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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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Editors note: In the previous issue of the journal, *Educational
Planning 8.4*, it should be noted that C. Kenneth Tanner was
the co-author in the article entitled "School-site strategic
plannng and service marketing."

Barbara Neufeld

CONCEPTUAL DISTINCTIONS IN UNIVERSITY PLANNING

PURPOSE AND BACKGROUND

This article is intended to further an understanding of university planning and to facilitate improvements in university planning practice. This task is addressed by drawing some important conceptual distinctions derived from planning literature and by highlighting the results of a comparative case study which employed those conceptual distinctions.

Planning as a field of study is not well developed. In many respects it could be characterized as a confusing array of amorphous, overlapping, and rarely applied concepts, models and frameworks. The gulf between the loose abstractions of planning theory literature and the largely anecdotal reflections of planning practice literature is especially wide. This article presents an exploration of that ill-defined middle ground between planning theory and practice.

PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING

Broadly defined, planning is any form of anticipatory decision-making. More specifically university planning encompasses the determination of immediate university needs or goals, the formulation of a preferred course of action to achieve those goals or satisfy those needs, and the means by which the selected course of action is to be implemented. In short, planning should assist in deciding what to do and how to do it (Pounds & Strickland, 1980).

Although planning facilitates decision-making, it does encompass all aspects of decision-making. It does not, for example, include (but might preclude) decision-making which is *ad hoc*, or capricious. Thus planning does, to varying degrees, formalize decision-making by implying actions or interventions which must be deliberate and intentional. It also implies a conscious attempt to view activities as a set rather than as isolated phenomena. The desired end condition or product is not an unintended outcome of a number of unrelated activities or events and, should, therefore precede implementation. Planning also, tends to involve a great variety of tasks, integrated within a complex process, which are collectively directed towards a conscious purpose and should eventually lead to a specified end state.

For a university, planning is an organizational function within an administrative structure. It should be undertaken on an on going basis by the institutional membership. Again to be relevant, the planning function must be linked to the institution's decision-making process which itself reflects the power structure of the institution. Implementation is inherent planning. Thus planning is action-oriented by serving as an instrument of administrative accountability, and by assisting in resource allocation and decision-making. The link between planning and resource allocation is determined by planning priorities.

FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

Given the somewhat confused state of planning thought, yet recognizing the potentially pivotal role of planning in facilitating decision-making, it is essential that case study analysis of planning be systematic in its linkages to planning theory and in the methods employed. To do otherwise would simply contribute to the confusion.

The use of planning models in planning practice provides a conceptual framework to facilitate data organization analysis, theory building and structured practice. However, such models generally lack specific strategies for action because of the limited extent to which models have been applied, tested, and evaluated in practice.

The point of departure for this analysis is five planning models—models which embrace a diversity of planning orientations, methods and related organizational structures. In employing these models it is appreciated that planning practice is unlikely to mirror any single model and that much planning is less the conscious application of a theoretical model and more the *ad hoc* design of a planning approach to suit a particular set of planning problems—generally without the conscious consideration of alternative planning models. Nevertheless the institution's plans and planning process may contain elements of more than one planning model— their inclusion being an outcome of a specific strategy to meet a specific problem. Moreover, whether intentional or unintentional, the extent to which a planning initiative mirrors model characteristics still provides an opportunity for testing and refining that model.

In presenting and applying the models, it also needs to be acknowledged that the models characterized are not consistently defined or applied. This problem has been compounded by the loose use of terminology with the same terms being applied to different phenomena and different terms being applied to the same phenomena. However, recognizing the need for consistent model characteristics, by drawing upon a range of planning literature, it was possible to identify a series of general tendencies rather than absolute properties of each model.

The planning models also represent the mainstream planning theories—ideal types, frequently referenced in the planning literature. Other potential theories tend to be subsets, variations or hybrids of the five major planning models desribed in this article.

Appreciating the qualifications noted above, university planning was analyzed against the characterizations of the following five major planning models: rational, strategic, incremental, organizational development, and advocacy. The planning models were described according to four major aspects: ends of planning, nature of planning, organization for planning, planning environment.

Ends of planning refers to the university's goals, its mission and the values, implicit or explicit, inherent in the planning approach. *Nature of planning* pertains to how the university goes about planning. It includes the information or knowledge employed, the procedures used to review and amend, discard or adapt decisions, the outcomes of planning activities (products), the level of detail, and the time-frame. *Organization for planning* describes the organizational structure types, the media of communications, the explicitness of rules, the direction of control, the roles/skills possessed by actors, and the resources available for planning. *Planning environment* addresses the inter-relationships between planning and the university (internal environment), societal (external environment), and political environments.

THE PLANNING MODELS
Rational Planning
Under the rational planning model an attempt is made, at considerable expense in time, effort and money, to prepare and implement a comprehensive long-range plan. According to Cope (1985), the rational planning model assumes a long-range planning horizon since change is only slowly achieved and provides a blueprint for the future:

Long-range plans usually result in a plan for ten years, a blueprint, often prepared in a planning office. The long-range plan is usually a lengthy document containing details about the institution's mission and degree programs, numbers of faculty and students by degree programs, numbers of graduates by degree programs, as well as a list of goals and objectives for teaching, research and service. The long-range plans have been dominated by an internal perspective and generally assume relatively closed boundaries. Long-range planning is usually characterized as inside-out planning. The elements of science dominate this form of planning. (Cope, 1985, p. 14).

The major steps in the rational decision-making process are as follows:
1. Decisionmakers are assumed to agree on the goals that govern a given decision;
2. Decisionmakers identify all alternative courses of action that are relevant to their goals;
3. Decisionmakers identify all relevant consequences of each alternative; and
4. Using some appropriate calculus, decisionmakers compare the sets of consequences and decide upon the optimum alternative. (Culhane, Friesema, & Beecher, 1987, p.2).

The task, for a comprehensive long-range plan, would entail: a careful definition of the university's short, medium, and long term goals (e.g. annual, three to five years, and five to ten years, respectively); data collection, beyond the statistics provided by its usual management information system; the analysis of these statistics relative to the planning goals; the formulation of a range of alternative ways by which the institution might achieve its goals; the systematic analysis and evaluation of the alternatives; the selection and refinement of the preferred alternative; the development of an implementation plan including monitoring and updating procedures; and, the formulation of contingency plans in case changes in the comprehensive plans are required. These, or similar steps, are all advocated in descriptions of the rational planning model. They appear in the work of several authors including, for example, R. Boxx and J.W. Johnson (1980); R.G. Cope (1981); G. Keller (1987); A. Faludi (1978, 1983); G.J. Allison (1971); J.M. Bryson (1988); H.A. Simon (1976); J. Rosenhead (1980); D. Lelong and R. Shirley (1984); and D.W. Lang (1983).

The rational planning model offers a university administration systematic procedures for defining the institution's planning ends and means. Under this planning model, the planner is seen as politically neutral and objective and the planning work is viewed as isolated from and immune to political pressures. With reliance upon expert guidance for senior decision-makers, planning is essentially undemocratic. Widespread political participation is regarded as inconsistent with the efficient control of the planning process by the planning experts. Its products are ostensibly objective in the sense that they are based on technical expertise and detailed data. However, the model ignores the internal distribution of political power and the value conflicts which must be taken into account for the successful adoption and implementation of planning change. It assumes that it is possible to separate ends and means and to consider them independently. It further assumes that consensus can be reached among the major stakeholders, by means of a rational planning process, on the values which underlie the planning intention. It also is of questionable practicality given the limited resources available to university planning, the turbulent nature of the internal and external planning environment, and the inherent resistance of the university membership to centralized top-down planning.

The rational planning model assumes highly technical short-term planning and quantitative analysis to address such matters as annual budgeting and enrollment in the context of a master plan of a long-term image. However, Simon (1976) and Lindblom (1973) contend that comprehensive analysis tends to be thwarted by the general disagreements on goals by planning participants in a bureaucratic structure and by the difficulty of meeting data needs.

Strategic Planning
Strategic planning begins with the assumption that some aspects of a university's operation are functioning well and require little or no intervention. Therefore, attention can be focused on a small number of problem and opportunity areas. This approach assumes that the planning environment is difficult to predict or control, that planning is difficult and divisive, and that the resources available for planning are modest and must be concentrated where they will have the greatest effect.

Strategic planning concentrates on key operating decisions facing the institution in the intermediate future (three years). Goals are broadly defined such that the institution can flexibly respond to changing conditions and demands. Options are also defined with an appreciation of internal and external environmental constraints and opportunities.

This model generally employs a participatory planning approach—an approach which accords well with the traditional university committee style of decision-making. Both personal and processed knowledge are employed. As such, it fits easily into administrative procedural modes of institutions of higher education by facilitating the tapping of the broad-ranging experience and technical knowledge of university faculty and staff.

Strategic planning balances the planning process and the planning products with a careful attention to the procedures by which decisions are made and commitments implemented. Planning products tend to be short and focused, interim working papers rather than the grand master plan characteristic of rational planning. Strategic planning assumes an open hierarchical organizational structure with extensive vertical and horizontal communications and participation. Management skills are stressed. This planning model is described *inter alia* in the work of G. Keller (1987); R.G. Cope (1981); S. Young (1981); and J.L. Miller, Jr. (1983).

