceptual frameworks in favour of mine, I do expect that those working in the field possess an elementary familiarity with these concepts. That expectation was clearly disappointed by Witkin's small drama, wherein

the character called "He" notifies us that he must "design a rational needs assessment" but then complains that Weintraub's critique "*seemed* to be discussing needs assessment, but not anything I'm familiar with." The design of a rational anything requires more extensive scholarship literacy than is in evidence here, and a good starting point, if I may so suggest, is ensuring basic familiarity with scholarly traditions that are widely respected and readily accessible.[17]

Similarly, Deutsch may be quite accurate in ascribing needs assessment paternity to Kaufman, but the former is discussing apples and apples while pretending that some of these are oranges. To father a positivist model of needs assessment from the positivist origins of systems analysis may indeed have clarified a previously sketchy field, but it hasn't carried us beyond the confines of the cult of efficiency, past the borders of technocracy, away from the limitations of the faithful's belief in objectivity or toward a sharper recognition of Greenfield's tracking of the Sovereign and the Devil. (And no, I am not equating the correspondents or educational planners with either the Sovereign or the Devil, lest someone suddenly be stricken with the need to compose yet another feisty complaint.)

The third issue raised by the correspondents is the claim that needs assessment does indeed reflect "a humanistic partnership model," a claim by Kaufman that contradicts his earlier-cited disdain for the "let's-do-it-the-way-we-all-agree syndrome."[18] The only way out of this contradiction is to alter the meaning of humanism so that it whimsically equates with Kaufman's impatient dismissal of politics. "Facts," as Don DeLillo notes,[19] "are lonely things."

I do not wish to belabour this point as my original article was quite clear with regard to a full discussion of Friedenberg's notion of the conscript client and my allusion to the origins of the very concept of client in the historical consolidation of imperial Rome. I also provided many examples offering evidence of problematic claims about whose needs are in fact assessed, and under what rubric. As far as I'm concerned, if employers' labour needs are assessed, let us not pretend this is an assessment of students' educational needs. Is there a relationship between employers' needs for employees and future employees' needs for jobs? You bet. Is there a relationship between the post-secondary education system and the economy? You bet there is. Does that mean we can with any intellectual integrity conflate these needs? I have argued that we cannot defend such conflation through vocabulary sleights of hand known in other circles as disinformation. Here I will only reiterate Friedenberg's definition of the conscript clientele as "persons to whom goods, services and hardware, if any are involved, are delivered; those on whom the praxis gets practiced, whatever its theoretical justification may be."[20]

The final point is not, of course, unrelated to the first three issues already delineated although it appears to be the wild card. I appreciate Witkin's cordial invitation that I join her in combatting "our inability to compete with other countries in science and technology," but just which other countries did she have in mind? Since one of her playlet characters notes that "things are simpler in Canada," Witkin cannot be unaware that I write from the land of snow and Mounties, but perhaps we are so very simple that we are easily confused about what's our country and what's not. I was under the impression, unlike our current Prime Minister, that Canada and the United States are actually two separate countries, and therefore wonder why I should collaborate in the U.S.'s competition against Canada. In response to the ethnocentric invitation conveyed, I would deem it appropriate to "just say no."

In fact we're even so backward that our administrators and planners are just not at the same cutting edge of progressive anti-racist and industrial health and safety actions that Witkin's dialogue claims about our U.S.A. counterparts. I am afraid, however, that I must decline her

invitation—and not on the basis of any lumbering nationalism, despite my simple-minded fondness for home.

Instead, I extend an alternative invitation, to repudiate this damning talk of global competition, and to consider the possibilities of using science and technology and debate about ethics and even polity in favour of global cooperation. The success of nationally-based competition and sentimental attachment to archaic Prussian-style alliances rely on other nations' miseries (low man on the needs priority totem pole perhaps?) and are fast propelling us, and our planet, to hell in a high-tech handbasket. Now I am not arguing that education planners are to be equated with Bismarck. I am, however, suggesting that from a belief in the one great way to knowledge, truth and victory, we are led to misery disguised as rationality, to ideology disguised as objectivity, to supremacist beliefs disguised as technocracy, to safeguarding the great divide between self and other.

But here we remain, still enmeshed in needs, wishes, desires and now crimes all commingled, just like the "real world" that so interests traditional needs assessors. Further complicating matters, the barbed wire of unacknowledged paradigm borders prevents rather than assists in disentanglement. Perhaps we should confront the rather bleak intellectual landscape that seems to characterize the ideology of objectivity and its fraternal undergirding cult of positivism. When this becomes too depressing a task to sustain for long, I personally am tempted to cheer myself up with recollections of the oddly amusing Westinghouse formula for needs assessment: "Importance Multiplied By Responsibility Divided by Attainment Equals Need." Objective truth is thus verified by the assignation of spurious numerical value, chaos is once again averted, our one great path to knowledge lighted by the lightbulb folks.

Every now and then, however, my amusement flags when I also recollect that GE, also of the lightbulb club, is supplying the nuclear power "needed" to fuel the Galileo space probe and, furthermore, that the misnamed Galileo "needs" to carry 49.25 pounds of lethal plutonium and, one hopes not finally, that we are all remarkably threatened by the two high-speed, low-level "fly-bys" at our planet that the Galileo "needs" to make in 1990 and 1992. I have wondered if GE made use of Brother Westinghouse's formula for scientifically and objectively ascertaining such needs. Maybe I just dozed off over a theoretical treatise on the conscript client when NASA came by to check on my assessment of the essential Galileo. But hey, need is need, rationally determined with the full participation of all involved, and besides, who's ever heard of any of this stuff anyway?

NOTES

1. M. Dublin. *Futurehype: the tyranny of prophecy*. Markham, Ontario: Penguin/Viking, 1989.

2. H. Menzies. The slick hucksters of an uncertain future. *The Globe and Mail*, November 11, 1989. The reviewer's latest book is *Fastforward & out of control* (Toronto: Macmillan, 1989).

3. H.S. Bhabra. A clear view. *The Toronto Star*, November 18, 1989.

4. T.B. Greenfield. Writers and the written: Writers and the self. *Curriculum Inquiry*, (3), 1988, p. 248.

5. Greenfield, *ibid.*, p. 249.

6. M. O'Brien. Feminism as passionate scholarship. In *Reproducing the World: Essays in Feminist Theory* by M. O'Brien. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1989, p. 245.

7. Although the predictive validity of the lyrics would be improved if they were reversed, these lines are from L. Cohen's song "First we take Manhattan, then we take Berlin," on the album *I'm Your Man*. CBS Records Canada Inc., 1988.

8. Greenfield, *ibid.*, p. 252. For further comment on the tendency in academe to prohibit rather than support debate, see T.B. Greenfield's editorial "Trial by what is contrary" in *Curriculum Inquiry*, (1), 1985, pp. 1-6.

9. R. Kaufman. Means and ends: Politics and technologists. *Educational Technology*, 25, May 1985, p. 35.

10. See, for example, the interview with Steiner in *Art out of agony: The Holocaust theme in literature, sculpture and film* by Stephen Lewis (Toronto: Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, 1984), pp. 47-68. For a fascinating and implicit counter-argument, see Yaffa Eliach's introduction to her book *Hasidic tales of the Holocaust* (N.Y.: Vintage, 1982).

11. R. Burnett. Lumiere's revenge. *Border/Lines*, #16, Fall 1989, p. 28. Also, *Neutralizing memory: The Jew in contemporary Poland* by I. Irwin-Zarecka (New Brunswick, New Jersey: Transaction Books, 1989) comments on *Shoah* and its reception when released in Poland.

12. L.S. Dawidowicz. *The war against the Jews 1933-1945*. N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1975. For samples of Third Reich planning documents, *A Holocaust reader*, edited by L.S.Dawidowicz (M.Y.: Behrman House, 1976), is a useful source, as is *The Wannsee Conference*, a recent film by Manfred Korytwoski that recreates a significant 1942 planning meeting held in a Berlin suburb.

13. H. Arendt. *The origins of totalitarianism*. N.Y.: Meridian/World Publishing, 1951/ 1968. See also her much-disputed essay on *Eichmann in Jerusalem: A report on the "banality of evil"* (N.Y.: Viking, 1964).

14. A. Miller. *For your own good: Hidden cruelty in child-rearing and the roots of violence*. Translated by H. and H. Hannum. N.Y.: Farrar, Straus, Giroux, 1984.

15. R. Kaufman. A possible taxonomy of needs assessment. *Educational Technology*, 17 (11), 1977, p. 62. This quotation is discussed in greater depth in my original article pp. 26-28.

