THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

A PARADIGM FOR THE PROCESS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to develop a paradigm for the process of setting educational goals for public school systems. It was proposed that the paradigm would stimulate critical reflection by would-be goal-setters upon the educational goal-setting process. Such reflection was deemed useful for directing the thinking and guiding the decisions of goal-setters.

A review of the literature on educational goals and the process of setting educational goals, followed by a more intensive analysis of selected sources in the literature, led to the identification of a set of nine questions which were considered critical to the process of setting educational goals. Three of the questions were labelled as "tactical questions" while the remaining six questions were termed "critical issues".

The paradigmatic framework provided a vehicle for discussing two goals projects recently completed in two public school juris—dictions in Western Canada. The discussion served to illustrate the applicability and potential utility of the framework for the goal—setting process.

A comparison of the two goals projects conducted within the framework provided by the paradigm along with some observations concerning the relationships between the paradigm and the two goals

projects provided bases for making five hypotheses about the paradigm and the process of setting educational goals. It was suggested that these hypotheses might be tested in future research.

Finally, a set of practical suggestions were proferred for consideration by educational goal-setters as guidelines for their goal-setting activities.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM, SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY, METHODOLOGY AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

But especially today, when the very world in which we live is threatened with destruction, and when the fundamental values and purposes of human forms of association are under serious question, and most especially when formal education itself is squarely faced with the charge of being irrelevant to the lives of those whom it purports to educate, a full scale reassessment of the aims of education by educators and critics of education alike seems to be inevitable (Brown, 1970, p. v).

There is evidence of considerable recent interest and activity in the setting of educational goals. It also appears that this interest and activity stems from a real concern about the purposes of education and the role of the school in achieving those purposes.

Such concerns have been evident at all levels of education. Canadians have recently had the opportunity to review publications such as Learning to be (Faure, 1972) and The Purposes of Education (Lauwerys, 1973), the reports of international and national studies on the aims of education. Furthermore, major conferences have also been held in Canada recently on educational goals and educational planning. In addition to the foregoing, the Canadian Teachers!

Cicely Watson (ed.), Educational Planning: Papers of the Invitational Conference, March 20-22, 1967 (Toronto: Ontario Department of Education, 1967); J.A. Riffel and E. Miklos (ed.), Social Goals, Educational Priorities, and Dollars: Planning Education in the Seventies, Proceedings of the Invitational Conference on Educational Planning (Edmonton, Alberta, Human Resources Council and The Canadian Council for Research in Education, 1970).

Federation (1973) has embarked on a national study on educational goals. This study, still in progress, offers yet another indicator of a nationwide interest in the goals of education.

Provincially, goals-related activities have been equally evident. Within the last six years, three provinces have received the reports of commissions established to examine the goals of education. At least another two provinces are presently conducting an overt investigation into their school systems' goals.

At the district or local level, numerous examples of goalsetting activities can be cited. School districts and schools across Canada have recently examined or are in the process of examining their educational goals and objectives.³

In short, interest and activity in the establishing of educational goals is very obvious in Canada today.

Living and Learning, The Report of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario (Toronto: Ontario Department of Education, 1968); A Choice of Futures, Report of the Commission on Educational Planning (Edmonton: Queen's Printer for the Province of Alberta, 1972); The Secondary School, Report of the Core Committee on the Reorganization of the Secondary School (Winnipeg: Department of Education, 1973).

² Issues and Choices, A Summary of the 1973 Fall Conferences on Education in Saskatchewan (Regina: Saskatchewan Department of Education); "British Columbia minister announces broad changes for the educational system", School Progress, (April, 1973), pp. 22-24.

³Goals studies have been recently undertaken in Bayview Elementary School (Vancouver), Lethbridge S.D. No. 51, Saskatoon Public and Separate Schools, River East School Division No. 9 (Winnipeg), Altona (Manitoba), and Etobicoke (Toronto)—to name but a few.

I. THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to develop a paradigm for the process of setting educational goals through an analysis of the literature on educational goals and a study of selected experiences. The paradigm, to consist of a set of questions which raised important issues about the educational goal-setting process, was designed to promote critical reflection by would-be goal-setters on the process of setting educational goals. Such critical reflection could direct the thinking and guide the decisions of goal-setters.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It has been pointed out that goal-setting activities are currently absorbing considerable amounts of time and energy of educational agencies. While the existence of goals kits and their availability through commercial channels reflects a need for guides to
the process of establishing educational goals, more direct demands
for such guides can be cited.

Brown, in calling for a general theoretical framework to act as a guide, observed:

...at a more analytical level, one may consider a theory of aims (T) which is intended as a guide to the formulation of aims (F). If T is justified, it should precede F; that is, if it performs a role of clarification a case might be made for it as a discipline in its own right—a discipline requiring close examination before the task of actually propounding aims of education begins (1970, p. 145).

The Center for the Study of Evaluation, addressing itself to the nature of needs-assessment in education, noted:

To most people, the second alternative appeared most satisfying. It called for some procedure whereby the goals of the school would be set and declared as the intended goals.... The major considerations to the needs-assessment approaches were who established the goals and how were they established (Hoepfner et. al., 1973, p. 2).

The above appears to call for a framework which would facilitate analysis of or critical reflection on the process of setting educational goals. The role of analysis has been examined by Fisher:

I tend to visualize analysis as playing a somewhat modest, though very significant, role in the over-all decision-making process... planning decisions problems must ultimately be resolved on the basis of intuition and judgement. I suggest that the main role of analysis should be to try to sharpen this intuition and judgement. In practically no case should it be assumed that the results of the analysis will 'make' the decision (1966, p. 11).

Defining the role of analysis more specifically, Fisher suggested:
"In sum, if we can structure the problem so that the right <u>questions</u> are being asked, we shall be well on the way toward a good analysis" (1964, p. 8, emphasis mine). Observing that the contribution of analysis to sharpened intuition and judgement may be modest, Fisher nevertheless observed that "only a small amount of sharpening may on occasion have high pay-off" (1964, p. 6).

Fisher was aware of the setting in which analysis was to occur.