Strategic planning shares many of the same tasks as rational planning but emphasizes creativity, flexibility and participation by the university membership generally through its normal committee decision-making system. Strategic planning is motivated by the desire for selectively rational and focused institutional decision-making. This model employs long and medium range plans which are reformulated periodically.

The short term objectives reflect a realistic knowledge of likely resources and probabilities of successful implementation. Strategic choices, in turn, lead to long-run goals. In successive years as opportunities are identified, objectives can be redefined, resources reappraised, data updated, and projections re-calculated. In good strategic planning, therefore, future risk is minimized as the proposed goals and the means are directly linked to problems and implementation. Strategic planning employs a long-run perspective but focuses on specific tactics and issues. However, at the heart of strategic planning, is a fundamental contradiction between its espoused participation and openness and the needs of an apolitical process which assumes expert knowledge and value consensus. This model may reflect changing environments and use available resources but it lacks mechanisms for resolving conflicts and overcoming institutional inertia.

Incremental Planning

Incremental planning treats the planning process as the marginal annual adjustment toward some vaguely defined preferred condition (Keller, 1987, p. 114). It involves preparing successive approximations to change the decision-making process. Lindblom (1965)) describes the process as "partisan mutual adjustment." As interest groups may vary in their opinion over an issue or policy decision, planning participants may, at best, arrive at consensus only to the extent that current decisions move incrementally from past decisions (Culhane, Friesema, & Beecher, 1987). This planning model may also be defined as *disjointed incrementalism* (Braybrooke and Lindblom, 1970, pp. 81-110). Budget allocations generally follow the institution's historical patterns with only minor upward or downward adjustments in response to the internal political process of debating longer term priorities against various manifest immediate needs. This approach has been termed the incremental planning model. Discussion of its advantages and disadvantages are found *inter alia* in the writings of E. Bell (1978); D. Braybrooke and C.E. Lindblom (1970); C.E. Lindblom (1965); and G. Keller (1987).

Incremental planning has limited intentions, is realistic and takes full account of the conflicts inherent in the institution's decision-making process. Because it is modest in interaction it is

equally modest in results. It tends to be seen as spasmodic and, sometimes, inconsistent. The key to success with incremental planning is to achieve piece-meal changes consistent with some long term goals. In this way, long-term planned change can be demonstrated.

Advocacy Planning

Advocacy planning describes an openly competitive mode of planning. Institutional stakeholders present their "cases" and "bargain" to advance their specific interests in annual or longer term planning and resource allocation decision-making. This planning model has the inherent instability of a political process. Some stakeholders are more effective representatives for their "cause" than others. Not all stakeholders have equal representation. Some, for example, are relegated to minor committees in which at best they might mitigate the effect of a decision they would oppose. Alliances among groups of stakeholders also shift as the decision under discussion changes.

This political contest rewards the politically astute, numerically strong, dynamic and articulate as well as those whose "case" is most consistent with current priorities. For a university the outcome of the planning represented by annual resource allocations depends upon both the power positions of groups within the institution and upon the competitive position of the university itself in the higher education system. Recognizing the likely imbalance in the competitive positions of various stakeholders planning, resources need to be distributed such that each stakeholder can compete equally within the planning process. This model is described *inter alia* by E. Bell (1978); J.M. Bryson (1988); and H.L. Thompson (1979).

Advocacy planning recognizes that neither the planning activity nor the planners are politically neutral. It acknowledges that under-represented interest groups should be heard and may need assistance to participate effectively in institutional decision-making. Yet the model provides only limited guidance as to how planning decisions can be made without creating "winners" and "losers." Thus, frequently it fails to assist in the achievement of compromises which integrate the concerns of affected groups.

Organizational Development Planning

The organizational development planning model assumes the need for an open/participatory planning process as a pre-condition to the achievement of planned change. As such the planning process is both educative and instrumental. Philosophically, it is a direct contrast to autocratically imposed change. It assumes that unless organizational members have experiences whereby they learn about the need for proposed change, the activities which will foster the changes, and how to lessen (or avoid) the adverse effects of the changes, most members will favor the *status quo* and will resist the proposed planned changes.

Under an organizational learning/consensus formation, the various interested and affected parties work together in a non-hierarchical system of small groups to define the new goals, discuss alternative implementation strategies, re-allocate resources and evaluate the implemented change. Consensus is achieved through dialogue and mutual socialization into the prejudices, satisfactions, wants and needs of other institutional members. This model is discussed *inter alia* by B.S. Uehling (1981); P. Shrivastava (1983); and D. Michael (1973).

Organizational development planning is attractive because of its humanistic experimentation and flexibility. However, it is also utopian in its failure to come to terms with the discord between personal and organizational needs and desires. It assumes (often erroneously) that deeply ceded value and organizational differences can be harmoniously resolved by dialogue among persons who, generally, do not have the technical expertise to outline, explicitly, the alternative available to solve the problems under discussion. In times of restraints, organizations must make hard

7

choices. It cannot be assumed that any agreement on planned change, in conditions of restraint, will be freely accepted by the adversely affected groups. The willing and complacent victim is not a common figure in universities.

CASE STUDIES—METHODOLOGY

Inasmuch as no planning model has been judged best practice, the planning characteristics of each of three institutions were compared with the characteristics of five planning models. The case studies were intended not only to analyze and interpret planning practice but also to refine and adapt planning theory in university settings. The universities selected all had sufficient planning experience to permit a retrospective analysis. Although they share a bicameral system of governance there were important differences pertaining to enrollment levels, planning approaches, and geographic settings.

Interviews were conducted with various "key" planning participants at the universities. These participants included: academic administrators for their role in shaping academic policies and planning; executive level staff because of their pivotal roles in budgeting and its linkages to planning, and senior planning officials as a result of their direct, substantive and ongoing involvement in planning. The analysis addressed documentary evidence and then interview evidence, in three progressively more detailed iterations.

In describing and analyzing the decisions and processes of the universities, an initial set of documents were analyzed and exploratory interviews were conducted. Concomitantly, the five major planning models from the planning literature were analyzed to provide a framework within which to couch information derived from the second and third rounds of interviews and all documents and materials. The same format was followed in all three case studies. Planning characteristics of each university were analyzed and compared.

In analyzing and describing planning characteristics of each university, planning participants interviewed were differentiated according to senior and lower levels to represent a grouping method in the executive/staff hierarchy. The interview format was formulated, and the interview form was pretested and modified based on results. The second and third round of interviews were then conducted. The interview format questions were classified according to the following four aspects: ends of planning; nature of planning; organization for planning; and planning environment. Interviewees were asked to look at each question according to the aspects and elaborate on their planning activity (ies) and approach to planning. Each interviewee looked at a list of structured answers (model answers were not always in same sequence) according to the four aspects as described in the planning literature of the five major planning models. Respondents were also asked to check the appropriate box(es) which most closely resembled planning at their institution.

Responses from planning participants were then compiled. The analysis served to distinguish between primary responses (i.e. answer most frequently selected) and secondary responses (i.e. less frequently chosen), and according to senior level (e.g. Chair of Senate/Board, President, Vice-Presidents) and according to lower level (e.g. Directors, Associate Vice-Presidents, Deans, Chairs of Department, and Secretary of Senate/Board). The qualitative analysis served to identify specific substantive reasons and examples. The elaborations were taped. In order to quantify the results, each response per planning model aspect (or answer set) was assigned a value of one point. If the respondent selected more than one response per answer set, the responses were weighted (e.g. if respondent checked off two replies, each was assigned a value of 0.5; if two responses were checked off, but one ranked higher than the other, the replies were weighted accordingly, (e.g., 0.66, 0.33). This procedure ensured that responses did not receive undue weight while ensuring the distinctions made were reflected in analysis.

8

The data were then analyzed. The analysis drew upon the documentary evidence, the exploratory interviews, the elaborations of structured interviews, and the supplementary interviews. The distribution of responses was analyzed using a series of histograms. The histograms were used to assess whether there was general unanimity as to the planning characteristics or whether the informants, to a lesser or greater extent, disagreed. Common responses overall, and within and between senior and lower respondents, were intended to reflect value or opinion consensus, good communications, and good implementation potential.

The data were then interpreted by comparing planning experience against the planning models. The intention was to determine whether the blend of planning models evident at each university contained inherently incompatible elements. If the elements of the planning approach were consistent and mutually supportive, then the planning approach was considered more likely to be effective. However, if various elements of the planning worked at cross purposes, then the effectiveness of the effort could be seriously constrained.