16. T.B. Greenfield. The decline and fall of science in educational administration. *Interchange*, 17 (2), 1986, p. 74.

17. Basic introductions include *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis* by G. Burrell and G. Morgan (London: Heinemann, 1979) and *Sociological interpretations of education* by D. Blackledge and B. Hunt (London: Croom Helm, 1985). Related and perhaps more interesting collections of essays may be found in *Beyond method: Strategies for social research* edited by G. Morgan (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1983); in *Knowledge and values in social and educational research*, edited by E. Bredo and W. Feinberg (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1982), and in *Feminism and methodology: Social science issues*, edited by S. Harding (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1987). As for postmodernism, *Forget Foucault (& forget Baudrillard: An interview with S. Lotringer)* by J. Baudrillard (N.Y.: Semiotext(e), Columbia University, 1987) should suffice.

18. R. Kaufman. Means and ends: Politics and technologists. *Educational Technology*, May 1985, p. 35.

19. D. DeLillo. *Libra*. N.Y.: Penguin, 1988, p. 300.

20. E. Z.Friedenberg. *The disposal of liberty and other industrial wastes*. N.Y.: Anchor, 1976, p. 9.

REGIONALIZED SCHOOLING IN BRAZIL
A Proposal and Response

PART ONE:
The Creation of Regionalized Schooling:
Managerial and Organizational Dimensions
of Humanistic Education

Roberto Aparecido Algarte

To address the problem of the creation of a school system which is primarily regional in nature and which is based on the concrete, existential circumstances of human life is, necessarily, to recognize the change process which is occurring in the very concepts of schools and of education.

Today there exists a preoccupation in redefining all of education; rethinking the organizational structure, the instructional practices, and, above all, reinterpreting education as an agency of social change. The idea of redefining the concept and the foundations of education in Brazil has gradually become the source of inspiration for scholars who attempt to publish their thoughts on the new Brazilian social and economic realities. The fragility of the traditional approaches to education, which conceive students as being passive recipients of life and knowledge, has added to the development of this new stance on education.

The pseudo-humanist conceptions that place man as a being unprepared for and unaware of the cultural and psychological conditions necessary for his conscious participation in the world are the basis of an imposing and dominating education which fails to create the opportunity for such a man to participate in the building of his own education. It is the ready and complete wisdom transmitted from one group to another group, characterizing the relationships between the dominators and the dominated, and the ideological diffusion of the first group over the second.

On the other hand, the sociopolitical and economic conceptions which continue to prevail in Brazil also constitute an element of subjugation of the common man—the rural and city workers—forcing on them relationships of total economic and cultural dependence. As long as the owners of the capital maintain control over the means of subsistence of the worker, i.e., salaries, the margins for negotiation between workers and employers remain small. This is largely because man has not yet acquired the full understanding of his historic condition as being exploited and dependent, necessary to begin a profound revision of the domination process. Education has functioned, and continues to function, as a political and ideological instrument of the owners of the capital. Schools have weakened the political participation of the workers, shifting the focus from the true economic and social problems—agrarian reform, health, employment, salaries, living conditions—to the discussion of pedagogical questions related to the transmission of knowledge. Thus the Brazilian schools have been adjusting themselves to the needs of the capitalist labor market, transmitting the values and standards of society divided into classes, in which technocratic rationality is the essence of the education offered to the working class.

All of these conceptions define a social and political picture which, sooner or later, will be

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questioned critically. The popular mass of workers, non-united but in search of their path, maintain hope which will give them the strength to liberate themselves, to express their anguish and their will. This clamor for opportunity is echoed by many voices throughout the country. It is this harmonization of voices which comes from Sao Paulo's labor unions, from Pernambuco's sugar cane harvesters, from migrant laborers, from the cities' homeless, from the Indians, and from women in the labor force. Many intellectuals in the human and social sciences have found the focus of their research in this eloquent awakening of the workers, addressing themselves to understanding the significance of this message being expressed by these communities of workers. This has been a type of rediscovery of the man dialectically integrated with his social habitat. From this point is formed a new conceptualization of education, no longer based on the most pessimistic perspective of man as the author of his own life, spiritually capable of recognizing his values and intrinsic potentialities and culturally prepared to formulate his own plans of action and reaction to change.

In order to examine the implementation of regionalized schooling, it is necessary to consider the entire philosophical foundation of the current educational system, as well as the methodological and pedagogical proposals for a school which is linked to the culture and to the socio-political environment of the community. Moreover, it is necessary to introduce these proposals through a change process in order that it can be instituted synergistically, as a link in a coherent effort to liberate education from the current monolithic practices which characterize it.

The Problem

The concept of developing a more profound study of a type of school which is "of" the region, conceived and administered by its own clients, arose from the realization that there exists a significant discrepancy between the intellectual effort of creating a school based on the consciousness-raising and liberation of the oppressed man and the schools currently offered to this man in all of the geo-economical regions of the country.

The discrepancy or distance between the theoretical conceptualization of the school and existing school practice constitutes a problem of grave proportions, grave because this intellectual effort in search of a humanistic school, geared to man as the agent of his own transformation, is an effort which has been present for some time. When it became apparent that the work force was ready to make itself heard, there is no doubt that this popular attitude arose from the ideas "planted" by intellectuals, by educators and leadership which "with" these workers created a new consciousness of the world, of work, of religion, and of life. It was not only the search for salary increments of a political support to certain candidates which brought thousands of workers to the streets and to the assemblies, but rather the total internal motivation which stimulated them.

What characterizes the problem, then, is the slowness with which these ideas spread and become part of educational praxis. Brazil, since the 1950s, has had educators dedicated to finding, in the daily problems of man, the principles of an educational ideology and the foundations of such schools. Then, why is it that Brazil still does not have such an educational system in place? Not only is such popular education nonexistent, also nonexistent is a regionalized education which might lead to a widespread program of popular education through the creation of the instrumental and ideological conditions for Brazilian education to be truly "popular," or people-based. Even the public school, the only means of access to formal education for the working class, is suffering from serious deterioration. Both the quantitative and qualitative levels of public school are falling so much that even the very transmission of

the subculture imposed by the federal educational organizations is being compromised. Without a question, these elementary and high schools are not promoting knowledge, but rather sterile memorization for standardized exams, tests, and college entrance examinations.

The vision of this problem presents a conflict that must be analyzed and interpreted. On one hand is the quality and scope of the theoretical basis of education, on the other is the inflexibility of the educational system in incorporating the accumulated knowledge and systematizing it in terms of pedagogical actions, administrative practice, and institutional organization.

The inheritance left by scholars of Brazilian education is rich in experiences, rich in utilizing the social values and living conditions of the workers, in the construction of the paths to human liberation and of the awakening to the need for change. As early as 1951 some leading educators gave new dynamics to the Catholic University Youth movement, integrating it with the student movement of the National Student Union. In 1958 the Basic Education Movement appeared in Natal, Rio Grande do Norte, a radio program with deep penetration into the low-income rural population. This program, in addition to the specific educational programs, offered legal advice to the farmers and served as a veritable message and information center of great value to the rural population. During this same time appeared the "Paulo Freire Literacy Method," which began the theoretical-methodological vision of literacy in Brazil. Freire developed the concept of literacy through a new anthropological and sociopolitical view which made the worker's own language and living conditions the parameters for all educational action. His method was the beginning of a path which led to the changes which would occur between employees and employers. Still during this same time period were formed the Popular Cultural Centers and Popular Cultural Movements which sought the construction and valorization of a truly Brazilian culture. The primary idea was that the culture belonged to the entire nation and that all people should have access to it. Part of this discussion involved a differentiation between popular art forms—artisanry and folklore—and the art of the elite—the great works. From this discussion came a movement to reorganize these popular art forms and return them to the elite, as political messages of response and reaction. Many of these cultural movements incorporated literacy campaigns into their programs of theater, music and dance.

Alongside of these movements, the majority of which maintained ties with the populist government of the times, arose some isolated initiatives. One of the most important of these was the campaign by Natal's municipal government: "From contact with the earth, you can also learn to read," which in spite of the voter mobilization reputation it enjoyed, was able to penetrate all quarters of the city, with extensive participation by the people. More recently, in the state of Maranhao, a project entitled Joao de Barro demonstrated the force of a group whose repercussions were felt throughout the region, leading to the expansion of the project, an occurrence which led the Governor, concerned with the level of autonomy and self-sufficiency of the group, to suspend all financial and technical assistance to the project.