His comments seem very appropriate for the situation facing the goalsetter:

Usually the context in which the analysis takes place is fairly broad (often very broad) and the environment very complex, with numerous interactions among the key variables in the problem. This means, on the one hand, that simple, straightforward solutions tend to be the exception rather than the rule. On the other hand,

even in the most comprehensive systems analysis can never be complete. But an analysis does not have to be complete to be useful (1967, p. 2).

How does the foregoing apply to the problem identified in this study? Consider the following:

- 1. The process associated with the setting of educational goals is important.
- 2. The context in which this process occurs is complex and does potentially contain numerous interactions among many variables.
- 3. Some of these variables may prove to be key variables.
- 4. The various approaches to goal-setting advocated by publishers clearly imply that no straightforward solutions to the problem exist.

Consequently, the environment in which educational goal-setting occurs is such that analysis of the process by which the goals are set can provide a high pay-off. Furthermore, that pay-off need not be purchased with a prohibitive expenditure of time and energy. To paraphrase Livingstone (1973), goal-setters may well be advised to devote more critical reflection to the tactics associated with their activity.

III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Terms used in this study were defined as follows:

- Goal: A statement of broad direction or intent which is general and timeless.
- Objective: A statement, arising from a goal, which identifies a particular achievement or accomplishment that can be verified at

a given time and under specific conditions.

<u>Furpose</u>: Synonymous with goal.

<u>Critical Reflections</u> The systematic examination of alternative options to the resolution of a problem or issue, including the careful and explicit consideration of the perceived costs and benefits of these alternatives.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The first task of the study was to derive a list of questions pertinent to the process of establishing educational goals.

The review of the literature conducted for this study provided several themes. These themes were further explored by reference to several selected sources which could be assigned to three general categories:

- 1. Theoretical works which attempted to deal with the conceptual issues relevant to the educational goal-setting process.
- 2. Quasi-theoretical sources in which prescriptions or guidelines had been established for the goal-setting process in specific educational jurisdictions.
- 3. Documents of recently completed educational goals projects.

The list of questions derived from these sources was examined to uncover duplication and redundancy. A list of questions was then selected for inclusion in the paradigm.

In some instances, the questions selected for the paradigm were explicitly stated in the materials surveyed; in other instances, the questions were inferred from the reports and the literature. The

questions once selected were arranged in a 'logical' structure.

Discussion of the paradigm was undertaken with specific reference to two goal-setting exercises recently carried out in Western Canada; namely, in Lethbridge, Alberta and River East School Division No. 9 of Winnipeg, Manitoba. The discussion attempted to relate the paradigm to the field.

Y. ASSUMPTIONS

This study was based on several assumptions:

- 1. It was assumed that critical reflection by those who intended to establish goals upon the process of goal-setting would provide pay-offs in terms of effectiveness and efficiency for their enterprise.
- 2. The paradigm, consisting of a set of questions concerning the process of setting educational goals, was deemed a suitable device for provoking critical reflection.
- 3. The paradigm provided by this study was not intended to be scrupulously followed. Rather, it was assumed that the paradigm would illustrate the need for and value of critical reflection upon the process of establishing educational goals and would provide the impetus for educational agencies intent on setting goals to deal explicitly with those issues deemed critical to the process.

VI. LIMITATIONS

While promoting critical reflection upon the process of establishing educational goals, the study recognized that analysis of an issue so complex could never be complete. Consequently, a limited analysis was undertaken in the study. Such limited analysis did not detract from pointing out the value of reflection on at least several carefully selected issues.

It was not intended to provide, in this study, a <u>comprehensive</u> listing of questions relevant to the process under consideration.

While the reports and literature surveyed by this study were of influence, the selection of questions for inclusion in the paradigm were dependent upon the judgement of the investigator.

The paradigm itself was considered to be one of several possible structures. Other combinations of questions and alternative orderings of these were certainly anticipated. In fact, it was considered a contradiction to advocate analysis of the process of goalsetting while arguing for a single framework for such analysis.

In short, the study urged potential goal-setters to parallel the analysis of process contained in the study itself. In so doing, it was envisioned that alternative paradigms having relevance to local issues would emerge.

VII. DELIMITATIONS

This study centered on the process of goal-setting in elemen-

tary and secondary school systems. It might not have relevance for institutions of higher learning or for non-educational agencies.

While many educational goals studies have been conducted in recent years, a select few were analyzed in this study for the purpose of generating the questions for the paradigm. Those selected were perceived by the investigator to possess a high utility for this study. The study was not considered to be an exhaustive analysis of goal-setting projects.

The search of the literature on goals was similarly restricted.

Discussion of the paradigm was intended to illustrate the utility of the paradigm as a vehicle for promoting critical reflection.

Consequently, the discussion did not explore the full range of solutions and concommitant implications associated with the questions raised in the paradigm.

VIII. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The significance of and the need for a paradigm to stimulate critical reflection upon the process of setting educational goals was indicated. A methodology for constructing such a paradigm was outlined.

Chapter II, which follows, presents a review of issues relevant to the educational goal-setting process as found in the educational literature. In Chapter III, the data for generating the paradigm is outlined, the paradigm is presented, and a brief discussion of the paradigm is provided in order that its component questions be some-

what clarified. Chapter IV relates the paradigm to two recently completed goals projects in an attempt to demonstrate the utility of the paradigm. Further observation, together with hypotheses about the process of setting educational goals which might be explored in the future, are presented in Chapter V. The practical implications raised by this study are outlined in the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Much has been written about the aims, goals, ¹ and objectives of education. While many essays present persuasive arguments for certain educational goals or processes for formulating educational goals, that literature which attempts to analyze the issues relevant to educational goals and the goal-setting process provides a basis for critical reflection upon these matters and is reviewed in the following pages.

An examination of the literature on educational goals and the process of formulating educational goals indicates a diversity of interests and concerns on the part of writers. To facilitate an ordered presentation of these diverse views, several general themes apparent in the literature have been used in this study. These are: philosophical foundations relevant to educational goals; the functions of educational goals; characteristics of educational goals; the importance of the process by which educational goals are established.

In this chapter, the term 'goal' will embrace concepts such as ideals, purposes, functions, aims and objectives. This is necessitated by the fact that the terms are often used interchangeably. Where the term 'goal' is to have a particular meaning, that meaning will be specifically noted.

I. PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Goals as Intrinsic to Human Nature

Some authorities perceive goals as fundamental to human nature. If such a view is accepted, it can be argued that man will formulate goals for education in response to some innate desire to do so.

Hilgard (1957) and Munn (1961) imply that goals are intrinsic to the nature of man. Conducting separate reviews of the relationship between human needs, desires, motives and goals, both are led to the conclusion that goals are acquired by every human being who is normal.

Others have argued that goals are a necessary consequence of man's rational nature. Gotesky accepts as an empirical fact that men are planful creatures and, consequently set goals (1970, p. 168). Dewey adopts much the same view, noting that:

The net conclusion is that acting with an aim is all one with acting intelligently. To foresee a terminus of an act is to have a basis upon which to observe, to select, and to order objects and our own capacities.... To do this means to have a mind.... A man is stupid or blind or unintelligent—lacking in mind—just in the degree in which in any activity he does not know what he is about, namely, the probable consequences of his acts (1930, pp. 120-21).

Goals, apparently, are essential to human organizations as well. Miles (1969, pp. 378-80) notes that goal focus is a critically important dimension of organizational health. Greenfield et. al. consider that no clear sense of purpose to guide decisions in a system is one of three fundamental errors which a school system can make and thereby become dysfunctional (1969, p. 14).

Philosophical Foundations and Educational Goals

The importance of philosophy for goals of education is often cited in the literature. Van Til notes that "Fundamentally, what we teach depends upon the social, psychological, and philosophical foundations of education which characterize a particular culture at a particular point in history" (1962, p. 35). He feels that philosophical foundations are needed for the educational enterprise; such basic beliefs about what is good or bad, right or wrong, desirable or undesirable provide fundamental principles which affect "our appraisal of social realities and our judgement concerning needs" (1962, p. 39).

Morris (1970, pp. 119-24), reviewing briefly changing philosophies of education, notes the various philosophical premises and points out their implications for educational goals. Archaumbault observes of educational philosophy:

Its major aim is to make clear those factors which are susceptible to investigation by the other disciplines, to explore and explicate the philosophical premises underlying investigations in these other areas, and to attempt to shed light on the issues involved in complex educational problems, especially those which relate to questions of value (1972, p. 2).

Bloom examines the role of philosophy, perhaps with a very practical eye:

The philosophy of education of the school serves as one guide, since the objectives to be finally included should be related to the school's view of the "good life for the individual in the good society' (1969, p. 27).

Diedrich, speculating about the ultimate basis upon which educational goals and objectives can be justified, concludes that "the answer must lie in an ethical theory: a carefully examined set of beliefs about what are the essential elements of a good life and what kinds of behavior are most likely to attain them" (1970, p. 242).

II. THE FUNCTIONS OF GOALS

Communication

Goals, according to Bloom (1971, pp. 5-17), facilitate communication among teachers, curriculum builders, test makers, students and the public. These views are shared by Popham (1973), Plowman (1971) and Havelock (1973).

More specifically, goals can be used as a means whereby the public can communicate to the school what it expects of the school. Foshay feels that educators must have a view of the goals of education "that is consistent with...what is required by our society" (1962, p. 9). The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, in calling for goals of education to be made explicit, suggests that educators reconcile their own views of educational goals with the views of parents, students, school boards, and government (1973). The California report (California, 1972), the report of the Worth Commission (Alberta, 1972), and the experiences of Bayview Elementary School (Swanson, 1972) cite communication of public expectations as a principal function of goals.

Educational goals and studies of educational goals develop community confidence in the school, according to the Bayview (Swanson, 1972) and Lethbridge (1972) goals studies. Bayview also found that its

goals study facilitated school-community public relations and, in an open-boundary situation, enabled parents to make realistic choices among alternative schools (Swanson, 1972).

Legitimization

Educational goals may derive their legitimacy from their intrinsic rather than instrumental value. Peters argued that: "Education, then, can have no ends beyond itself. Its values derive from principles and standards implicit in it" (1963, p. 47).

Dewey would agree: "In our search for aims in education, we are not concerned, therefore, with finding an end outside of the educative process itself to which education is subordinate. Our whole conception forbids" (1930, p. 117). Educational goals, therefore, are to be valued as ends in themselves and their legitimacy is established because of such intrinsic value.

An alternative view perceives educational goals to function as a means of defining "the role of the school in society" (Swanson, 1972, p. 1).

Perkinson, however, argues that, because there is no universal agreement about the nature of education, "From a logical point of view all attempts to justify aims of education are fallacious" (1970, p. 70). Without disputing this notion of justification, Perkinsons' argument would not preclude justifying educational activities on the basis of agreed-upon goals. Furthermore, it is not clear whether Perkinson's view would deny the justification of educational goals which have ben

established in a universally agreed-upon manner.

Clear Thinking

Dewey feels that an educational aim "signifies that an activity has become intelligent" (1930, p. 129). Peters concurs, noting that:

"Asking a person about his aims is a method of getting him to concentrate or clear his mind about what he is trying to do" (1963, p. 18).

He also observes:

We ask people what they are aiming at when they seem rather confused about their purposes or when they are drawing up a plan of campaign and have to formulate what they intend to do in a coherent way (1963, p. 18).

Havelock, in providing potential change agents with useful guides, suggests that discussion about goals in an organization is a way of getting people "to think clearly and diagnostically about their problems" (1973, p. 66).

Openness, Flexibility and Change

Dewey expresses great concern that the function of goals be one of promoting change and openness: "The value of a legitimate aim, on the contrary, lies in the fact that we can use it to change conditions." Furthermore, "The aim must always represent a freeing of activities" (1930, p. 122). At a later point, Dewey notes: "A truly general aim broadens the outlook; it stimulates one to take more consequences (connections) into account. This means a wider and more flexible observation of means" (1930, p. 128).

Bloom also argues the case for openness. He feels that unless educational purposes and specifications for educational change are made

explicit, they will not be open to inquiry and teaching and learning will not be modified as improvements and changes are needed (1969, p.30).