The evaluation also included addressing the issue of the extent to which the ends for planning as documented and espoused were actually achieved. It also addressed the extent to which the planning process as documented and espoused corresponded with the planning process which occurred. In undertaking this evaluation it was recognized that there were serious limitations concerning the degree of precision possible. The documentation of which planning ends were achieved and whether they were a consequence of planning was, at best, extremely limited. Records of the planning processes as they actually occurred were even more fragmentary. The statements of ends tended to be very broad (e.g. excellence in education). Thus, the analysis of the extent to which ends were achieved is highly problematic. The institutions tended to produce long lists of objectives for planning but rarely produced more than extremely general overviews of the planning process envisioned. Consequently, the comparison of intended or espoused with actual planning process characteristics was constrained. This lack of documentation of either the planning process or its consequences is, of course, suggestive of a flawed planning process. However, the general implications and conclusions drawn provided useful, broad insights into the nature of university planning.

Data were then synthesized according to general observations and lessons about university planning and in terms of applications and extensions to the planning models.

CASE STUDIES—OBSERVATIONS AND LESSONS

Although the complete case study analysis cannot be presented in this article it is possible to derive several general observations and lessons. The case study universities, for example, had a reasonably well-defined sense of mission and frequently, lengthy lists of ambitious goals and objectives. Goals and objectives, however, tended to be too broadly defined to permit a systematic monitoring of the extent to which they were being attained. Priorities, moreover, were rarely defined nor was a timetable established for the realization of short or medium term objectives. A further general failing was the lack of a full appreciation of resources requirements, value divisions with the university community, and administrative inertia.

The planning process at the case study universities tended to be outlined in very broad terms. Consequently, it was often poorly understood by planning participants. In addition, planning process, as it occurred (i.e., paper trail), was very poorly documented. Without a clear record of the planning process it is difficult to identify and ameliorate weaknesses or to enhance strengths.

Planning of the case study universities was generally characterized by an almost naive belief in collegiality and the voluntary commitment of resources. Although a considerable effort was made to provide a diversity of formal and informal structures and procedures to foster planning

participation and to facilitate consensus-building, much less effort was devoted to the establishment of mechanisms to address highly divisive voices or to provide the communicative and creative skills for planning participants to function effectively in the planning process. These limitations were compounded by weakly developed systems for monitoring the relative effectiveness of the planning structures and procedures employed.

An especially problematic area tended to be interconnections among planning levels (e.g. university-wide vs. local unit), time horizons (e.g. short term vs. long term) and forms (e.g. academic vs. administrative planning). Although much was written about the need for such interconnections the evidence of measures to facilitate such interconnections was much less in evidence. In a similar fashion, although the need for flexibility and innovation was stressed, this acknowledgement was not extended to a systematic characterization of the internal and external planning environments such that the planning processes and structures could be designed and adapted to anticipate and respond to changing environmental conditions. As a consequence, the changes which were introduced tended to be less a reaction to environmental condition changes and more a shift in the preferences of those in pivotal planning positions.

CONCLUSIONS

The three case study universities are diverse and complex organizations. They are characterized by a wide array of values, interests, and expertise, a multiplicity of decision-making levels with short, medium and long-range implications, a collegial decision-making tradition, only moderate resources available for planning, and a turbulent planning environment.

The analysis confirmed that neither a single planning model nor a combination of models was selected and applied directly by university planning. Instead, what tended to occur in practice was that planning approaches were designed (or more frequently evolved) in response to the particular issues and circumstances at an institution. When planning approaches are formulated in this manner, they tend to exhibit characteristics of more than one planning model. Perceptions of planning characteristics also vary among planning participants. These non-deliberate blended planning models represent a realistic response to the planning environment. However, because they evolved and were largely developed without reference to the characteristics, strengths and limitations of the various planning models, as detailed in the higher education planning literature, there is a danger that they will contain contradictions and inconsistencies that may inhibit the planning effort.

The case study analysis, against the framework of the five major planning models, has assisted in theory building. However, further extensions beyond the ideal types represented by the models are still possible. For example, the rational planning model assumes that all aspects of the university's operation should be planned, and the incremental planning model assumes that very few aspects of the university's operations would be subject to planning. Similarly, the organizational development planning model stresses consensus building as the heart of planning, and both the advocacy and the incremental planning models see conflict as inherent to planning. It is important not to assume that each university should strive for middle ground between such extremes. Instead, for example, conflict accommodating and consensus building mechanisms and strategies are likely to be both necessary for different aspects of the university's operations and at different stages in the evolution of planning at the institution. Indeed, they may be considered complementary strategies within the same planning unit or activity. Similarly, some elements of the university's operation may require a more comprehensive planning treatment at particular junctures in time than others. However, the choice of the appropriate mix of structures and process can only be realized by a thorough understanding of the internal and external planning environments, systematic monitoring procedures, a commitment to substantive

rather than cosmetic planning efforts with direct connections to university decision-making, and lastly, but most importantly, a commitment to build upon the knowledge base represented by planning theory and reflective planning practice.

In terms of initiating a planning effort within a university, the strategic planning model is a reasonable point of departure, inasmuch as university planning practice has tended to mirror many of the characteristics of this planning model. However, university planning also needs to draw upon the other planning models. These models offer many important lessons for university planning, as exemplified by the incremental planning model, which points to the need for an improved understanding of the administrative/bureaucratic system of the university. The conscious blending of planning model aspects, while appreciating the need to guard against contradictory elements, can facilitate the design of planning to suit particular decision-making situations (e.g. the use of the rational planning model for technical planning situations).

The planning models in their present form are too conceptual for direct application in planning practice. These theory-practice gaps can be further narrowed through additional case studies; deliberately experimental planning initiatives which consciously blend and apply model-based approaches to specific planning problem types; a further effort to draw upon insights provided through social science, public policy, business management and educational planning research; and a particular effort to derive planning environment typologies (e.g. types of administrative structures) such that planning approaches could be more readily designed to fit particular classes of environmental characteristics.

As progress is made in the design and adaptation of basic planning approaches, the university can move to the next step of determining appropriate methods, strategies and tactics. It could also refine the concepts, models and frameworks to be used, determine the procedures and formal and informal structures to be established, and prepare guidelines and establish skills development programs. Interconnections among various elements of the planning programs could then be more readily identified and considered. Through the course of formulating and progressively refining the planning approach, adaptations will be necessary to suit institutional types (e.g. small liberal arts universities) as well as the unique characteristics of each institution. Plan formulation, refinement and application process must be highly iterative as it is extended towards and applied in practice. A systematic approach to monitoring and feedback through plan formulation and application is also critical to ensuring that the plan is both appropriate to the setting within which it is applied and that it evolves jointly with its internal and external environments.

In conclusion, the gulf between planning theory and practice remains wide. However, we need not be condemned to esoteric conceptual musings and loosely structured, anecdotal descriptions of practice. By combining and extending the available planning models through experimental planning initiative and by deriving and testing current and new models and frameworks through case studies, the promise exists to progressively formulate classes of planning approaches which are both theoretically rigorous and empirically relevant. What remains to be determined is whether the will exists to realize that potential.

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GOING BEYOND RHETORIC:
THE REALITIES OF SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING

Restructuring of education is essential if the United States is to keep, or perhaps more correctly, gain intellectual preeminence in the world. The highly technical nature of the world economy makes it imperative that we produce graduates who are far better educated than ever before (Tucker & Mandel, 1986).

The last time schools were restructured was in the mid-19th century when self-contained classrooms, grouping students by age, and the division of the curriculum into grade levels were introduced. Efforts to improve schools have occurred since that time, but with the aim of improving the existing structure.

As we enter the 1990s restructuring has replaced reform as the best hope for dramatically improving schools. Although many of the reform measures of the 1980's were well intentioned and helped set the stage for restructuring, they left out people at the grassroots level, and were naive about the complexities of school change.

Despite the fact that restructuring is now accepted as this nation's most important educational agenda, the idea remains sketchy in the minds of educators and leaders who have the responsibility to make it happen. The purpose of this paper is to describe what restructuring is, to discuss its basic premises, and to identify concrete components of restructuring which can serve as a guide to public school educators and researchers.

WHAT IS RESTRUCTURING?

There is much debate over just what the term "restructuring" means. According to Michael Kirst (Olsen, 1988, p.7) , "Restructuring means everything and nothing simultaneously . . . It is in the eye of the beholder."

The National Governor's Association maintains that restructuring should include a change in curriculum and instruction to include higher order thinking; decentralization of decision making; new roles for teachers, principals, and paraprofessionals; and accountability systems that link rewards and incentives to student performance (David, Purkey, & White, 1987) . The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) sees restructuring as a way of empowering teachers, while Sizer's Coalition of Essential Schools (Sizer, 1984) advocates changes in the character and mission of schools.

One definition of restructuring is, quite simply, a fundamental change of assumptions and practices that govern schools. Lynn Olsen (1988) further elaborates on this definition of restructuring: "At its heart, the notion of restructuring emerges from a deep seated and growing disenchantment with the current system, encompassing both the ways in which the teaching and learning occur and the management of the enterprise" (p.7).

Trying to refine and improve the old system does not constitute restructuring. Harvey and Crandall (1988) explain, "restructuring is not adding more of the same, tinkering around the edges, or even making significant improvements in the current structure" (p.8).

Clearly, educators and policymakers must go beyond such surface level questions as "What are we doing?" to probe more deeply into the thought processes, conditioning, and motivations that have made schools the way they are. If educators and policymakers fail to extend their thinking, restructuring will be a hopeless cause. Changing the level of thinking requires a recognition that there is "structure," or habit, if you will, to the way we think.· What is needed is a severing of ties that bind us to old systems that have lost their effectiveness.