Currently there are some isolated experiments that seek to revive these political and methodological practices, calling the people to participate in the planning and the decisions regarding everything that affects them, regardless of how directly or indirectly they are affected. A good example comes from the municipal government of Prudente de Moraes, in the state of Minas Gerais, where the municipal government develops its annual plan, with everyone's participation, each 24th of December, a day on which a large evaluation and replanning meeting is held. "The City of Integration," as Prudente de Moraes has become known, has already been visited by missions from eleven different nations and its experience has been documented by both UNESCO and various national television networks. Another experiment, more linked to

cooperatives, but with the same characteristics of community participation and involvement, is that of Ijui, in the state of Rio Grande do Sul. The Cooperative of COTRIJUI even has its own institute of higher education, and through the combined efforts of all its associates, maintains schools, institutions which assist farmers, and health service agencies.

Without question, the Brazilian experience is using the educational process, and consequently the school, as the path for changes in human relations in general, and especially between employers and employees. It is a concrete fact, well tested in the society. If there exists this societal approval, it is necessary to understand the factors which have impeded, and continue to impede, the consolidation and generalization of these experiences, thus allowing them to change irrevocably the Brazilian educational system.

One of the strongest arguments to explain this problem is the fact that these movements, and primarily those prior to 1964, enjoyed a certain amount of governmental backing, which in one form or another sponsored their work. The moment such movements ceased to be of interest to the central powers, this sponsorship was withdrawn immediately; not only this, they were viewed by the government as fostering ideologies foreign to Brazilian traditions. Once assistance to the movements was withdrawn, they suffered; those which did not die out underwent severe changes, losing the sense of their initial ideology and missions. Another argument, an interpretive one addressing the essence of these movements, suggests that there may have been an overestimation of the value of the educational process as a force in bringing about profound social changes. Bezerra and Brandao (1980) studied this theme and concluded:

> A person who has become literate is not transformed, by learning to read and
> write, into a critical builder of his own destiny, even if this concern has been
> raised through sound instructional practices. (p. 34)

It is true that all of these explanations are pertinent and demonstrate a high degree of understanding of the problem, but the political injunctions which have been imposed on the popular movements and the overestimation of the power of education as a factor in social change do not justify the elimination of this agency, reducing it to a theoretical set of connotations which are politically and operationally unviable. Any process which is begun and which attempts to change the values and standards which govern the relationships between man and his world is subject to errors, unilateral and even radical errors. Nevertheless, through the recognition of these limitations emerges evidence that the difficulties encountered in such movements come more from the fragility of the institutions and their management than from the theoretical foundation which inspired them.

No organizational structure has yet been created which was capable of preparing the coordinators of these movements to be able to monitor and evaluate all their actions. No relevant administrative style has yet been defined for these movements, one which is capable of guiding the work of the theoreticians, community grants, leaders, professors, politicians and all those involved, leading them in a defined direction, with established goals, defined schedules, and negotiated individual and group responsibilities. Much to the contrary, these movements have been composed of volunteers who, moved by the euphoria of popular support and by the promising results of their efforts, have become devoutly dedicated to the public cause. Even considering this faith and conscious will to participate, the educational movements have been at the mercy of such people, the interest of scholars, and of governmental response. Accordingly, these movements have not become permanent fixtures in their communities; when one

of these components of support has been withdrawn, they have entered into decline, gradually reducing their scope to isolated foci, which also soon ceased to exist.

In summary, the arguments which explain the reduced lifespan of popular movements are interesting topics of study; all help to clarify some position of the problem. For this author, however, a great portion of the problem can be attributed to the inadequate foundation of these movements, or to the mere nonexistence of a consistent administrative structure. This obviously does not mean to imply that the problem can be reduced to one of managerial incompetency; the hierarchical structure of school authority is the primary reason for the problem.

The thought of a coherent plan for schools created and recreated "in" the region and "by" the population of that region is tied to the intent to utilize, in an orderly and coordinated manner, the theoretical and methodological basis of the popular education and cultural movements. This does not imply the identification of the dysfunctional points or the presentation of conceptual or operational criticisms of these movements, rather it assumes their philosophical and ideological principles as benchmarks of educational actions and uses these in proposing a set of administrative and organizational practices which are capable of facilitating the implementation of the regionalized school.

This preoccupation is arising currently because Brazil is experiencing an historical movement of singular importance, affording to people ideal political conditions for the "shout" of the working masses to light the way again to a restructuring and organization of Brazilian education. It is essential to clarify that these very same political considerations are more the results of public consciousness and of their participation in the building of a democracy and less because of the position of the politicians, who once again have confirmed their subserviance to the capitalist elites.

Although the moment is propitious, politically, to review the educational institutions and their managerial styles, it is not truly opportune from the societal standpoint. This assertion is confirmed by current movements of workers, farmers, the unemployed, professors and salaried employees in general.

The programs of aid and attention to the concerns of these groups generally arise, in governmental agencies, as a consequence of desire to help and from a struggle which is both conscious and just. Nevertheless, social development, despite political rhetoric, continues to be accomplished through the struggle of the people, as always, and continues to be a low governmental priority.

Brazil now has hundreds of agricultural settlements, involving thousands of families. These settlement populations are found in all regions of the country; the people are beginning a new life and form communities where new hopes will certainly be born. Other land areas are being prepared to receive still other populations, eagerly awaiting their land. Hundreds of agricultural centers are being formed through mutual associations, collective farms, and farmers' cooperatives. What schools are there to serve these populations?

At the same time, there are extensive rural programs such as the Integrated Rural Development Program, Assistance Program for the Small Rural Farmer and the Assistance Program to Rural Commuters, all designed to maintain the population in its natural habitat, giving people conditions to produce more and sell their excess crops. These incorporate extensive areas of land and include thousands of families. What schools are there to serve these populations?

In the large cities there is a growing peripheral population which is developing its own standard of living; the social relations, means of subsistence, and the unifying spirit of these

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populations are different from either the urban or the rural population. What schools are there to serve these populations?

The schools that serve these populations are schools conceived and administered by the middle class, which establishes the curriculum, the architectural style of the facilities, and the instructional approaches, as if the various regions were of a uniform composition psychosocially and culturally. The governmental programs of aid to the masses of low-income workers always bear the mark of the State's omnipotence, steeped in the belief that the workers' communities are unprepared and, thus, incapable of creative and independent action. Examples of such programs are the EDRURAL program of the Ministry of Education and the program of Creation of and Aid to Municipal Councils and Commissions of Education. These do not take into consideration the life-style differences of each community and never call for the members of that community to participate effectively in the school. There is a deliberate strategy to remove the community from the design and running of the school, which leads one to agree with Althusser when he includes the school as part of the Ideological Apparatus of the state or as a power mechanism of the dominating elite. The school is imposed on the communities without having anything in common with the daily lives of the people; as a result, the school lacks those programmatic impediments that are indispensable to the process of liberating man from an exploited and submissive position. No relationship between school and work exists, nor does one between school, work and salary; what exist are curricula based on middle-class values that prescribe teaching that is foreign and distant, reaffirming the submission of the people.

> The reproduction of the work force demands not only a reproduction of its qualifications but at the same time a reproduction of its submission to the rules of the established order... the submission of the workers to the dominant ideology and the reproduction of the capacity of the agents of exploitation to accomplish this ideological domination and repression, in order to guarantee, also, the domination of the ruling class. (Althusser, 1970, p. 6)

The intentions and the methods used to maintain this type of school for the Brazilian workers are protected by forces both external and internal to the educational process. Externally, we have already succinctly demonstrated that the capitalist elite are not interested in change, and, therefore, will not support any such efforts in this direction. Internally, the forces for the maintenance of the "status quo" are the values which underlie the norms and behavior of educational administration.

> The central problem of Brazilian education, possibly of schools in general, seems to lie in a fault which is administrative in nature, that is the school's incapacity to adjust itself to the demands of contemporary life, an adjustment which would require organized and planned action. (Myrtes, 1976, p. 8)

Educational administration, as a means of preserving the ideals of schools as they currently exist, is totally based on the theoretical principles of business administration. We do not have our own theoretical basis; the values and principles of school administration practice are the same ones that dominate capitalist economics: rationality, efficiency and productivity.

With such an administrative doctrine, can the school become a living element and a community force? Without doubt, bureaucratic organization and managerial behavior do not

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allow for any type of change; consequently any educational project based on the philosophic principles which guide the popular movements becomes unviable. Thus, the educational anachronism is maintained and schools serve as a force for restricting creativity and the cultural expression of the populace, while acting as the training agency for the "reserve industrial army."