Goals are visualized by Rogers as a vehicle for change "which leads sharply away from current educational practices and educational trends" (1971, p. 64). Bayview found that its formulation of goals resulted in a shift of priorities with more emphasis on the affective component of education. It also enabled the school to share ideas with the community more confidently and intelligently (Swanson, 1972).

Planning

Holland has referred to planning as "the process of preparing a set of decisions for actions in the future" (1967, p. 52). Given this definition, and depending on how one defines goals, goals may be the instruments of planning.

Brown, for instance, views a goal as a private end-in-view which is logically attainable and which "retains a motivational power, and is perceived as a condition or state of affairs toward which behavior is directed" (1970, p. xiii). Dewey saw goals as foreseen ends which gave direction to an activity. He stated about a goal:

Specifically, it means foresight of the alternative consequences attending upon acting in a given situation in different ways, and the use of what is anticipated to direct observation and experiment (1930, p. 129).

Clearly, when goals are perceived in this manner, they are virtually synonymous with planning.

The centrality of goals in the "systems approach" to educational planning is clearly evident. Knezevich (1969) outlines this approach

noting that the systems approach has been widely adopted as a planning tool in response to public pressure for greater educational accountability.

Curriculum writers devote considerable attention to the role of goals in curriculum planning and decision-making. Hooper notes that the model of curriculum put forth by John Kerr is similar to models proposed by Taba, Taylor, Merritt and Hirst (Hooper, 1971, p. 116). Kerr's model contains four components: identification of objectives; selection and organization of content so that objectives are likely to be attained; planning of learning experiences for the student; evaluation to determine the extent to which objectives have been achieved (Kerr, 1971, pp. 178-200).

The centrality of goals to curriculum planning and development seems evident. Within the framework of this very generally stated function are a muliplicity of sub-functions which could be advocated (and often are) for educational goals; analysis of the effectiveness of instruction; evaluation of student achievement; development of alternative learning environments; development of more specific objectives; formulation of policy; establishment of priorities; individualization of instruction.

School Organization

Goals also function to facilitate organization of the educational enterprise. "Our organization, therefore, requires alterations as goals are modified and functions change, and as learning is

based on different values and assumes new forms," notes the Worth report (Alberta, 1972). A similar relationship is perceived by House (Greenfield, et. al., 1969). Kerr also sees a direct relationship between the goals of curriculum and the organization of schools (1971).

When clearly identified, goals "affect role specification and performance of individuals" (Miles, 1969, p. 378). Havelock feels that when goals are being considered, consideration must also be given to the matter of an adequate structure for achieving those goals (1973, pp. 70-71). Alkin observes that goals facilitate the functioning of educational administration (1970, p. 95).

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS

"What is an educational goal?" asked the members of the Lethbridge Educational Goals Leadership Team (Lethbridge, 1972). It is apparent that this question is not to be confused with the purposes of goals. The characteristics of educational goals were an important consideration to the Lethbridge project: much has been written about this topic.

Ends and Means

While most educators accept that a close relationship exists between educational goals and the means by which such goals are achieved, there are diverging opinions on the strength of this relationship and its implications for formulating goals.

Macdonald argues that "means become objects in their own right" (1965, p. 95). Peters, while not as insistent about the above point, nevertheless feels that:

The crucial question to ask when men wax enthusiastic on the subject of their aims, is what procedures are to be adopted in order to implement them. We then get down to moral brass tacks (1970, p. 130).

Dewey argues that ends and means are not static and that ends often act as means towards other ends. Furthermore, ends cannot be divorced from means since ends are "an outgrowth of existing conditions" (1930, p. 124).

Piaget observes that means "condition the choice of ends" (1969, p. 18). Haviland feels that goals cannot be considered in isolation of the means and resources to be applied to obtain them (1970, p. 127). Lindblom believes that "one simultaneously chooses a policy to obtain certain objectives and chooses the objectives themselves" (1969, p. 327).

Bloom, on the other hand, feels that ends must be distinguished from means if evaluation is to be properly conducted (Bloom, et. al., 1971, p. 8). The Center for the Study of Evaluation argues that goals must be separated from means for "Needs-assessment approaches that combine means and ends...can be expected to produce results based upon logical confusion among several dimensions underlying the priorization" (Hoepfner, et. al., 1973, p. 63).

Realistic or Idealistic Goals

"The study of the future", state Kirschenbaum and Simon, "must

include not merely possible and probable futures, but preferable futures" (1974, p. 257). It is precisely this question of what should or ought to be the goals of education that has concerned many educators.

Gotesky (1970), Brown (1970) and Dewey (1930) recognize that unattainable ideals exist and that these give rise to more specific goals. Rather than deny the validity of ideals, they propose to differentiate between ideals, goals and objectives on the criterion of attainability. Ideals, according to Brown, are ends-in-view which, while unattainable, serve as a motivating force to guide and modify behavior. They have a legitimate place in the observable world of everyday deeds. Goals and objectives, on the other hand, are more immediate and realizable (Brown, 1970, p. xii).

The problem is not to be considered as merely a philosophical one. The CORE report notes that "there exists the need for the establishment of a clear statement of purpose for the secondary schools, one that will seek to close the gap between the ideal and the real..."

(1973, p. 8). The Worth report dealt with the issue by urging "the development of a vision for education that is realistically idealistic" (Alberta, 1972, p. 4).

It is evident that what is desired may not be the same as what ought to be desired. Both the Lethbridge and Bayview goal projects were confronted with this problem when they recognized that the public might not advocate those goals which educators considered as deserv-

ing pursuit.

Foshay (1962, p. 9) feels that educational goals must reflect what is possible in the schools. Ideals, it appears, must be tempered with reality, if not replaced by it. Whitworth advances a similar argument: "The formulation of realistic goals and the receiving of general acceptance provide a real challenge" (1970, p. 88).

It is difficult to determine the position on this issue of those who advocate the formulation of specific measurable objectives. Popham (1973), Bloom (1969) and Plowman (1971) argue that goals must be translatable into specific behavioral objectives. According to this view, it would seem that idealistic goals which cannot be translated into observable and measurable behavior would have limited value.