BASIC PREMISES OF RESTRUCTURING

There are several basic premises of restructuring that provide a foundation for altering attitudes about education and create mindsets which will facilitate action over mere rhetoric. These premises serve as a base for the specific components of restructuring discussed later in the paper, and are associated with changes in the school organizational culture—the beliefs, values, roles, and norms commonly associated with schools.

Restructuring Calls for Paradigm Shifts in our Thinking About Education

As Albert Einstein said, "the changes needed require a whole new level of thinking and more." The changes needed in education must not be minor ones which maintain the status quo, but a total transformation that requires us to accept the possibility of a different order of things. Ferguson (1981) describes four ways in which organizations change:

(1)   Change by exception
(2)   Incremental change
(3)   Pendulum change
(4)   Paradigm change.

The school reform movement of the 1980s participated in incremental and pendulum type changes which had little impact on schools. Ferguson (1981) goes on to say that paradigm changes are the most challenging because they relinquish certainty, and include different interpretations from different perspectives at different times. In a paradigm change, previously held views are only part of the picture, and what is currently known is only part of what will be known later.

Goodlad (1987) also describes the need for paradigm shifts in education. This alternative perspective includes a reorientation of such magnitude that virtually nothing of one's previous world view remains. A few examples of paradigm shifts needed in education include multiple interactions rather than one way directives, leadership by knowledge rather than authority, and inquiring behavior rather than mandated behavior.

The predicament in which education finds itself today is one where the old way of doing things is so ingrained in people's minds and habits that change is blocked, leading to a multitude of problems.

What is needed is for a number of paradigm shifts to sweep across education beginning with a fundamental change of mission for schools. Once a new mission is established, literally hundreds of adjoining paradigm shifts can begin to happen.

Restructuring Schools Means Doing Many of the Same Kinds
of Restructuring Happening in Business and Industry

Industry began its restructuring efforts a decade ago. It is time for education to follow suit. This is not to say that there have not been previous efforts to restructure schools. In the 1960s and 1970s a rather large effort was made to fundamentally change schools. But the public, along with many educators, was not ready for a major restructuring of schools, especially given the fact that it was seen as "liberal" in a turbulent era. Times have changed and a large segment of the public now wonders why schools have not restructured in much the same manner as business and industry.

Examples of ways that the private sector has restructured include creating performance improvement programs, developing human resources, job sharing, establishing work teams, eliminating waste, flattening the organization, and incorporating new technology. One of the most important things schools can do to mirror successful business restructuring is to create a strategic plan that focuses the entire organization on a well defined mission, a few shared values, and clear priorities.

Experts in corporate change, such as Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1989), have shown that a new kind of organization is needed to make restructuring happen. In order to follow suit with the business world, the centralized control of schools must be replaced with participatory management. The new breed of educational leader will operate from a completely different value system than his or her predecessors. These new leaders will utilize participatory management not because it is fashionable, but because it is essential to effective change. The top down model made sense in maintaining the status quo, but is virtually useless in building a shared commitment to change and quality improvement.

Restructuring Should Bring About Changes in
Roles, Responsibilities, and Reward Systems for Educators

There are a variety of efforts currently underway to restructure the teaching profession. The Holmes Group (1986) and the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) are two groups that are examining the roles and responsibilities of teachers. Inherent in these and other reports is the belief that teachers should be more involved in the decision making process, and have more leadership opportunities and better enhanced compensation structures.

In addition, the role of the teacher needs to be altered from one of providing information to the learner to that of facilitator of learning. This transformation for teachers will necessitate retraining and different preservice training at the university level. Included in a new model of training must be an emphasis on preparing teachers to assume decision making and leadership roles within schools. It is imperative that teachers share in the governance of schools in more than a superficial manner.

In order to attract and retain strong candidates to the teaching profession, working conditions and salaries should also change. Currently the environment in which teachers exist is one of isolation, a lack of collegiality, and little time for planning, conferencing, and other professional responsibilities. Salaries for teachers are still based on length of time in the system. Where merit pay and career ladder models are in place, teachers continue to have very traditional roles, few leadership opportunities, and non-competitive salaries.

Restructuring is Both Bottom Up and Top Down

It is time for greater cooperation between educators, politicians, business people, and community members. Different agendas between these constituencies will only further divide groups and create more confusion around the concept of restructuring. Those concerned with educational quality have wasted much of their energy in fingerpointing, obstructing and blaming. Real improvement will come when groups unite around a common mission and then work at both the grassroots and statehouse levels to create positive change.

Three things need to happen immediately. First, educators at the grassroots level should create bold initiatives at the school level, and then seek support for them. Second, legislators need to think in terms of creating conditions that make school creativity possible, as opposed to trying to mandate excellence. Because education is a state function, states have considerable influence in shaping educational policy. Third, parents, community members, business people, and university professors need to become highly involved in schools. This necessitates spending time in schools to acquire first hand information. There is a great deal of rhetoric concerning how to improve education, but much of it lacks any first-hand knowledge.

Restructuring Must Produce Short-Term and Long-Term Results

A short-term improvement of educational performance is essential because America is losing ground with the rest of the world financially and intellectually. As Cohen (1990) states,

"Because of changes in the U.S. economy, maintaining a high standard of living in the future will require greater intellectual competence and flexibility" (p. 255). Furthermore, business people and the general public want results now and are not willing to continue to invest in education without tangible outcomes.

In respect to the long term, a set of goals and performance assessments should be established that would earn the respect of the public if students could achieve them. After these goals and assessments are set, schools must begin to show steady progress toward their achievement by larger segments of the student population.

THE KEY COMPONENTS OF RESTRUCTURING

Leaders in today's schools need practical guidelines to assist them in the challenging and difficult endeavor of restructuring. Utilizing the basic premises discussed earlier, we have identified ten components of restructuring that may serve as a guide for educational leaders. These components may be grouped into three categories: visionary, productivity, and collaborative elements.

Vision Elements

1. Setting a new mission for schools. The absence of a broad consensus about the purpose of schooling has created a patchwork of programs designed to meet various demands (Timar, 1989). Blame for this predicament must be equally shared among those concerned with the enhancement of public education. We have allowed the pendulum to swing from conservative to progressive with the average person riding whatever bandwagon was prominent.

The fundamental problem with our educational system is the lack of a clear and appropriate mission. Successful companies know precisely what business they are in. American education needs to do likewise. Replacing the antiquated mission of dispensing information with a new and different mission is the first step toward successful restructuring. Many schools have failed to establish a mission, and when they have, it has not been significantly different than the past and failed to hold meaning for students, parents, teachers, and community members.

A more appropriate mission for public schools in the 21st century is one where the focus is on the total growth and development of the individual. More specifically, four areas of growth include learning, thinking, searching for meaning, and building values. If schools emphasize growth as the primary mission, the development of character, integrity, and self-esteem becomes just as important as academic achievement.

2. Reorganizing the school to fit the mission. Once the mission is firmly established and stakeholders support and value it, the school must begin to reorganize the structure, programs and practices within the school to fit the new mission. If the mission is to facilitate the full development of the student, examples of reorganization might include teams of teachers working with students for multiple years, schools within schools, and performance based models that replace the Carnegie Unit system.

3. Realign curriculum, instruction, and assessment to fit the mission. Shifting the mission of schooling away from dispensing information requires changes in curriculum, instruction, and assessment. For example, curriculum and instruction will need to be designed with greater emphasis on thoughtful inquiry and conceptual themes, rather than on memorization of fragmented material. These changes will in turn lead to new forms of assessment. In the industrial model when the purpose of schools was dispensing information, it was logical to rely on tests of memory. When the mission is broader and performance oriented, actual demonstrations are the only valid criteria to ascertain progress.

Productivity Elements

4. Enhance the teaching profession. The most valuable human resource in schools is teachers, yet despite efforts to improve the profession in recent years, their position lacks status and respect. Enhancing the profession is composed of four things:

a) Empowering teachers to make decisions affecting their work
b) Improving working conditions so that time is available to reflect and interact and to engage in professional development activities
c) Creating a professional hierarchy of teaching
d) Redefining the role of teacher from dispenser of information to facilitator of growth.

5. Implement school-centered decision-making. School-centered decision-making serves restructuring better than a centralized model because it allows the flexibility needed for creative change; expands ownership in the school; increases accountability, and generates greater responsiveness to the community (Fullan, 1982; Wissler, D. & Ortiz, F., 1988). Successful businesses around the world recognize the importance of supporting decentralized initiatives and flattening the organization (Kanter, 1989). It makes sense for schools to do likewise.

6. Expand the use of technology. The restructuring of schools for the information age must include a more active use of technology in all forms, especially the use of computers. The enormous potential of these tools has not been adequately tapped because of limited availability and the inability or unwillingness of teachers to accept them as valuable tools. Changing the role of the teacher from dispenser of information to facilitator of learning will require greater use of technology.