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PART TWO:
Regionalization of the Brazilian Education System: A Response

Ronald A. Lindahl, Ph.D.

Author's Note: Certainly it must be recognized that the few years during which this author worked and lived in Brazil by no means afford the depth and breadth of understanding of that nation's educational needs as demonstrated by Professor Algarte. At the same time, however, perhaps some value can be found in an alternate vision, partially gleaned from observations of the Brazilian reality, but admittedly colored by years of living and working in the United States, England and Spain. It is with great admiration and respect that I offer this somewhat contrasting proposal to that of my close personal friend and colleague, Professor Roberto Aparecido Algarte.

Professor Algarte's description of Brazil's educational system, both currently and historically, as being a primary force in the preparation of capitalist principles appears indisputable. During the colonial period, the Portuguese formally banned the establishment of local educational institutions, principally as a means of guaranteeing the continued subjugation of the local populace. Following Brazilian independence, systems of both public and private schooling emerged; however, traditional socioeconomic class distinctions continued to be a dominant factor in the governance and financing of these schools. In most geographic regions of the nation, limited financial and human resources for the public schools severely restrict the education opportunities available to the general public. The more affluent Brazilians largely depend on private schools whose tuitions become highly exclusive and severely limit upward mobility to all but children of equally advantaged families or rare scholarships to the intellectually gifted. Access to higher education of any quality, either public or private, is generally linked to performance on competitive entrance exams; again, the more affluent are

favored in that they can afford the high tuition costs of the proprietary academics which devote themselves to the preparation of students for these exams. As alluded to by Professor Algarte, Brazil was long an exploited colonial area; the Portuguese extracted valuable timber and precious metals; later economic trends led to a serious depletion of Brazil's agricultural resources through the exploitation of the sugar cane and rubber tree plantations. More recently, exploitation appears to be a dual phenomenon, with foreign investors (U.S., Japan and West Germany) owning incredibly vast tracts of Brazilian land, dominating specific industries, and vying for control of the growing Brazilian market. On the other hand, some internal "exploitation" seems evident; the poverty- and drought-stricken Northeast and the huge, sparsely inhabited forest regions of the North and West are politically and economically dominated by the industrialized corridor of the Southeastern coastal region, with Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro as the primary centers of control. The potential value of these nonindustrialized regions is clearly recognized; few authorities dispute the largely untapped wealth of mineral, oil, hydroelectric and agricultural resources contained therein. Nevertheless, as Professor Algarte asserts, the economic and living conditions vary tremendously between regions, as do the educational opportunities and programs available to the youth in each region.

Part of this diversity is inevitable. Geographically, Brazil is the fifth largest nation in the world in land area and spans latitudes ranging from tropical rain forests to temperate zones which experience occasional snow. Its boundaries encompass arid deserts, lush rain forests, huge swamps, fertile farmland and extensive coastal areas. Culturally, Brazil is one of the world's greatest "melting-pots." Native Indian cultures remain strong, yet isolated, in certain regions, whereas in other areas considerable miscegenation has occurred between these natives and the Europeans who colonized Brazil. The vestiges of the Black culture dating back to slave trade with Africa remain exceptionally strong in regions like Bahia and Rio de Janeiro. More recent immigrations of Japanese, Germans, Syrians, Lebanese and Italians have resulted in concentrations of these cultures in various regions of Brazil. Nevertheless, despite this cultural plurality, Portuguese is virtually the universal language of the nation and is adopted as such by all groups aforementioned. This unifying mode of communication, coupled with centuries of racial and ethnic miscegenation, tends to fuse these cultures into a well-unified nation.

It is against this background that Professor Algarte's strategic plan must be examined; similarly, it is within this context that any alternative must also be conceptualized. Professor Algarte proposes the creation of a highly regionalized education system, in which curriculum, facilities and even faculty would be oriented to the specific circumstances of that region. This proposal is most consonant with Paulo Freire's principles of consciousness-raising, which formed the basis of a huge, nationwide adult literacy movement in Brazil several decades ago. Unfortunately, as evidenced in longitudinal follow-up studies of this movement, although Freire's pedagogical and curricular techniques proved quite effective in teaching adults to read, the political, economic and social patterns of domination remained largely unchanged, resulting in little substantive change in standards of living among the program's participants and in a lamentably high rate of subsequent loss of reading/writing skills and a return to "illiteracy." This author's concern with as highly regionalized a plan as Dr. Algarte seems to suggest is that it, too, would perpetuate, rather than modify, existing patterns.

Clearly, regional adaptation of facilities remains an essential component of any strategic plan. Architectural knowledge is quite prolific in regard to adapting structures to minimize cost and maximize efficiency in the full range of climatic zones evidenced in Brazil. Although Dr. Algarte proposes the utilization of local materials, this may not always yield the most efficient

school plant. This suggested reliance on local labor appears to have merit, if not from the cost perspective, from the perspective of community pride and from the local economic benefits from increased employment in a land of chronic under- or un-employment. One caution would be that capital outlay financing should not be considered a regional responsibility.

As is clearly evidenced in states of the U.S. which relegate this function to local taxing authorities and school boards, great inequities in facilities quickly become evident. Although indisputable research evidence may not exist that links facilities to student learning, such disparities would seem to be an undesirable perpetuation of existing social and economic inequities.

It is at this point, however, that this author proposes a rather substantial modification of Dr. Algarte's strategic plan for a regionalized educational system. Clearly, educators have proven convincingly that students learn and retain best when they are able to integrate new material with knowledge, structures, and even feelings which they already possess. Freire's success in teaching adults to read and write through the use of the vocabulary, concepts and feelings of their everyday experience rather than through the artificial content of traditional primary-level readers confirms this principle within the Brazilian context. However, it is this author's contention, and concern, that a regionalized education system, including regionalized curriculum, would fail to prepare students for the global nature of today's world and would, ultimately, perpetuate existing patterns of disparity and even domination.

In their recent article, Gibbons and Newman (1986) propose a "universal curriculum" designed to provide students with the "determination and skills they need to cope with worldwide human environmental, economic, political, and military problems" (p.73). It would seem difficult to deny that Brazil is not very much affected by this global context, both intra- and inter-national in scope. Because Brazil is one of the leading debtor nations, its economy is integrally tied to the economics and banking decisions of the U.S., Europe and Japan. With foreign domination of many internal industries and markets, and with dependence on external sources for such vital commodities as oil and foodstuffs, Brazil clearly does not classify as an isolated, self-determining nation. With so many economic issues linked directly to political alliances, Brazil's internal decisions are often strongly influenced by the political stances and maneuverings of other nations, from the so-called "superpowers" to coalitions of Latin American nations, debtor nations, etc.

Intranationally, similar patterns exist. Students from rural, subsistence-farming regions must realize that national political decisions are being affected heavily by organized labor movements in coastal, industrialized regions, just as students from those regions must understand the effects of a drought on the Northeast or of deforestation within the Amazonic basin.

The question becomes, then, how to integrate the study of local/regional conditions and "realities" with the larger global context. Only by giving all students the knowledge and skills necessary to operate within this larger global context will they be empowered to change their personal, and regional, conditions and to alter the existing patterns of intra- and inter-national domination which form the basis of Professor Algarte's concern.

What implications does this have for curriculum? First, as suggested by Professor Algarte, some regionalization of curriculum must occur. Students' prior knowledge, experiences and feelings can best be utilized in the learning process if local and regional "realities" serve as the point of departure for issues to be examined, e.g. in social studies, science, and language arts classes. However, these regional contexts must only be the initial step in the curricular process.

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From these the student should be challenged to compare and contrast this "known" with related situations in other parts of Brazil and in other parts of the world. To the extent, then, the local/regional is the initial point of departure, this represents a regionalized curriculum. To the extent, however, that it focuses on helping students to view that local/regional reality within the global context, it becomes a nationalized curriculum. To the extent that it successfully prepares students in all regions to understand, communicate, plan and act in solving local, regional, national and world problems, it is a curriculum that transcends the "national" into what Gibbons and Newman called the "universal curriculum."

Clearly there are implications for the human resources of the educational system as well. Professor Algarte's plan would appear to call for a regionalized approach to securing human resources for the schools, i.e., faculty and administrators. From the standpoint that only individuals who have been immersed in the local/regional culture and environment are qualified to present the full complexity and implications of that reality to students, there is merit in this requirement. However, it is, at the same time, a severe limitation to impose on the staffing of a quality national school system. One must question, especially in light of existing regional disparities in education, if equally well-qualified teachers are available in all geographic regions. Additionally, in view of the traditionally low salaries accorded to teachers, especially in rural regions, the question exists if well-educated youth would elect to teach in these regions.