Perkinson has argued that, if we wish to determine the aims of education in some methodological fashion, what ought to be an educational goal cannot be determined. He believes that educators should rather seek those goals which in a given context will be accepted by the public (1970, pp. 76ff.).

Goal Clarity

Macdonald (1965, Peters (1963) and Dewey (1930) argue for clarity in thinking about educational purposes, as do Bloom (1969) and Plowman (1971). It should be noted that the latter advocate the formulation of explicit <u>behavioral</u> objectives as a vehicle for promoting clarity. Some may view such an approach with grave reservations (Raths, 1971, pp. 20-26).

Measurable or Non-measurable Goals

Perkinson notes that goals serve to "let one know when a job is completed and...let one know how well the job has been done" (1970, p. 74). He adds:

If these two functions are to be fulfilled, then aims of education must be capable of empirical measurement, or lacking this, there must be some agreed upon, empirically measurable criteria for determining when and how well the aims are attained (1970, p. 74).

Similar views are expressed by Alkin (1970) and Hanna (1962).

Bloom claims that "it is virtually impossible to engage in an educational enterprise of any duration without having some set of specifications to guide one..." (1969, p. 27). He then proposes that such specifications should consist of measurable objectives.

Miles speculates that goal ambiguity in education is related to unmeasurability of outputs and, consequently, leads to procedural rigidity. He wonders if "school system goals are not all that unmeasurable and ambiguous" (1969, pp. 382-83).

Goal Flexibility

"An aim must, then, be flexible," states Dewey (1930, p. 122).

He opposes externally imposed aims because such aims are rigid. According to Dewey, aims must always represent a freeing of activities.

Brown agrees that <u>imposed</u> goals are rigid goals. He suggests that goals must be assimilated by the learner if they are to become attainable (1970, pp. x ff.). Bloom <u>et</u>. <u>al</u>. (1971, pp. 8-9) feel that, at the least, goals must be <u>accepted</u> by students.

Diederich, in advocating five major values as appropriate sources for objectives, cites one criterion for justifying these values as the inherent capability of these values for indefinite expansion in level of attainment (1970, p. 247). This is one way of setting goals externally to the learner and yet retaining a high flexibility in the goals.

Comprehensiveness

Some have argued as to whether educational goals must be confined to a narrow spectrum of human growth and development. Foshay notes:

In pursuing high intellectual goals, it is not necessary for a moment that we overlook the fact that man...is also an emotional, a social, an aesthetic, a biological, a creative and a spiritual creature (1962, p. 13).

Plowman (1971) advocates comprehensiveness by way of a fiveway classification scheme for behavioral objectives. Implicit in the taxonomies developed by Bloom et. al. (1969) and Krathwohl et. al. (1964) are comprehensive goals for education.

Educational Goals and Other Forces

Foshay notes that curriculum development cannot ignore the nature of society (1962, p. 2). The CORE report recognizes that educational goals must be established in conjunction with societal values and norms:

... it is therefore necessary to give some consideration to the pressures of social forces which affect variously the student himself, the aims and objectives, and the achievement of these aims and objectives through the secondary school system (Manitoba, 1973, p. 3).

The Worth report recognizes the significance of social, economic, and technological developments for the nature of schooling (Alberta, 1972). Haviland, arguing for clear statements of goals, states that the accent of public concern "is shifting to socio-economic matters concerning relevance, equity and efficiency" (1970, p. 125).

Goals are also sensitive to developmental psychology and theories of learning. Hanna proposes that the curriculum, in focusing on the learner's individual goals, must reflect what is currently known about how human beings learn (1962, p. 51).

Plowman believes educational goals should be derived from sources such as "authoritative materials describing children's characteristics and needs and in the findings of developmental psychology" (1971, p. xxiv). Dewey feels that goals must be founded on the intrinsic needs and activities of the learner (1930, p. 126).

Finally, when goals direct the activities of an organization, they cannot be established in isolation of the personal needs and creative drives of the personnel in the organization. Organizational goals and personal goals, according to Thompson, must be fused (1969, pp. 392ff.).

Goals as Valuations

The Worth report makes the following observation:

Thus, the greater part of priority-setting rests upon purposes and goals. Ultimately, goal-directed priorities—like all value judgements—are established on a subjective basis: personal choice (Alberta, 1972, p. 299).

. There seems to be little disagreement among educators that educational

goal represent valuations. Dewey (1966), Peters (1970), Bloom (1969), Wilhelms (1962) and Whitworth (1970) have recognized this.

Diederich (1970), Lindblom (1969), Dewey (1966), Stevenson (1970), Perkinson (1966) and Alkin (1970), among others, have developed or proposed schemes whereby educational goals, as statements of valuation, can be investigated and established.

Goal Consistency

The Worth report notes that "for goals and objectives of schooling in Alberta to be sound they must...be either consistent or non-contradictory in their relationships with one another" (Alberta, 1972, p. 226). Diederich (1970, p. 247) refers to goals criteria such as consistency with a tenable view of the nature of man and consistency among the goals.

IV. THE PROCESS OF SETTING GOALS

The importance of the process of setting goals has been recognized in the literature. The Joint Committee on Educational Goals noted that: "The value of setting goals is as much in the process of participation as in the final outcome" (California, 1972, p. 5).

The Bayview search for goals reflected the importance of process in the title of one of its reports—<u>Is the Process More Important</u> than the Product? (Swanson, 1972). The Center for the Advanced Study of Evaluation noted that: "The major considerations to the needs—assessment approaches were who established the goals and how they

were established" (Hoepfner, et. al., 1973, p. 2).

Implications of Philosophy, Goal Functions and Goal Characteristics

The literature on goals suggests that the process of formulating goals is affected by, if not largely dependent upon, the beliefs and values held by goal-setters and their perceptions of the functions and characteristics of goals.

Macdonald examines the impact of philosophy on educational thought and practice. His analysis of several philosophies indicates that they affect the sources from which goals will be derived, the roles of teachers, students, and others in determining which goals will be pursued, and the way in which goals will be expressed (1965, pp. 227-73). Morris provides a specific example by comparing the role of the learner in determining goals under an essentialist philosophy as opposed to an existentialist philosophy. Furthermore, he points out, using Dewey as an illustrative example, that contradictions and inconsistencies between philosophy and more specific educational practice are difficult to eradicate (1970, pp. 119-23).