7. Provide excellent service. A commitment to excellence is missing in many schools. Not only is it missing in some schools, but it is missing in business and industry as well. Peters (1987) has mentioned how infrequently one encounters excellence from business, and continues by saying that "a barrage of tiny positives can overwhelm the customer" (p.66). If restructured schools are to achieve higher performance they must become places where superlative service and responsiveness to clients is a cultural norm.

Community Elements

8. Increase parent and community involvement. A strong link is needed between home, school, and community in order to make a difference in the lives of students. Many states have recently mandated that parents be involved in the governance of the school. These mandates may work well to get parents present, but there is something more important than simply getting parents to attend meetings. Schools must once again be viewed as the hub of the community so that people come together voluntarily much like in rural areas. The institutions which have served this purpose in the past have deteriorated, leaving people in a state of social isolation. Education needs parents and communities that are meaningfully involved. This means that schools may need to reexamine the manner in which they expect parents to be involved in the education of their children.

9. Build collaborative relationships. A big challenge for restructured schools is to build teamwork and unity where it has previously been lacking. Teachers, students, parents, businesses, and universities need to bind together around a common vision for a school.

A wide array of untapped resources exists within businesses and universities. With the current emphasis on improving schools and educating the future workforce, businesses are waiting to become genuinely involved in restructuring efforts. Business involvement should go beyond financial assistance to include volunteer efforts such as mentoring, serving on councils, becoming involved in performance assessments, and providing opportunities for students to intern in settings outside the school.

17

10. Provide extended services. The changing nature of families and society makes extended services crucial. The prevalence of both parents working, single parent homes, and many students working virtually full time makes extended services such as daycare and evening school a necessity. Schools must be extensions of the community where other services such as social service agencies also reside within school boundaries. The important point is that schools should be viewed as places that represent the importance of lifelong learning and growth, not just schooling for children from 8 a.m. to 3 p.m.

BUILDING UNITY TO MAKE RESTRUCTURING HAPPEN

A central question is how to build unity to make restructuring happen. There are many stakeholders involved in the education of youth in this country. While this country prides itself on being a "melting pot," the reality is that there are many different cultures that wish to retain their identities, and many competing interests about what is best for education and society. These factors make the term "unity" seem like an impossibility.

But unity among stakeholders is possible. The America 2000 Program provides a glimmer of hope in building unity among various constituencies to improve the quality of education in this country. This program encourages community groups to come together to develop local strategies to reach the national goals. Community groups include representatives from business, government, social service agencies, parents, educators, and students. The important point is that the strategies for reaching the national goals are developed by local communities. What works for one may not work for another.

While the America 2000 program focuses on how to reach the National Education Goals, a similar approach can be taken by individual schools in the implementation of the ten components of restructuring outlined in this paper. Parents, business representatives, other community groups, and professional educators need to come together to reach consensus on what the mission of the school should be. Once the mission is in place, these groups can begin to assure that the curriculum, instructional strategies, and assessment are aligned with the mission. Building collaboration can be a natural outcome if curriculum and instructional strategies are changed. Strategies for improving technology and service, for example, can evolve from an in-depth focus on what the mission of the school should be. Implementing a school-centered decision-making model is one way to get involvement and build ownership in the final outcome.

Although many strategies may be developed to make restructuring happen, it takes meaningful involvement of stakeholders to sustain real change. It is crucial that professional educators take the first steps toward establishing ways for communities to be involved. If stakeholders do not unite around a common mission, there is little hope that we can improve the quality of education in this country.

SUMMARY

Restructuring public schools offers great hope for dramatically changing education and ultimately society. There will be several positive consequences if schools undergo massive changes. A few of these include prevalence of both excellence and equity; a renewed interest in the profession of teaching so that the best and brightest desire to enter; and a learning environment that is thoughtful and based on an atmosphere of inquiry for teachers, students and others in the learning community. Clearly, the restructuring of schools holds great promise for what education can and should be. The task now is to get all stakeholders to unite around a common vision for education.

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PLANNING TO OPEN A NEW SCHOOL? THREE STEPS TO SUCCESS

Too often the planning of a school facility stops when the mortar dries and the human elements, students and faculty, occupy the facility without the benefit of a plan or the awareness of how to deal with the problems that inevitably arise. In fact, the planning for a school facility usually does not even consider the actual opening and occupation of the school facility.

The physical completion of a new school facility is not an end, but a beginning. The purpose of constructing the new school is to provide a better educational environment for students. However, such a purpose will not occur naturally. Effective planning for the opening of a new school produces an environment in which teachers can teach and students can learn effectively and efficiently. The school facility is an instructional tool and as such, it may either enhance or detract from the educational program. Effective planning is the key component in opening the new school if it is to provide optimal support for the total educational program.

Christopher (1990) reported that the American Institute of Architects Committee on Architecture for Education explored the question of how architecture affects education. Among its findings were that some of the schools studied showed a 20% improvement in test scores the first year they were open as compared to the previous year in a different facility. This is a firm indication of the need to plan well for the opening of a new school.

The success or failure of how a new school opens or is perceived to open depends in a large measure upon the school system's ability to organize, prepare and communicate effectively with all interested parties. The effective opening of a new school will indicate to the community that the school is being conducted in a manner which is in the best educational interests of the students and that it is a positive influence on the community as well as on the students.

The effective opening of a new school is paramount in light of The Educational Writers Association report, *Wolves At the Schoolhouse Door* (1989), which found that 25% of the school facilities in use in the United States were very inadequate in terms of physical condition. Thirty-three percent of the schools were found to be adequate, but quickly aging in both physical condition and ability to house current educational programs. That leaves only 42% of the schools in this nation as being in good condition and meeting the educational program needs. The report further states that 61% of the schools were in dire need of major maintenance/repairs in 1989, 42% had serious environmental hazards, and 13 percent were structurally unsound.

Well-conceived and well-developed strategies for opening new schools help eliminate mistakes which would jeopardize the relationship which schools need with the parents and community. Conversely, a haphazardly-planned opening destroys the morale of the community as well as that of the students and teachers.

REALITY: WHAT HAPPENS WHEN PLANNING IS INADEQUATE?
Two real life incidents will vividly illustrate the point that well conceived and well developed strategies are an absolute necessity for the successful opening of a new school. The names of the respective schools and principals have been changed to protect them from further pain and grief.
Disastrous Assumptions
A high school opened in an affluent, upper-middle to upper-class school district. The principal had been involved in a previous school opening in the district as an assistant principal. However, for whatever reasons, lessons were not learned. There were no efforts during the day that the majority of teachers and students saw the interior of the school was one week before the first day of classes when the students picked up their class schedules. Attention was not given

to the arrival of buses versus private vehicles.

The first day of school was a total, unequivocal disaster. The buses and the private cars competed for the same lanes to drop off students resulting in ill tempers and one collision. The students had no idea where their classes were since no school map had been developed. The faculty was unprepared for a school design that funneled students to one major stairway in the two-story school. The cafeteria had not been set up with adequate tables to feed the number of students on each lunch shift. Perhaps most damaging was the discovery that approximately one-half of the student schedules were in error. The teachers' master schedule did not match the students' schedules.

The principal had made the assumption that the staff he had hired knew how to begin a new school year, implying they knew how to open a new school successfully. One does not imply the other. The result of this disastrous opening was that the principal lasted one year and then moved to another district. The school went through four principals in the first four years of occupation. The community, and for that matter many of the district's school personnel, viewed the school as being inferior academically. The test scores did not validate that view, but the community attitudes did. It took approximately ten years for the school to finally be considered a strong academic school.

Right Doors, Wrong Keys

An elementary school was set to open in August. The principal had conducted tours of the school for parents, students and teachers throughout the summer with the permission of the contractor as finishing touches were being applied to the school. The rooms had always been unlocked for the tours.

On the first day of school, the teachers discovered that the keys they had been issued did not unlock their classroom doors. Additionally, the custodians discovered that their keys did not open the multipurpose room. The only keys that worked opened the outside doors to the school. The students were required to stay on the playground the entire morning. Finally, the contractor brought the master key he had to the school to open the doors. Unfortunately, his master key did not match the master key provided to the principal nor did the keys match the locks installed on the interior doors to the school.

Until the key problem was resolved, no interior doors could be locked at the end of each school day. Therefore, a decision was made not to issue books and supplies to the students. The result was a highly irate group of parents questioning what type of planning had taken place that prevented their children from receiving adequate educational books and supplies. The other question raised had to do with how the principal could accept keys for a building without assurance that they fit the doors.

The end result was that the school board for one year was faced with parents questioning the quality of the school. The key problem simply gave parents who were unhappy with any aspect of the school an opportunity to charge the school district and the principal with not being attuned to the needs of their children. The principal resigned after one year.

In both instances described above, proper planning would have prevented these disasters from occurring. In all probability, the principals would have kept their jobs and the schools would have been considered in a positive light from the first day of classes.