Perhaps more significant than these "practical" considerations, though, is the educational concern that while teachers born and educated in a region may well possess an in-depth, and even visceral, knowledge of that region, they may lack the experiences and knowledge of other regions (even of other countries) against which comparisons and contrasts could be drawn. It is this author's contention that the intelligent and global use of such comparisons and contrasts brings a more complete comprehension and appreciation of local circumstances than does mere immersion in those circumstances.

One "solution" to this dilemma is not to accept Professor Algarte's proposal for regionalized labor markets, but to conceptualize teacher education on a national basis, preparing teachers to understand its complex intra- and inter-national implications. Then, these teachers would serve an internship in a specific region, learning the "realities" of that region, learning to communicate effectively with adults and children of that region, and helping to develop a curriculum for their grade level/subject area which would utilize that local/regional reality to introduce students to the global perspective and which would provide for the development of the essential skills necessary to prosper within and change both the local and larger communities. After such an internship, e.g., one year, the teacher would then assume his/her classroom duties. Mid-career teachers might apply for government assistance to participate in another internship and move to a different region of the country.

Permeating this proposal is the concept of national support for educational equity. Current U.S. experience clearly shows the disparities which can exist within a nation, or even within states, when provisions are not made to provide equalization funding and when the financing of public schools is linked to the local area's ability and even willingness to fund the educational system. Such disparities would be even more glaring in Brazil, because of the even more homogeneous nature of each of its regions. A natural tendency within a highly regionalized educational system as proposed by Professor Algarte might be to consider education to be a regional responsibility, both in terms of governance and financing. This, too, might exacerbate the very patterns of dominance against which Professor Algarte strikes such a convincing blow.

In summary, this author contends that although an element of regionalization may well be

a cornerstone of which to plan a new Brazilian educational system, it is a concept which must be incorporated into a much more global perspective. Failure to focus on regional conditions may result in an education which is of little relevance and even credibility to many students; overemphasis of the regional aspect may actually perpetuate previous economic, social and political patterns, patterns which Professor Algarte decries as being patterns of inequity and domination.

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HOW CENSUS TRACT DATA ARE USED TO ASSIST LOS ANGELES UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT TO FORECAST STUDENTS

Milan Mueller and Deborah Rackerby

Authors' Note: The model developed by GeoBased Systems and presented in this article is a prototype model which incorporates county demographics with school summary data. It allows the District to analyze both district-wide and local enrollment patterns as well as examine the level of school participation of the various grades and racial/ethnic groups. Such information enables the District to anticipate changes in the geographical distribution of its student enrollment and composition and respond to such changes with modifications to its policies and programs.

Introduction

Los Angeles Unified School District, the nation's second largest, has experienced a dramatic turnaround in student population size and ethnic composition in the last decade. The '70s were marked by a period of rapid decline which resulted in the closing of several schools in the District. The District reached a peak enrollment of 650,000 in 1969 only to decline to 539,000 by 1980. However, due to international immigration and the relatively high birthrates of certain ethnic populations, the '80s have reversed the pattern of the previous decade. The diversified ethnic composition of the population of Los Angeles has transformed the District into an ethnic majority population which is predominantly Hispanic. In 1985, LAUSD enrollment was 573,000. At the current growth rate, LAUSD will surpass its 1969 enrollment figure in the early 1990s.

The District has experienced a population boom that is geographically concentrated. As a result, the District is faced with the problem of a large number of students residing in areas in which the facilities are operating in excess of maximum capacity. This growth has resulted in schools adopting a year-round calendar to alleviate student overcrowding as a temporary solution. However, District staff have recognized that current growth trends will result in the year-round schools becoming overcrowded, magnifying the problem of the District's staffing and facilities needs to meet the demands of the students. In an effort to understand the demographic changes which fuel LAUSD's diversity, District staff hired GeoBased consultants to analyze and quantify the dramatic changes that have taken place.

This article outlines the methodology applied to the Los Angeles Unified School District to tie together the relationship between school enrollment and the demographic characteristics of Los Angeles.

The Demographic Context of Los Angeles—Setting the Stage for the Need of Student Enrollment Projections

There are three key demographic considerations which strongly influence the student enrollment in LAUSD:

1. Southern California's position as a major entry point for immigrants,
2. Distinctive fertility rates of ethnic subgroups, and
3. Residential shifts that localize enrollment changes.

Immigrants

The immigrant population is geographically concentrated in the United States. For example, approximately 62% of all immigrants can be found in only five states. Twenty-five percent of all immigrants reside in California, making it the most popular state destination. At the metropolitan level, Southern California is home to 16% of the immigrant population, making it the second largest destination after New York (which has 17%). The migration stream to Los Angeles from Latin America and Asian countries has made it increasingly important that District staff understand who contributes to the population growth and what assumptions can be made about future growth.

Fertility Rates

Another factor is the fertility rates of ethnic groups. The fertility rate is defined as the number of births per 1,000 women in the fecund ages. This information is important from two perspectives. First, it provides information on the number of children that will feed into the school district in the future. Second, fertility rates provide data on the ethnic distribution of the population based on natural increase.

Residential Shifts

The third key factor pertains to residential mobility within LAUSD boundaries. The demographic characteristics of neighborhoods are dynamic and they can be described in terms of family life-cycle patterns. The family life-cycle is a process whereby neighborhoods undergo demographic change, beginning with the in-movement of families with young children. The children grow up in the neighborhood and eventually leave.

If they are not replaced by other children, an aging neighborhood results. The changing demographics of neighborhoods means that District staff need to understand processes at small geographic areas and not just for the District as a whole. This is particularly important since District planners and policy makers must make decisions regarding the closing and opening of schools and the allocation of resources, and must ensure racial balance throughout the District. Such decisions require an understanding of the spatial distribution of students at the neighborhood/community level.

Generating Individual School Enrollment Forecasts

The Los Angeles Unified School District contracted with GeoBased Systems to produce an enrollment projection model that would tie together the demographic changes that are occurring in Los Angeles County to expected future LAUSD enrollment based on a set of assumptions regarding fertility, mortality and migration for each of the four ethnic groups (Asian/Other, Black, Hispanic and White). This article discusses the data, methodology and results used to project students by individual schools.

Data

The methodology developed incorporates existing student summary enrollment data with census tract population estimates and forecasts (see Figure 1, p. 29). The data used in producing the enrollment projections were supplied by two primary sources: the Los Angeles Unified School District and the Los Angeles County Department of Health Services.

Researchers obtained from LAUSD a 1985-86 residing student data base containing aggregate enrollment for each school by grade and racial/ethnic background. Resident enrollment measures the number of students who live within specified boundaries.

The Los Angeles County Department of Health Services provided the population estimates and projections for Los Angeles County by single year (ages 5 - 17) and racial/ethnic category at the census tract level. These data were produced using the Department's Population Estimation and Projection System (PEPS) model, which was modified for use in LAUSD's enrollment projections. The projections covered the time period of 1987 to 1997.

The PEPS model produced population projections using a cohort survival model. The model took into account the effects of the current population base, natural increase and migration on the future population at the census tract level. The generation of population projections at the census tract level makes the PEPS model unique in that it incorporates local demographic patterns. For example, the model utilizes the fertility rates of different racial/ethnic groups by census tract. This makes the model sensitive to the distinctive fertility patterns of ethnic subgroups and to their spatial distribution within the District. The model also examines migration at the census tract level. This means that the projections not only reflect the influx of new population into the District as a whole but also account for the changing demographics of individual neighborhoods which result from a highly mobile population.

Correspondence Tables

Before any projection procedure could be applied, the student enrollment and population data first had to be aggregated at a common geographic scale, which in this case was the school's individual attendance boundaries. This meant that the Los Angeles County population estimates and projections also had to be aggregated by census tract to obtain LAUSD population totals by school. Some census tracts, however, were only partially contained within each school. The allocation of only that portion of each tract that is contained within each school involved the creation of a geographic correspondence table between census tracts and individual school attendance areas.

In order to produce the correspondence table, researchers created a computerized boundary map of the District schools using the boundary descriptions supplied by LAUSD. The computerized map of the District translates the boundary points into X,Y coordinates. The boundaries can then be overlaid onto the census tracts, which have also been encoded as X,Y coordinates.