The Worth report implies that philosophy is important to the process of formulating goals. The question is raised: "What is to be our vision for education in Alberta? How is it to be achieved? By and for whom?" (Alberta, 1972, p. 36). The report then examines the implications of three different modes of program operation—in effect, philosophies of education—for selected process variables, including the role of the learner and the nature of objectives.

The <u>functions</u> which are established for goals can affect the process of setting goals. Should the principal function for formulating goals be one of professional interest in the expectations held by the public for the school system, a satisfactory procedure may consist of a structured sampling of public opinion (Lauwreys, 1973). On the other hand, should the function of goals be one of gaining public support and confidence in education, it may be necessary to plan for extensive public involvement (California, 1972; Swanson, 1972). Alternatively, if goals are to be established primarily to facilitate curriculum development, participation in setting goals could be confined to professional educators (Bloom, <u>et. al.</u>, 1971). Finally, when goals are to be used as a persuasive device to direct others towards a privately held end, the emphasis may not be on goal-setting but on goal communication and rationalization (Brown, 1970, p. xi).

The extent to which goals are perceived to be ends distinct from means can have significance for the process of setting goals. If one believes, as Macdonald suggests, that educational goals are to be perceived as means rather than ends, it is likely that the search for goals will be addressed to significantly different concerns (1971, pp. 93-94). Should one accept Lindblom's thesis that goals and policies to implement them are selected simultaneously, questions of policy must be considered in conjunction with any goals search (1969, p. 328). This may have implications not only for who will be involved in the process of setting goals, but may also determine the role of policy makers in the entire process. On the other hand, if the view

held by The Center for the Study of Evaluation that educational goals should not be confused with ends is accepted, the goals search will be limited to very specific questions and issues (Hoepfner, et. al., 1973, p. 63).

The level of specificity at which goals are to be established will affect the process. Not only does this characteristic influence the kinds of goals and the number of goals that will be identified, it also can influence decisions concerning the participants to be involved and their roles (California, 1972; Lethbridge, 1972).

If goals are perceived primarily as valuations, consideration may be given as to how questions of valuations are to be resolved. Resolution of such questions may be undertaken quite differently if the concept of valuations held by the goal—setters is one of 'what ought to be' as opposed to 'what will be accepted' (Dewey, 1966; Stevenson, 1970; Perkinson, 1966; Diederich, 1970).

Educational goals may be characterized as having certain relationships to other forces. The strength of this relationship, as perceived by goal-setters, will influence the sources from which goals will be selected. If, as Haviland suggests, the financial and physical resources relevant to the implementation of goals must be considered in conjunction with goals, economists and agencies competing with education for resources may have to be involved in the process of goal-setting (1970, p. 127). Should goals be considered in conjunction with theories on learning and the psychology of human deve-

lopment, goal-setters may be dependent upon advice from 'experts' in these fields of study (Wilhelms, 1962, p. 17).

The Participants in the Process

It is apparent that a paramount concern in the process of setting goals is the matter of who will be involved. The literature
reveals that the issue is seldom resolved in isolation of a statement of rationale or a statement of beliefs concerning the nature of
education. Thus the question of who should be involved is usually
considered in conjunction with the question of why such persons should
be involved.

Dewey, believing that goals are intrinsic to the needs and activities of the learner, considers the learner to be an integral part of the process of setting goals (1930, p. 126). Morris points out that existentialists would argue that goals can only be properly determined by the learner (1970, p. 123). Brown, while in apparent agreement with Morris, accepts that others external to the learner can provide guidance to the learner in the selection of educational goals (1970, pp. 185-86).

Bloom et. al. are inclined to ascribe a more active role to the external goal-setter. While agreeing that the learner should "accept and to some degree understand the goals" there is no doubt that the task of determining goals should rest largely with the teacher (1971, p. 9).

The Worth report argues that the clients of the educational

system must share in determining it. The report, consequently, envisions participatory planning in which "Key roles await students and parents, elected officials and community workers, business people, trustees and taxpayers, teachers and administrators, and communications personnel" (Alberta, 1972, p. 39). The theme of participatory planning is found throughout the report and culminates in the statement:

The people must choose the goals of education, and the priority of education in relation to other sectors of social life. That is why we have this report (p. 44).

Foshay sees educationists as assuming a significant responsibility in the setting of goals. It is their duty to "discharge the tasks of educational leadership that these times demand of us" (1962, pp. 12-13). This, according to Foshay, means that educators must be deeply knowledgeable in the principal fields of knowledge and capable of understanding and participating in public decisions. Educators cannot act as if they knew nothing of child development nor of how the school affects society. Neither can they simply react to the pressures placed on the school by society.

The Nature of Involvement

Associated with the issue of who should participate in the process of setting goals is the matter of determining what the nature of that involvement will be. California (1972), for instance, outlines nineteen steps in the process of identifying educational goals. Based on a consensus approach to setting goals, this plan clearly out-

lines how participants are to be involved and what roles they will play. The report notes:

There is no magic formula which will take all school=communities toward consensus. Each community is unique. The process, therefore, will vary from place to place, as it should. Each school=community has the flexibility to design an appropriate process. Trust in goodwill and common sense. Always be fair. (p. 19).

The above advice is echoed in the Worth report:

No technology or magic formula for identifying goals is readily available. Our only recourse is to human judgement buttressed by study, discussion, and the latest techniques for ordering and analyzing data. This procedure sounds rather simple. And it is—until it is attempted (Alberta, 1972, p. 226).

Berlak, recognizing that the resolution of differences over educational goals is a matter of resolving differences in moral values, surveyed the literature in the field of educational evaluation and observed that:

In general, I found little to justify any confidence that the field of educational evaluation as an applied social science possesses the models, strategies or techniques for contending with the moral component in educational decisions (1970, p. 267).

While no magic formula exists, specific strategies for involving various individuals in the process of setting educational goals are available. The needs-assessment approach developed by the Center for the Study of Evaluation and the Phi Delta Kappa Goals Kit have received considerable publicity. The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation (1973) identified eight alternative strategies for the goalsetting process. California, in a volume entitled A Resource Book For School=Community Decision Making, outlines procedures for maximizing community involvement and presents eight different approaches

to educational goal-setting.