OPENING AND OCCUPYING THE NEW SCHOOL FACILITY

Lane (1985) has made a number of suggestions, based on research, for opening a new school facility. These can provide a great deal of organization for the district and the programs which will utilize the new facility. One of the most important recommendations is that the principal who opens a new secondary school needs to be named to the position of principal a minimum

of nine months prior to the first day of classes in the new facility. The principal is handicapped if given less time in planning and preparing for the new school to open. The principal also needs to be involved in the planning of the new school prior to the architect designing it. The principal should be appointed at a time when working closely with the superintendent, board and architect in planning the design can be a reality. The principal would then be developing the rationale for the designs in the new school and could communicate better with the staff, students, parents, and community about the new school.

Whatever the decision on the naming of the principal, opening a school effectively consists of three steps. First, a checklist of areas of concerns that must be handled in opening the new school is compiled. Second, a timeline is developed to indicate when the area of concern should be addressed. Third, strategies are developed to handle each area of concern. These comprehensive steps will produce effective results in the achievement of students.

Checklist

A checklist of concerns which a school system and a principal can use in opening a new school provides a foundation for developing strategies to effectively plan the opening of a new school. This information enables a school system and a principal to foresee and correct problems before they become community issues which appear unsolvable and have the potential of dividing the community. Additionally, this insight would minimize the obstacles to the efficient use of time and personnel in opening a new school.

A checklist would help insure that an important area of concern in the preparation for the physical move into and the actual occupation of the new school is not forgotten or overlooked. It would be helpful if the checklist is chronological in order to match the timetable to be developed. The following checklist is a sample of concerns which must be addressed in opening a new school:

-Define your role in opening the new school
-Conduct monthly tours of the school while it is under construction
-Print maps (floorplans) of the school facility
-Determine student traffic flow within the cafeteria
-Determine bus loading/unloading procedures for students
-Determine private vehicle loading/unloading procedures for students
-Receive and store supplies, furniture and textbooks
-Distribute supplies, furniture and textbooks
- Send information to community newspaper on school opening status
-Organize keys for distribution to staff
-Receive as-built drawings for the school facility
-Receive instruction on how heating/cooling equipment operates
-Have telephones installed
-Receive warranties on equipment from architect and/or contractor
-Clean the school facility completely
-Complete landscaping
-Program and test bell system

The above list is not all-inclusive. A checklist should be tailored to a school by adding or deleting items appropriate for the school.

Timeline

A timeline needs to be established to enable the school system and the principal to address concerns in an orderly, organized fashion in order to have a smooth transition into the new school. An example of a timeline is shown in Table 1.

The timeline must be adapted to the individual school situation. The date the school board confirms the principal will affect the timeline from the standpoint of the principal being able to adequately plan for the opening of the new school.

Table 1   *Timetable Sample*

Checklist item	Months prior to first day of school 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Weeks prior to first day of school 4 3 2 1	First Day 0	Weeks after first day of school 1 2 3 4	Months after first day of school 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Define the role of the principal	X				
Determine the bus loading and unloading of pupils	X				
Distribute the furniture		X			
Clean the facility prior to opening day	X———————————				
Landscape the grounds		X------------			

Sratagies

After having compiled a cheklist of concerns, stategies can then be devised to handle the concerns. These stratagies can be developed primarily through reliance on previous experiences, by communicating with school systems and principals who have opened new schools and by researching the professional journals for articles on school facilities. Sample stratagies addressing specific areas of concern include:

Distribute the furniture

(1) The principal needs to designate one person to be in charge of distributing the furniture. This person shoud be the same as the one in charge of receiving the storage if at all possible. The designated person needs to have a basic list book which details the furniture needed for each room in the new school. An index card can be placed on each room door indicating the number of teacher desks, teacher chairs, student chairs, student desks, tables, wastepaper baskets and other equipment need to be placed in the room. As the furniture is moved into the room, the person actually moving the furniture initials the item on the card as it is placed in the room. In this inventory for each room and department within the school, adjustments can then be made while maintaining an accurate inventory.

(2)The designated person cannot move all of the furniture alone but must be able to delegate responsibility for moving furniture to custodians, staff, district maintenance people, or others.

(3) Parent volunteers and student volunteers can be used to move furniture. The result is a group of people who take pride in the new school because they helped prepare it for opening.

(4) If furniture is to be moved from the present school to the new school, a moving plan can be developed involving the teachers and the students but the principal should obtain the permission of the parents and check with the superintendent on insurance regulations before instituting it. A moving day is planned. Each student is assigned to a teacher. The number of students per teacher depends upon the amount of furniture and equipment the teacher needs to move. Each teacher is assigned a pick-up truck, stock trailer, or long-bed truck. The students and staff then move the furniture. The school district needs to provide as much help as physically possible on the moving day. The community can be involved by providing sandwiches and drinks for the staff and students. Parent volunteers can also be used. Using this method, all of the furniture and equipment can be moved and placed in position at the new school in one day.

Clean the Facility Prior to Opening Day

(1) If the school is completed and has been released to the school district prior to the opening day of school, cleaning is usually simpler to manage. Assignments can be made with the custodians and school district maintenance to clean windows, floors, carpets, and walls where needed. A time schedule with a checklist to indicate areas cleaned is useful to insure the entire campus has been covered. The time schedule with the checklist works best when the lead or head custodian has input.

(2) If the school is partially completed and certain areas are released to the school district by the contractor, cleaning is more difficult due to the tracking of dirt and dust in the air. It is not unusual for areas to be cleaned more often than normal until construction is completed. When the areas completed are released to the school district, a time schedule with the check list as mentioned above can be designed. The schedules must be revised each time an additional portion of the school is released to the school district.

Landscape the Grounds

(1) Develop a detailed plan for landscaping even if money is not available to do everything the plan indicates. The items can be listed in priority order so that they can be installed as money becomes available. The detailed plans need to include the estimated cost of the landscaping materials. As much landscaping as possible needs to be done before the new school opens to prevent tracking of mud and dirt into the school.

(2) The community, individuals, and clubs are generally enthusiastic about landscaping a new school. If and when they offer assistance in purchasing and/or planting trees and shrubs, the estimated cost and landscaping plans are available to answer their questions.

(3) If the school district lacks the funds to landscape a new secondary school, a purchase plan can be developed involving the community, staff, parents, and students. The landscaping plan with estimated costs is made available. They then can purchase items on the plan and have them planted in honor of, memory of, or recognition of someone. The principal can then have their names published in the local newspaper to indicate appreciation for their support of the new school.

(4) Have a landscaping day where staff, student, and parent volunteers plant the trees and shrubs that have been purchased. Sandwiches and drinks can be prepared by volunteers. The principal should be on hand to surpervise the project and answer any questions which may arise.

These strategies must be adapted for one's specific school situation. Strategies developed to handle areas of concern will prove invaluable in avoiding problems and improving the efficiency of the school opening.

SUMMARY

Opening a new school should be an uplifting and positive experience for both the community and the school system. The planning and development of a checklist, strategies, and a timeline to open the new school will be a tremendous stride forward in having an effective school where teachers can teach and students can learn.

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PLANNING AN EDUCATION MASTER'S DEGREE IN A MEXICAN PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITY

This article describes the planning of a Master's Degree in Education, to be implemented in Ciudad Juarez, on the northern border of Mexico.

ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

The initial step in the planning process was to conduct an environmental scan of both national and regional social, economic, and educational characteristics and trends. Additionally, this scan studied the existing educational programs and the institutional frameworks within which these programs were offered. The environmental scan focused on some of the peculiar characteristics of the border between Mexico and the United States. For instance: the economic interdependence; industrialization patterns and trends; the anticipated Free Trade Agreement involving Mexico, the United States, and Canada; and the interaction of students with these two cultures and with the unique border situation.

NATIONAL CONTEXT

The Mexican economy is currently rated around 18th among the 150 independent countries, giving it economic prominence far beyond its relative geographic or demographic size. Part of this economy supports more than 25 million students, at various levels of the educational system.

During the 1980s, the Mexican economy practically did not grow. The growth of the Gross National Product during these years was measured in negative rates, yet the country's population grew by more than ten million inhabitants. It was the worst peacetime national crisis of the century. As a consequence, personal income fell and real wages produced a minimal acquisition capacity approximating that of the 1930s.

The previous 22 years were characterized by persistent economic development at very high rates, virtually without inflation, monetary devaluation, or foreign exchange controls. They produced a diversified industrial base, changed from a rural to an urban society, developed a modern, efficient structure of financial and social security, and built both communications and transportation infrastructures. These processes came to a halt with the economic crisis of the 1980s. Meanwhile, several new elements were introduced by the economic crisis, including a high level of external debt, economic dependence on oil and gas production, unequal development of agricultural activities in favor of urban and industrial growth, and a high concentration of national income versus salaries. In summation, the crisis became one of developmental style.

By the middle of the 1980s, a new style of development was implemented. The new, liberal monetary economic policy replaced the traditional public sector role and oriented the economy to foreign markets. More than 600 public enterprises were sold to the private sector, among them the telephone system and national banks. Policies and mechanisms of industrial protectionism disappeared, resulting in average external trade tariffs of less than 10%. Wages were frozen and the entire economy became reoriented to international trade.