The correspondence table was defined as the percent of the population of each tract that resides within a LAUSD school boundary. One method of estimating this is to compute percentages based on area. However, this method assumes that the population is uniformly distributed throughout the tract, which is rarely the case. Therefore, these percentages were computed using MARF2[1] population data from the 1980 census. The MARF2 data assign

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1. Census of Population and Housing, 1980: Master Area Reference File (MARF) 2, prepared by the Bureau of the Census, 1983.

persons within a tract to block group[2] centroids in order to depict a more accurate (weighted) distribution of the population (see Figure 2, p. 30).

The school boundaries are then overlaid onto the census tracts to determine the block group centroids within each tract that lie inside each school boundary, based on the X,Y coordinates. A percentage based on population was then calculated by dividing a tract's block group population which falls within each school by that tract's total population.

Using the correspondence table, the school-age population within each attendance area was calculated by summing over census tracts in the following manner:

School-age population in attendance area (age, race, year) =
[Tract population (age, race, year, tract) x
Percent in attendance area (tract)]

Student Participation Rates

Once the correspondence table had been calculated, researchers computed participation rates for the current 1985-86 school year. Individual school participation rates were then calculated for each grade and racial/ethnic category. Participation rates are defined as the percent of students of a specific grade and ethnicity that are enrolled in a LAUSD school based on the attendance area's total residing population of that grade and ethnicity. These were derived for each school by dividing enrollment for a particular grade and racial/ethnic group over the area's population for the corresponding age and racial/ethnic group. The model assumes that for each grade there is a single age which is most appropriate for the students to be enrolled. A high percentage of students of that particular age tend to be concentrated in that particular grade.

These rates were computed for each group as follows:

Individual school participation rates (grade, ethnicity) =
1985-86 Individual School Enrollment (grade, ethnicity)
1985-86 School-Age Residing Population (age, ethnicity)

The calculation of rates for each school allowed researchers to capture the differences in student participation for the different grades and racial/ethnic groups throughout LAUSD. These differences can be explained in part by the geographic variation in the percent enrolled in private schools across LAUSD, and in the later grades, the variation in the percent not enrolled in school. Individual rates are also sensitive to local demographic trends, such as area-specific trends in migration and fertility.

Individual School Projections

Once the participation rates by school and grade ethnicity had been calculated, they were multiplied by the corresponding single year school-age population projections for that particular residing area. The result was projected student enrollment by grade ethnicity and school. For example, if the participation rate for Asian fifth-graders at School A was 75% and the projected 1990 population of Asian 10-year-olds for School A was 100, then the projected 1990 fifth-grade Asian enrollment at School A would be (.75) (100) or 75. The participation rates were

2. A block group is a census tract subarea.

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constant over the entire 1987-1997 projection period.

Larger area forecasts are produced by aggregating the individual schools. In the case of the LAUSD, K-12 projections were aggregated to the high-school complex level. These complex forecasts allow the District to analyze enrollment trends and racial composition on a larger regional scale (see Figure 3, p. 31).

The student participation rate methodology provides detailed student ethnic population projections which can be analyzed geographically. This methodology also permits the user to calculate "what if" scenarios by changing the assumptions. This is an important manipulation, especially when one considers the potential impact on international migration streams to Southern California due to new federal regulation. The District must have a system that will allow them to modify their projections based on new current data. In addition, the system can produce high and low estimates.

Another benefit of this student participation rate methodology is that it provides the District with valuable information on the success of their students. For example, declining participation rates reflect an increasing number of dropouts. This information serves as one indicator to measure the success of current academic policies or curriculum standards and can direct the school board to addressing specific academic needs. For example, the student participation data for Hispanics show a low participation rate at the high-school level, particularly in the eleventh and twelfth grades. This information can be used by the District to evaluate its role in trying to increase the graduation rate among Hispanics.

Changes in academic performance also have demographic implications. If Hispanic participation rates were to increase to the average participation rate of the other three ethnic groups, their enrollment in these two grades could increase by 5,000 to 8,000. Again, the impact on school programs would be far-reaching.

Conclusions

The model, which takes into account the distinctive fertility and migration patterns of each of the ethnic groups as well as the propensity for students to enroll in LAUSD schools, generates enrollment projections at the geographic level necessary for tracking shifts in residential patterns. The student projections by individual schools and high-school complexes help the District to prepare for the imminent imbalances between the geographic distribution of students and the location of schools.

Figure 1

ENROLLMENT FORECASTING MODEL OVERVIEW

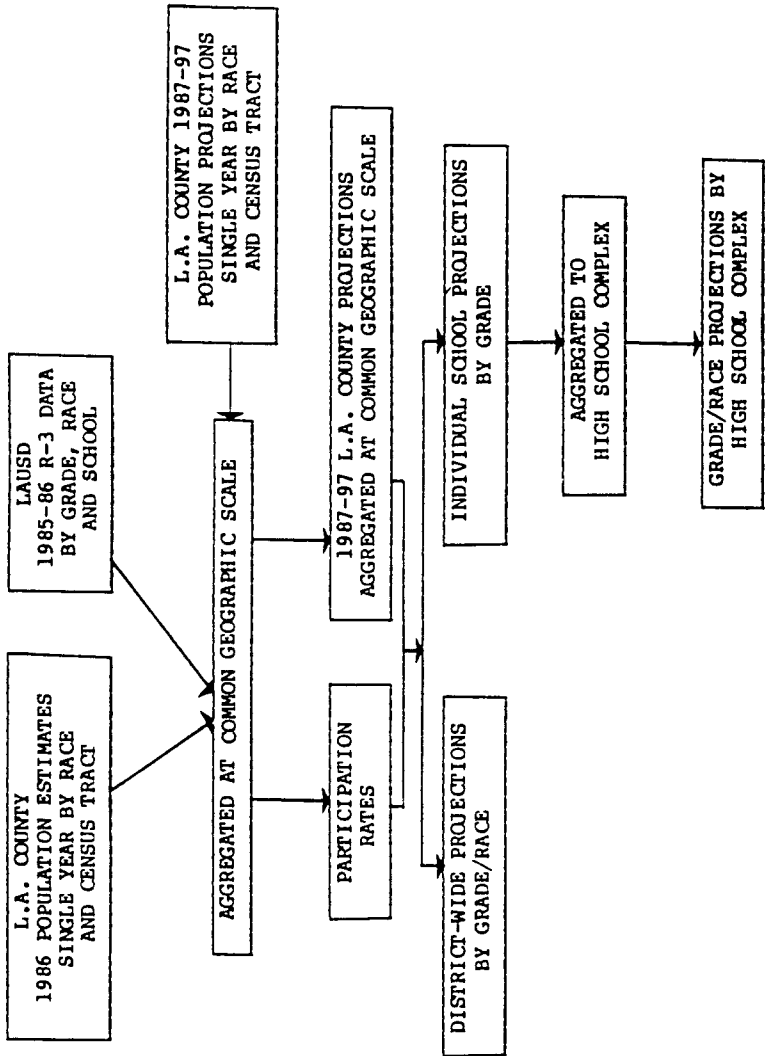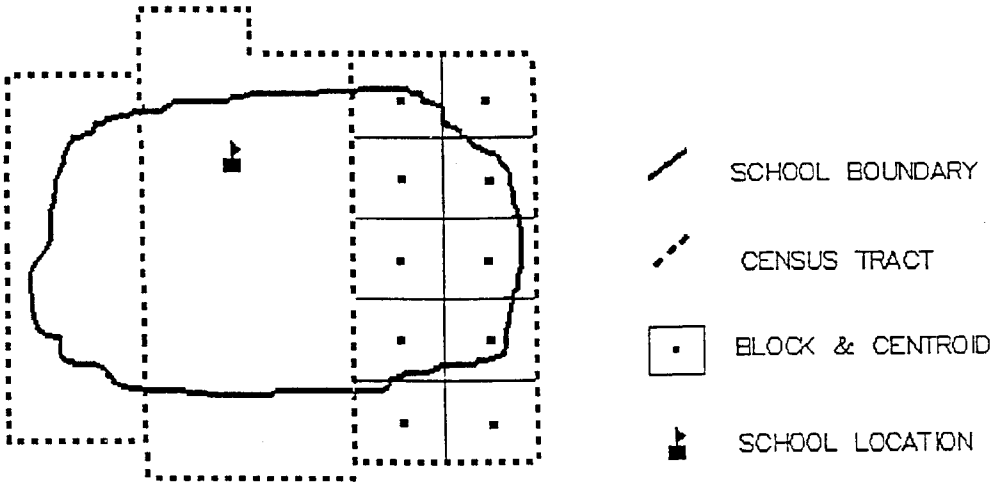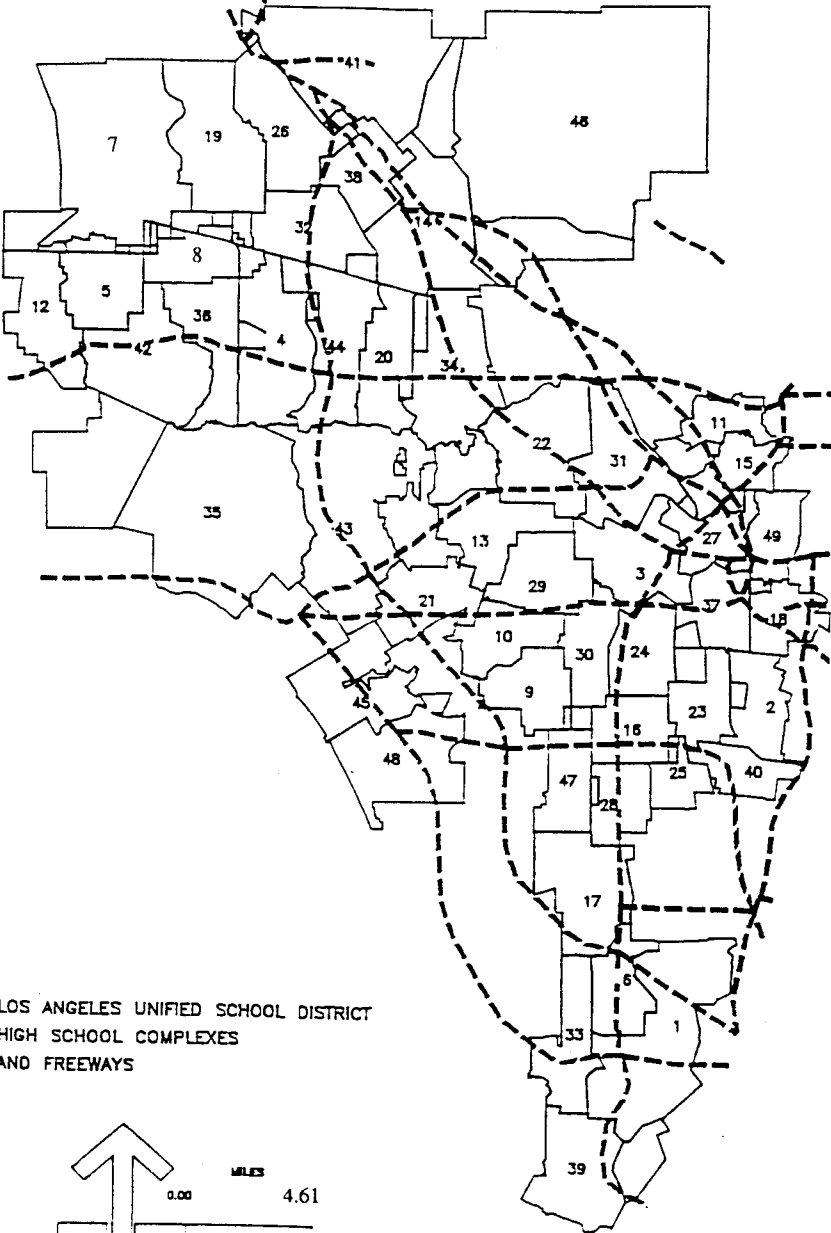FIGURE 2: CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN SCHOOL BOUNDARY
& CENSUS BLOCK GROUPS