Facilitating the Process

Because the process of establishing educational goals is generally viewed as complex, the literature on goals gives attention to facilitating decision making and activities associated with the goal-setting process.

Some believe that a plan of action for setting goals should be made explicit. The California Legislature outlines a plan for the purpose of getting the process of goal-setting under way. Such a plan makes visible the various stages in the process, the target dates for completion of these stages, the participants involved and their roles in each stage. The plan is not perceived, however, as a mechanism for control of the process by the Legislature. It is advanced as a guideline which provides suggestions for organiz ing and monitoring the process at the local level (California, 1972, p. 12).

Whitworth, in calling for concerted action to set educational goals, notes that an important element to achieving this purpose is a well-defined plan of action (1970, p. 88).

Another means of facilitating the process is to provide background information relevant to the issues which will be faced. The
Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, advocating that goals be developed
at the local level, presented alternative processes for the task and
briefly outlined their relative merits (1973). Bayview, wishing to
obtain public views on goals, drew upon the goal statements prepared

by The Center for the Study of Evaluation rather than developing a set of its own (Swanson, 1972). California published Education for the People: Volume 2 to provide background information on the process of goal-setting for school districts.

Reference to various sources for goals is promoted as a facilitating device. Wilhelms (1962, pp. 15-17) comments on some of these sources. Price offers examples of goals formulated in previous years for American schools (1972, p. 142). River East (1972) relied heavily on goals identified in the CORE report in arriving at its goals statement.

California recognized the need for strong support for the goals process from upper levels of management. School boards and superintendents were encouraged to assume a major responsibility for initiating and implementing the search for goals (1972, p. 13). Lethbridge (1972) and River East (1972), in their goals projects, relied upon the participation of board members and superintendents in the process of setting goals for visible evidence of management support for the enterprise.

Communication

California recognized the importance of communication to the successful implementation of the goals process, particularly since considerable emphasis was placed on community involvement. The Legislature stressed the need for open interaction and for keeping meetings between community and educators "flexible and equal during

their mutual deliberations" (1972, p. 12). Communication was deemed necessary to raise public consciousness as to the need for redefining goals and to illustrate to the public potential strategies for community involvement.

The Phi Delta Kappa goals approach suggests that among the first concerns to be addressed should be an area-wide dissemination of information concerning the project—why it was undertaken, how it was to be carried out and its implication for the schools and the community. Bayview noted that one of the weaknesses of its approach was poor communication to the parents as to why the project was undertaken and the manner in which it was conducted. The school principal felt this would have to be remedied for future similar endeavors (Swanson, 1972, p. 5).

It is apparent that, once the goals study or project has been completed, its results should be clearly communicated to those involved and affected (Phi Delta Kappa, pp. 14-15).

What Happens Next?

The Saskatoon (1973) inquiry into the views of citizens about educational goals indicates that many were sceptical about any changes occurring as a result of the inquiry. It appears that, as goals are formulated, the means whereby they are to be achieved must be made visible. Smith (1969, p. 404), Lindblom (1969, p. 329) and Haviland (1970, p. 127) argue that goals are not formulated in isolation of means; the opinion is that a plan for implementing goals is implicit in the selection of goals.

California (1972), simultaneously with the development of a process for selecting goals, outlined a procedure for operationalizing the goals and monitoring the achievement of goals. The goals kit developed by The Center for the Study of Evaluation contains provisions for ensuring that adopted goals are implemented (Alkin, 1970). Similar provisions are found in the Phi Delta Kappan goals kit.

River East (1972) found that the attitudes of many educators were significantly affected when a plan for implementing adopted goals was presented. There was some speculation that had an implementation plan been circulated at the time goals were being discussed, more careful attention to the final selection of goals would have occurred.

V. SUMMARY

The importance of educational goals and the process by which educational goals are established is recognized in the literature.

Various specific elements have been cited to illustrate why importance has been attached to goals and process.

It is obvious that the area under investigation is complex. Educational goals can serve many different and, perhaps, conflicting functions. Furthermore, the characteristics of educational goals are multiple and varied. Consequently, any jurisdiction undertaking to establish or set educational goals is faced with many choices about goal functions and goal characteristics.

Finally, decisions must be made about who shall participate in

the setting of educational goals and the nature of that participation.

As pointed out in this chapter, no magic formulas exist for aiding

decision-makers on these matters.

While specific procedures for setting educational goals have been developed, it is apparent that local authorities will need to rely on their own judgements in making the difficult decisions about goals and process. A framework for promoting critical reflection upon the issues surrounding educational goals and the process for setting them seems needed. Such a framework should serve to facilitate the decision-making process rather than prescribing how decisions should be made or prescribing what the decisions should be.

CHAPTER III

A PARADIGM FOR THE PROCESS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

I. THE SEARCH FOR ISSUES

While the search of the literature conducted for this study offered some guidance as to the major issues surrounding the process of formulating educational goals, several sources were selected for a more intensive search designed to unearth those issues considered relevant to the goal-setting process. It was anticipated that such a search would provide an extensive, albeit not complete, listing of issues relevant to setting educational goals. The listing derived in the fashion described provided the data for further exploration and analysis.

Sources for the Issues

The sources referred to for the intensive search for issues are identified in Table I.

The Rationale

Given that a wide array of sources are available for investigating issues relevant to the process of setting educational goals, the investigation in this study attempted to provide a balance between sources primarily theoretical in their perspective and sources which

TABLE I

SOURCES: INTENSIVE SEARCH FOR ISSUES ON THE PROCESS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

- Alkin, M.C.

 "Educational Planning: Setting Real Targets for Educational Development." Proceedings of the Invitational Conference on Educational Planning, J.A. Riffel and E. Miklos, editors, Human Resources Research Council, Edmonton, October, 1970, pp. 95-113.
- Berlak, Harold.
 "Values, Goals, Public Policy and Educational Evaluation." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 40, No. 2, 1970, pp. 261-278.
- California State Legislature.