Currently, Mexico is negotiating a Free Trade Agreement with the United States and Canada. The United States is the primary partner in all of the external economic relationships for Mexico, traditionally representing around two-thirds of exports, imports, tourism, external debt, foreign investment, and technological exchange. This United States presence permeates all Mexican life, both economically and culturally, despite the enormous differences in developmental levels between the two nations (Casanova, 1987).

In order to understand better the kind of relationship between both nations, it is necessary to examine the structures that define this relationship. This structure, in the translated words of Mario Ojeda, is characterized, at the least, by three basic elements that affect considerably the pattern of the negotiations of different matters. Those basic elements are as follows: 1) territorial contiguity (which creates strategic military implications, resulting in an obvious limitation for Mexico's *de facto* autonomy); 2) power asymmetry (meaning that Mexico is a weaker partner in the relationship); and 3) economic and technological dependency by Mexico on the United States (with a loss of Mexican self-respect due to the decision-making of the government in Washington, D.C. and to the transnational enterprises) (Ojeda, 1981).

Among the 150 independent nations, Mexico occupies eleventh place in population, thirteenth in territory, eighteenth in economic production, and has a disproportionately high level of personal income relative to the other developing nations. However, the United States occupies first place in economic and military development, and fourth in geographic extension. This dominance by the United States influences the economic integration of all Mexico. The northern border, specifically, is already involved in and behaves in accordance with the economic cycles of the United States. These trends will obviously increase with the Free Trade Agreement. The role of educational institutions will be crucial in this process if Mexico is ever to escape from a schema in which it is characterized as a simple supplier of cheap labor. The demand for education, research, and the formation of quality teachers for institutions of higher education is a central factor in the economic and social decisions of the near future. It is within this immediate context that the proposal for a new Master of Education program is situated.

During the past few decades, the educational system grew at very rapid rates. Today, higher education in Mexico serves more than 1,200,000 students, ranging across a broad spectrum of bachelor and graduate degree programs. There are approximately 400 institutions of higher education in the country, with more than 700 different undergraduate majors.

By the year 2000, Mexico expects to have between 99 and 109 million inhabitants, depending on whether the annual rate of growth through the end of the current century approximates 1.8% or 2.2%. Today, 34% of the population is less than 15 years old; in the year 2000, this proportion will be reduced to 28%. At the same time, the post-elementary proportion of students is predicted to rise from its present level of 12% to 28% or 30% (Prawda, 1987).

This author estimates that the total enrollment of higher education will triple by the year 2000. Currently, higher education enrolls only 4.8% of all students enrolled in Mexico's educational system, but this will increase to 12.2% or 13.3% by the year 2000. During the same period, the number of graduate students will increase from 34,000 to 263,000.

The strong national endeavor that will be demanded carries with it multiple challenges. To become a nation with a modern economy, with social development and a democratic political system, Mexico must overcome the traditional educational deficits in its adult population.

Other important factors that will undoubtedly affect Mexico's future are the emergence of the Pacific Rim, on which the nation also is geographically situated. As a consequence of this geographic position, the country must enter both competitive and complementary links with the other Pacific nations. This area will become of paramount importance in the next few years. In the year 2000, Asia's population will represent two-thirds of the entire world population, while Europe will only represent 6%. Since 1960, the Pacific has been the most important ocean in world trade, much as the Atlantic was previously and as the Mediterranean was centuries ago. This process seems unquestionable and the trend certain to continue.

As Marcos Kaplan (1990) correctly stated,

> since the 1970s, the world sees an increase in transpacific commerce and a
> relative decline in transatlantic commerce. Those changes are accompanied by

a redistribution within the United States of population, employment, personal income, living standards and services, investment, and human resources, the displacement of which mutually reinforce each other to produce multiplier effects. This redistribution is occurring from the north and east of the United States to the west and southwest and is translating into the emergence of macrostates such as California, Florida, and Texas (p. 231).

The consequences of this process bear multiple implications, because, as Kaplan states, "the economic dimension must be situated within the wider perspective of the new world division of work, its nature, and implications" (Ibid, 232). This world division of work is both a component and a result of the huge mutation of capitalism, which has occurred over the past few decades. Its manifestation and advance through stages of acceleration and deeper structural transformation of the developed capitalist nations has been characterized by the spread of a specific model of growth and neocapitalist modernization, the industrialization of a great number of third-world nations through import substitution and export orientation, restructuring projects to integrate an important part of the world economy and, with that, the integration of national politics, and changes in international relations.

In the coming stages of this transformation, the role of education will be crucial, as pointed out by the authors of *Megatrends 2000*. The challenges to Mexico will be very significant; it will be very difficult to attain outcomes similar to those of the educational systems of Japan, the United States, and the "five tigers" (Naisbitt & Aburdanes, 1990).

THE UNITED STATES-MEXICAN BORDER

The implications of the economic development pattern of the country are quite different for Mexico's northern border. Since 1965, the Federal Government has created the Border Industrialization Program, which has become known as the "maquila" program, characterized by offshore or "twin" plants. The success of this regional program was later extended to the rest of the country, but remains as the main source of local employment along the border and an important vehicle for foreign investment. Currently, Juarez's 240 firms and 140,000 workers employed in this "maquila" industry system represent the main focus of the regional economy.

The interaction of both countries' borders; the interchange of work force members, as commuters and as legal and illegal migrations; the traffic of goods between the two nations; and the purchase and sales of services and technology have integrated the economies and social lives of both sides of the border into a unique unit. As Castaneda (1989) explains: if the panorama is considered product by product, or service by service, possibly the border could be an abstraction, but considering the creation of an economic continuum—unique and truly integrated, with a free flow of goods and services, capital and workforce, in both directions—rather than an abstraction, it appears to be a definite element determining the mechanisms and patterns of consumption, investment, and price determination (Castaneda & Pastor, 1989, pp 376-77).

In this context, with all the countries of the world offering work and demanding investment, with instant communications—visual, oral, auditory, and textual — there is a tendency to fragment production processes into very small units. With the support of a scientific and technological revolution, firms are capable of sending abroad those units characterized as highly labor intensive, thus enabling them to attain the same levels of productivity, with the advantage of low labor costs. This international movement defines roles, functions, and possibilities, making education a crucial factor along the border region.

INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher educational institutions of Mexico have three main objectives: to teach, to conduct research, and to provide cultural extension to the environment. In the specific case of Ciudad Juarez, the institutions involved in the planned Master's degree program project share these same purposes, with some minor differences according to their particular areas of specialization.

The University serves those roles in as broad a sense as possible. The Technological Institute is specifically oriented to technical and engineering areas, whereas the National Pedagogical University focuses on the development of elementary school teachers and related purposes. While the University is autonomous, the latter two institutions are centralized and depend administratively on the federal government. This virtually means that to create a local program involving these institutions, there must also be coordination at the highest federal level, between both the University and the central authorities. These same normative rules also exist on a national scale, e.g., the Educational Modernization Program of 1989-1994 and the National Program of Graduate Studies.

BACKGROUND TO PROJECT

Seven years ago, the Technological Institute canceled its Master's degree in Education, which had been in operation for four years. Among the reasons leading to that decision was the existence in Ciudad Juarez of a similar degree at the University and a commitment by the national technological system to concentrate its graduate studies in areas related to technological education. After several years of this centralized program, it had become apparent that only a few of the local instructors were able to travel to the distant city of Queretaro, where the center had been established. This created problems for the Technological Institute in Ciudad Juarez in being able to prepare its own personnel and helped to justify the establishment of a Master's degree program at the University.

For the past seven years, the University of Juarez has offered a Master's degree in education. This program maintained the same basic curriculum during this period, serviced a relatively closed clientele of students (faculty and staff from the same university), and satisfied the most urgent needs of the local community. During this period, 76 students completed their Master's degree, with 31 of them successfully defending their theses. Of this group, 44 students from the initial two cohorts completed their studies, with 24 of these defending their theses. This represents 58% and 77%, respectively, of all students completing the program. Although the rate of performance on these two key indicators was very positive for these two cohorts, it began to decrease significantly after these initial two cohorts, resulting in a minimal completion rate and deteriorating quality of poor outcomes. A study conducted by the University found a lower rate of intensity, a general loss of social and academic prestige related to the degree, and a general lack of satisfaction among the current participants to be primary causes (UACJ, 1990).

Considering this background and after conducting an evaluation of all graduate programs, the University authorities decided to implement a radical change of curriculum, entrance requirements, and areas of specialization. Consequently, the University suspended the initial semester of the Master's program in education until such time as sufficient planning could be conducted.

This was a breakpoint in the ongoing process to structure the University's academic perspectives. Prior to this time, regional political forces figured very heavily in the decisions of the University, with the struggles and conflicts between and within political parties reflected throughout the University. Such issues continued to remain alive during this time period, but the new administration attempted to deal with them as academic points of view or educational theses.

More important even than local forces was a pendular swing in national educational policy, emphasizing the linking of educational institutions with the productive sector and other economic activities. As was stated in the last Graduate Studies National Congress: Mexico's agreement to participate in the GATT, the opening of international markets and the potential Free Trade Agreement with the United States and Canada, encourage Mexico to compete in a global economy, supported by innovations.