SCHOOL BOUNDARY

CENSUS TRACT

BLOCK & CENTROID

SCHOOL LOCATION

The school boundary is overlayed onto the census tracts to
determine which block group centroids lie inside the school
boundary.

Figure 3

|	
1	BANNING
2	BELL
3	BELMONT
4	BIRMINGHAM
5	CANOGA PARK
6	CARSON
7	CHATSWORTH
8	CLEVELAND
9	CRENSHAW
10	DORSEY
11	EAGLE ROCK
12	EL CAMINO REAL
13	FAIRFAX
14	FRANCIS POLYTECH
15	FRANKLIN
16	FREMONT
17	GARDENA
18	GARFIELD
19	GRANADA
20	GRANT
21	HAMILTON
22	HOLLYWOOD
23	HUNTINGTON PARK
24	JEFFERSON
25	JORDAN
26	KENNEDY
27	LINCOLN
28	LOCKE
29	LOS ANGELES
30	MANUAL ARTS
31	MARSHALL
32	MONROE
33	NARBONNE
34	NORTH HOLLYWOOD
35	PALISADES
36	RESEDA
37	ROOSEVELT
38	SAN FERNANDO
39	SAN PEDRO
40	SOUTH GATE
41	SYLMAR
42	TAFT
43	UNIVERSITY
44	VAN NUYS
45	VENICE
46	VERDUGO
47	WASHINGTON
48	WESTCHESTER
49	WILSON

LOS ANGELES UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT
HIGH SCHOOL COMPLEXES
AND FREEWAYS

MILES

0.00   4.61

31
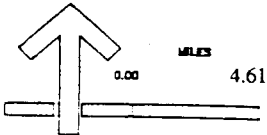
HOW ONE SCHOOL DISTRICT IMPLEMENTED SITE-BASED SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT PLANNING TEAMS

Maridyth M. McBee and John S. Fink

Editors' Note: The following is a companion piece to an article titled "Perspectives on School-Based Planning," by Susan Purser and John Crawford, published in Issue 7.2 of Educational Planning. Both papers relate to overall planning efforts in the Oklahoma City Public Schools. Earlier versions of the papers were presented at the 1988 ISEP Conference in Austin, Texas.

Educational literature of the past few years has devoted considerable attention to site-based management. This management concept empowers teachers, principals, and community members to plan and implement educational programs that meet the unique needs of their particular school. Burnes and Howes (1988) identified a number of principles on which site-based management was based, such as: (1) efforts to change schools have been most effective when they have been focused toward influencing the entire school culture in a risk-free, collegial atmosphere; and (2) change in the total organization is fostered through staff participation in project planning and implementation with encouragement and acceptance of the results by superiors. Site-based management has been tried in a number of school systems such as Hammond, Indiana; Dade County, Florida; and Chesterfield, Missouri (Casner-Lotto, 1988, Dreyfuss, 1988, Burnes and Howes, 1988).

In the last decade there has also been a substantial number of studies which found that parent involvement in school programs produces students who perform better in school than students whose parents are not involved (Crawford, Fink, and Raia, 1987; Henderson, 1987). It appears that children benefit when parents are involved in school, no matter what the nature of that involvement. Programs with a parental component appear to be more successful than those with the school staff acting alone (Becher, 1984; Leler, 1983; Goodson and Hess, 1975).

To capitalize on the benefits of site-based management and parental involvement in the schools, site-based planning teams were piloted in nine district schools. During the fall of 1986, teams of three persons from each district pilot school were trained to facilitate the Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc. (/I/D/E/A/) School Improvement Program. These people were then designated as the facilitators to implement the program at their school.

This study was conducted to determine how the program was implemented in the pilot schools, what has occurred in those schools as a result of participation in the program, and how the experience of implementing the program might benefit other schools that will begin the program at some future point in time.

What is the School Improvement Program?

The School Improvement Program was designed to involve parents, teachers, administrators, students, and interested community members in a five-stage cycle for school improvement. The five stages were *readiness, planning, training, implementing* and *maintaining*.

To begin this process, a principal, a teacher, and a parent from each school attended two one-week training sessions on how to conduct a school improvement program. These people then became the facilitators for the school improvement process at their building.

The facilitators' first responsibility was to form a planning team for their building. Representatives from the community, teaching staff, parents, students, and administration were to be included on the planning team. This team met for approximately 30 hours to determine a vision of what they would like their school to become in five years. The vision was based on nine broad principles of effective education. These nine principles are found in Table 1. The planning team also assessed the school's readiness to change.

Table 1

/I/D/E/A/ School Improvement Program
Nine Principles

1. Education is increasingly used to prepare students for successful life transitions.
2. Schools make every effort to link students with appropriate community resources that could make a positive contribution to the student's education.
3. Students become increasingly self-directed through planned activities leading to self-educating adulthood.
4. Schools explicitly teach and reward the agreed upon values of the school and community.
5. Parents are expected to be active participants in the education of their children.
6. Each student pursues excellence in an area of his or her own choosing.
7. Everyone affected by a decision is involved directly or representively in the making of it.
8. Schools strive to integrate the interdependent educational efforts of home, school, and community.
9. Every participant involved in educating youth, models the role of learner.

Once the long-range visioning had occurred, the planning team was to participate in a two to three day retreat. During the retreat, the team developed goals for their school based on the nine principles. The goals were prioritized. Then the team compared the present school with their idealized vision to identify strengths and areas in need of change.

As the next step, the facilitators formed a "design task" group. The membership of the design task group (as was the membership of the planning team) was to be representative of all the stakeholders in the school. There was to be overlap in membership between the two groups to maintain continuity and cohesiveness.

The purpose of the design task group was to prepare detailed program plans to meet the goals developed at the retreat. While it was understood that not all goals could be met at once, the first-year plan included practices that would lead to the attainment of the primary goals.

The design task group reported the program plan to the original planning team for

modifications. The planning team then determined a method for communicating the plan to all those who would be affected by its implementation. The final tasks of the planning stage were to identify participants, plan needed staff development, and determine the coordinating and governing structures that would be needed to support the planned improvements.

The next step was to provide staff development and training for all those who would be involved in the new programs. The programs were then implemented. Monitoring and evaluation of the programs followed with a process called a Charters' Analysis. During this process the following four levels were documented.

1. Institutional commitments had been secured.
2. Organizational structures were in place.
3. Participant roles had been learned and were practiced.
4. Learning activities/programs were occurring as planned.

As the first-year plan was being implemented and evaluated, each school's planning team began the process again to prepare their second-year plan. Thus, school improvement became continuous and was characterized by: (1) ongoing goal identification, (2) assessment of present practices, (3) staff development, (4) refining implementation and (5) expanding and refining the original vision that was developed during the retreat and design meetings of the planning stages.

Methods of Study

Representatives from nine schools participated in the first /I/D/E/A/ School Improvement Program training session held in the district. In most cases the representatives included the school principal, a teacher and a parent. The principal and teacher facilitator from each site were interviewed by the authors of this paper. A structured interview form was used. The purpose of the interviews was to ascertain how the school improvement programs were implemented at each school. In addition, we wanted to chronicle the benefits of going through the school improvement process and the hindrances that interfered with the school improvement process. The authors then read and reread the interview protocols to determine trends occurring throughout the district.

Results of the Study

Seven of nine schools completed the visioning stage within a year of beginning the school improvement program. Two schools did not complete the visioning stage. One of the two schools never began the program. The second school began holding planning meetings until notification that the principal would be serving at a different building the following year; at that time work on the school improvement was postponed.

Although the efforts of the school improvement teams will probably have the maximum impact when each school reaches the implementation stage, benefits were occurring in all seven schools as a result of participation in the school improvement program. Nearly all of those interviewed stated that the climate in their school had improved. As a result of feeling more ownership in their school, school staff, parents, and in some cases, other community members were instigating improvements that needed to be made.

There are a number of examples of positive activities occurring in the schools as a result of the school improvement program. At a participating elementary school, parents and community

leaders began volunteering to talk to classes about their occupations. Also, pictures of student citizens of the month were displayed at a local bank. Another elementary school began a Parent Partnership program which paired parents new to the school with "veteran" parents who could answer questions about the school. A school recently converted to a fifth-grade center held a school-wide weekend retreat to help acquaint staff with each other. A middle school planned a before-school orientation session for incoming sixth graders and their parents to distribute schedules and tour the school. A high-school staff used ideas generated in the school improvement meetings to increase attendance at Open House night. Teachers at an alternative high school began sending notes home each month to six students with poor attendance and to five students for something positive they had done. As these examples demonstrate, the school improvement program provided a common outlet to direct the energy of all those who had a stake in what happened at their school. The focus of the program was positive since the task was to make the school more like an ideal school.

The planning teams did experience some difficulties in carrying out the school improvement program. A substantial amount of volunteer time was required for participation. As a result, none of the schools were able to prepare the self-study for North Central Accreditation (which also required a large amount of staff time beyond the regular workday) *and* maintain an active school improvement program.

The success of the school improvement programs was dependent on the skills and commitment of the facilitators. A critical skill was the ability to recruit and maintain the interest of the stakeholders on the planning teams. Four of the seven participating schools were unable to obtain committed business and/or community leaders as members of their planning teams.

Some of the school improvement efforts were facilitated by the principal with the teacher and the parent facilitators helping out only in the small groups. In other schools only the principal and the teacher facilitators took on leadership roles. In other schools all three trained facilitators shared the leadership roles. The latter seemed to allow the greatest flow of ideas and most equitable shared work responsibilities. Conversely, it was difficult to maintain an active school improvement program when a change of principals occurred at the school.

Much time and energy went into the development of each school's improvement goals. Some of the schools voiced skepticism that once they had developed procedures to meet the goals and objectives specific to their school, that central office might not support their ideas. Facilitators at four of the seven schools requested assurances that central office staff would approve and provide resources for the plans developed by the stakeholders. Central office support to allow the planning teams to meet during the workday was also requested by the facilitators at all sites. In addition, those interviewed at two schools requested that central office administrators serve as stakeholders on their school's planning team.

Finally, facilitators interviewed at four schools reported difficulty in keeping the staff, parents and community members who were not on the planning team informed of the process. As a result, not all school staffs were immediately supportive of the improvement plans. Communication was most challenging at the larger schools. To help garner support, one school's team presented the school improvement plan developed by the stakeholders to the entire faculty, asked for feedback, and made modifications accordingly.

Despite the constraints, all schools reported benefits as a result of participating in school improvement programs, regardless of which stage of implementation they had reached. As the benefits appear to outweigh the costs, site-based school improvement planning teams should be encouraged. However, to maximize the success of future site-based school improvement

efforts, the following recommendations should be implemented.

* Only one major project or innovation should be implemented at one time.
* Facilitators should be trained to recruit stakeholders, especially those representing business and community members.
* All trained facilitators should take an active role in planning and leading the stake-holders' meetings.
* Central office administrators should encourage site-based school improvement efforts and be supportive of site-based goals and recommendations.
* Planning teams should make every effort to communicate the results of the school improvement meetings to those groups which each member represents.

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EXCERPTS FROM THE SECRETARY-TREASURER'S REPORT 1988-1989

ISEP, with the help of Ben Graves, hosted a very successful conference in Austin in October 1988. Our membership for mailing purposes is approximately 380, including members from Canada, the United States, Mexico, Australia, Nigeria, France and other countries.

The health of the organization has continued on a high note with a new milestone: Bob Carlson and Gary Awkerman undertook the effort to develop and edit a book on educational planning, entitled *Educational Planning: A Collection of Insights*, to be published this coming

year by Longman, Inc. Members of ISEP have contributed many of the selections to be included.

Early in 1989, our Secretary-Treasurer, Roger Fish, resigned to accept additional responsibilities as the Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum and Educational Technology in the District of Columbia Public Schools. Sandra Anderson accepted the position in an acting capacity until a new Secretary-Treasurer could be selected in the fall meeting.

The organization is in a healthy financial situation. At the close of the Austin meeting, $5,531.23 was forwarded from the conference committee. The report for 1988-89 as of October 6, 1989 follows.

Credits:

Spring 1989, Cash on hand	$ 3,768.63
$5,000 CD plus 7% interest for 9 mo.	5,262.50
$5,000 CD plus 8.4% interest for 6 mo.	5,210.00
Receipts for 1989	980.00
	$ 15,221.13

1989 Liabilities:

1989 Journals - 3 at $1,000 each	($ 3,000.00)
Printing letterhead and mailing dues notices	(454.87)
	($ 3,454.87)
	$ 11,766.26

1990 Liabilities:

1990 Journals - 4 at $1,000 each	($ 4,000.00)
Journal covers	($ 1,000.00)
Additional organizational costs (office expenses)	($ 1,000.00)
	($ 6,000.00)

Balance: $ 5,766.26

Respectfully submitted,
Sandra Lee Anderson,
Secretary-Treasurer, Acting

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

1. Each manuscript submission must be accompanied by a letter
   signed by the author.

2. The length of the manuscript should not exceed 20 double-spaced,
   typewritten pages (including reference lists, tables, charts,
   and/or graphs).

3. Please submit two copies of each manuscript.

4. Lengthy tables, drawings, and charts should be scaled to an
   Educational Planning page and camera-ready.

5. A biographical sketch of each author should be attached to each
   manuscript.

6. The Editors prefer APA style.

All manuscripts will be evaluated on the basis of relevancy, substance, style and syntax, and ease of comprehension. Submission conveys permission to edit and publish as required. Authors are responsible for copyright clearance and accuracy of information presented.

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