This assumes that the national development cannot be based on selling raw materials, nor on the efforts of an unskilled work force; such a policy would maintain the nation in a low standard of living. What would be necessary would be superior forms of production to the traditional handicraft forms of working, replacing these with a new form of economy based on the intensive use of knowledge and oriented to products with a higher aggregate value. In order to accomplish this, there is a strong need for highly qualified scientific and technological personnel. Consequently, under this scheme, graduate studies assume an increased importance for the modernization of the country (Abreu & Garritz, 1990).

LOCAL INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

During the middle 1960s, Ciudad Juarez, the fifth largest city in Mexico, had only a single center of higher education —a private agricultural school. On the United States side of the border, the only institution of higher education was Texas Western College, an engineering school specializing in mines and metallurgy. Both had been founded during the first decade of the century and had survived with relatively few changes. Compared to other cities of similar size, and to the needs of their local populations, these institutions did not appear adequate.

Suddenly, in the 1960s, higher education seemed to explode in the region. In Ciudad Juarez, the regional Technological Institute was founded (1965), as were the Autonomous University of Ciudad Juarez (1974) and the School of Politics and Social Sciences (1972). On the United States side of the border, Texas Western College was expanded to become the University of Texas at El Paso (1967) and a community college system was implemented.

During the years that followed, these institutions became the primary centers of higher education studies, while other private universities opened in Ciudad Juarez. Among these were the Technological and Higher Education Institute of Monterrey, two professional schools of psychology, and one school of Industrial Relations.

In 1991, Ciudad Juarez had approximately 25,000 students in higher education. Of these, 16,127 were enrolled at the Autonomous University of Ciudad Jarez; 6,251 at the Technological Institute of Ciudad Juarez; 525 at the branch of the state university located in the city; and 1,165 at the Escobar Brothers' Superior School of Agriculture. The remainder of the private institutions enrolled less than 200 students each, including those enrolled in the National Pedagogical University, which had recently opened to serve the need for elementary and secondary school teachers.

By 1994, close to 3,000,000 Mexican students will finish high school, with many of them applying for further education. In the current decade, the quantity of students applying for higher education is expected to triple. Whereas, today, 4.8% of the total students in the educational system are in higher education, this number is expected to rise to 12.5% by the year 2000. Among graduate students, a similar trend is anticipated. From, today's 4,000 students, there are expected to be 263,000 graduate students by the year 2000.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

Based on this environmental scan, it was determined that a new Master of Education degree program was, indeed, needed in Ciudad Juarez. However, it was also clear that it must address the current and predicted needs of the region rather than being based upon traditional program designs or more traditonal perceptions of needs. Additionally, the history of higher education in the city recommended the inclusion of multiple institutions in the planning, and perhaps delivery, of this new program.

The next phase of the planning process called for the formation of an internal committee to begin the development of the proposal. Once this committee was formed it undertook the following courses of action:

- an exhaustive review of the legal and institutional frameworks for higher education, including special research programs, financial assistance, and higher education priorities;
- a socioeconomic research study of the characteristics and trends of the region, determining labor market demand, alternative profiles, and other contextual variables;
- an opinion poll in the productive sector, to determine its needs;
- a review of the 37 Master's degree programs in education currently available in Mexico;
- analysis and discussion of the evaluations of graduate degree programs conducted in other institutions of higher education, including that done by the National Council for Science and Technology;
- implementation and examination of a survey conducted at the University, entitled *Expectations of Further Studies of the Staff and Faculty of the Autonomous University of Ciudad Juarez.*
- solicitation of expert opinions regarding the potential design, objectives, and requirements of the proposed program, both with representatives of Mexican institutions and the University of Texas at El Paso;
- a review of recent studies and professional literature on the formation of academic personnel;
- a survey of 27 graduates of the former Master of Education program, to determine their opinions on the previous program and their recommendations for the proposed program.

This phase culminated with the development of a preliminary sketch of a possible program design, which was subsequently shared with a number of regional higher education personnel with expertise in the area of education. Through various Interviews with each of these experts, members of the internal committee were able to solicit opinions and ideas that permitted the modification of the original preliminary sketch.

This led to the development of a second draft of the proposal, which, in turn, was circulated among a wide range of persons with expertise in the area, including educators and administrators from education-related departments within all eight of the universities located in the overall region, including both Mexico and the United States. After allowing three weeks for these individuals to examine the proposal and give preliminary input to the internal committee, a meeting was organized at which 21 of these experts met with the internal committee to discuss the proposal. As a consequence of this meeting, important changes were made to the proposal.

These modifications were then incorporated into a formal proposal, which was subsequently presented to the chancellors of the three universities which would be participating in this inter-institutional degree program. These three authorities negotiated the final version of the proposal and accepted it for implementation.

MAJOR COMPONENTS OF THE PROGRAM

Based upon its review of the professional literature, including the works of Nassif(1984) and Hirsch(1985), the committee established several guiding principles for the new Master's program. They determined that the program should have a solid basis in individual and group reflection, with professors and students, alike, remaining ever conscious of the multifaceted institutional and social context of the region. This committee also showed concern for the need to link knowledge with the methods by which that knowledge is acquired, avoiding an exclusively techno-instrumental focus by providing the professional in specific discipline terminals with didactic-pedagogical support in a nuclear, fundamental body of knowledge.

The objectives of the program, then, became: 1) the formation of high-level professionals in education, with a solid theoretical and conceptual preparation; 2) the formation of personnel capable of utilizing philosophical and sociological constructs to learn about and conceptualize educational practices; 3) the formation of researchers in the broad field of education; and 4) the formation of professionals in the three terminal paths of administration and instruction in higher education; educational research and curriculum development, and human resource development for the productive sector.

To accomplish this, prerequisite courses in micro-computers, the relationship of society and education, and techniques of writing and test analysis were established. A common core for all three terminal areas was determined to contain: Pedagogy I & II; Methodology of Educational Research I & II; Society, Thought, and Education I & II. Each of the three terminal areas was further assigned two semesters of coursework, to include four courses specific to that area of concentration, a social science elective, an independent directed study, and an internship.

The committee designed the curriculum such that in the first semester, the student would develop an overview of the epistemological principles, philosophical fundamentals, and basic skills necessary to design a research study on a specific issue in education, with the semester culminating in the presentation of a formal research proposal. During the second semester, the student would begin to conduct the research study, formally reporting his/her progress to cohort peers. It is during this semester that the student would determine the topic of the mandatory thesis. This thesis would begin to be developed during the third semester, with the independent study course serving as a tutorial for this process. Finally, during the fourth semester, the student would conclude the thesis, while working under university supervision as an intern within an institution linked directly to that student's chosen terminal area of concentration.

CONCLUSION

Although it is premature to judge the efficacy of the new Master's degree program, it is possible to examine critically the planning process which led to it. The breadth and depth of the environmental scan was an important element in the planning process. It supported the University's attempt to develop a unique program, targeted to the specific, projected needs and characteristics of the region. This was considered a significant break from traditional planning of educational programs, which tended to be oriented to more classical educational schema and historical considerations.

Rather than the more traditional rational or incrementalist planning paradigms, this effort incorporated other paradigms as well. For example, it was soon recognized that a mixed scanning paradigm would be more appropriate in the development of this program. For example, it was essential that an in-depth scan be conducted of the labor market and of the economic and political forces that would be shaping that market in the years ahead. Similarly, the rapidly

changing demographic profile of Mexico, and especially of this region of Mexico, mandated that these factors be given intensive scrutiny. However, other issues could be treated more incrementally, such as estimating some of the basic cost factors of the proposed program based on past experience in the institution with similar programs.

One of the greatest digressions from past planning practice was the interactive, participative nature of the planning effort. The scan of historical program precedents and institutional resources and capacities led to the relatively unique conclusion that the proposed program be inter-institutional, relying on the identified strengths, missions, and resources of the various institutions of higher education located in the region. However, the participatory nature of the planning process transcended even these participants. Professionals with related experience and expertise were invited from other institutions, at both early and later phases of the planning process, to enrich the knowledge and perceptual base of the project planning team. The solicitation of input from students of the previous program was considered by some to be a risky venture, inviting criticism; however, the findings, both positive and negative, enriched the "current" product.

The term "current" is used advisedly, because the planning process also envisions a form of action research. Certainly, the proposal that was generated from the process to date provides sufficient content to permit administrative decisions, a clear sense of purpose and goals, budget planning, and initial program implementation. However, the planning team characterizes its effort as action research, to the extent that lessons learned during implementation will continually be examined and used cybernetically in the ongoing evolution of the program. Consequently, the efficacy of this planning effort can only be measured by considering both the implementation of the initial project and the project's success in meeting the changing conditions and needs of the region.

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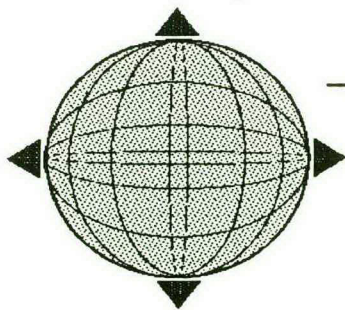
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