 Education for the People: Vol. I and Vol. II. California State
 Legislature Joint Committee on Educational Goals and California
 State Department of Education, Sacremento, 1972.
- Lethbridge School District #51.

 Agendas, minutes and reports of the Educational Goals Leadership
 Team. Lethbridge, 1972-73.
- Lindblom, Charles E.

 "The Science of Muddling Through." Organization and Human Behavior:

 Focus on Schools, Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, editors.

 New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969, pp. 325-336.
- Perkinson, H.J.

 "The Methodological Determination of the Aims of Education."

 Aims and Policy, Adrian Dupuis, editor. Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1970, pp. 70-76.
- Riffel, J.A.
 "Some Questions Concerning the Elementary School Evaluation Kit."
 Human Resources Research Council, Edmonton, undated. (Mimeographed).
- River East School Division #9.

 Agendas, minutes and reports of the Philosophy and Goals Committee.

 Winnipeg, 1972-73.
- Smith, Ralph A.

 "Human Values, Modern Organizations, and Education."

 Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools, Fred D. Carver and Thomas J.

 Sergiovanni, editors. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969, pp. 404-410.

TABLE I (continued)

- Stake, Robert E.

 "Objectives, Priorities, and Other Judgement Data." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 40, No. 2, 1970, pp. 181-207.
- Stake, Robert E. and Denny, Terry.

 "Needed Concepts and Techniques for Utilizing More Fully the Potential of Evaluation." Educational Evaluation: New Roles, New Means, The Sixty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Ralph W. Tyler, editor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969, pp. 370-400.
- Stevenson, C.L.

 "The Scientists Role and the Aims of Education." Nature, Aims and Policy, Adrian Dupuis, editor. Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1970, pp. 77-86.
- Swanson, Chris.
 "Pilot Project: Educational Goals Bayview School." Bayview Elementary School, Vancouver, June, 1971. (Mimeographed).
 - "The Search for Goals: Is the Process More Important Than the Product?" Bayview Elementary School, Vancouver, June, 1972. (Mimeographed).
- University of Alberta.

 "Canadian Schools and the UCLA Elementary School Evaluation Kit."

 A Report Produced by a Doctoral Seminar in Curriculum Evaluation,
 Faculty of Education, Edmonton, Spring, 1972. (Mimeographed).
- Vancouver School Board Education Department.

 "The Bayview School Comprehensive Learning Project: A Brief Report."

 Vancouver, undated. (Mimeographed).

showed evidence of field-based or practical orientation. It was felt that the balance described would yield sources which would complement and supplement each other.

It should be noted that the approaches advocated by the Elementary School Evaluation Kit (ESEK) and the California Legislature are what might be termed quasi-theoretical: in each case a "packaged" plan for the process of establishing goals is offered to school jurisdictions. The California approach is, however, considerably more flexible and open to modification at the local level.

The three field-based experiences in setting educational goals offered a useful contrast for investigative purposes. The Bayview project materials were developed after-the-fact; that is, the documentation referred to in the study was written after the goals-search had been completed. On the other hand, the documentation used in the study for the River East and Lethbridge goals projects consisted of the agendas, minutes and reports of committees established in the two districts to plan, implement and monitor the process of goals-formulation. Furthermore, the Bayview approach was essentially a local modification of a goals kit developed by the Center for the Study of Evaluation—the ESEK. The River East and Lethbridge approaches, while operating independently of each other, relied upon locally developed processes to obtain data for establishing educational goals.

Methodology

Each of the selected sources was carefully investigated to determine what issues relevant to the process of setting goals could be identified. In some instances the issues were not explicitly stated but could be inferred directly from the documentation provided. In each case, the issue, once identified, was rephrased so that it could be posed as a question to potential goal-setters.

It became evident early in the intensive search for issues that a tentative structure for identifying issues would prove useful for conducting the search in a systematic fashion. Nine categories of issues (Table II derived from the more comprehensive search of the literature) were identified and used initially. Issues were assigned by the investigator to that category considered most appropriate for each issue.

The Data Resulting from the Search

A total of 614 questions were identified by the search of the twelve sources. Table II indicates the frequency of questions for each source in each of the nine categories.

II. ORGANIZING AND ANALYZING THE DATA

The 614 questions which arose out of the search for issues were subjected to two further analyses.

The purpose of the first review was to determine if the nine major categories initially proposed to facilitate the search for issues were appropriate. The questions placed in each category were analyzed for focus and orientation and regrouped accordingly. This review resulted in the nine original categories being expanded to the following fourteen:

TABLE II

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	TETHBRIDGE	9	15	23	55	5	16	43	647	4	216
	RIVER EAST	H	9	-	6		Ti.	29	25	6	87
FREQUENCY OF QUESTIONS, BI CAIRGOLD AND SOCIOUS	CATEGORIES FOR ISSUES	Philosophical Considerations: How are educational goals and the process by which they are set related to our philosophies and values?	Purposes: Why should a process to set educational goals be undertaken? What are the functions of educational goals?	Characteristics: What are the relevant characteristics of goals? What does an educational goal look like?	Planning and Monitoring: How will the process of setting goals progress? Who will plan and monitor it?	Facilitating Vehicles: What is needed (resources, support) for a successful undertaking in setting educational goals?	<pre>Involvement: Who should be involved and in what manner in the process of setting educational goals?</pre>	Instrumentation: How are educational goals to be methodologically determined? What vehicles exist for collecting data about goals?	Analysis and Reporting: How is data about goals to be analyzed and interpreted? To whom will the data be reported?	Follow-up: What is to be done once goals have been set?	

- 1. Philosophical Issues
- 2. Goal Functions
- 3. Goal Characteristics
- 4. Monitoring and Planning Structure
- 5. Facilitating Devices
- 6. Involvement
- 7. Instrumentation: Theoretical Issues
- 8. Instrumentation: General Planning
- 9. Instrumentation: Development
- 10. Instrumentation: Administration
- ll. Methodology: Data Analysis
- 12. Methodology: Data Interpretation
- 13. Methodology: Reporting
- 14. Follow-up Action

Because of the high number of questions in two of the original nine categoriew (Analysis and Reporting) these were further broken down to yield seven categories (items seven through thirteen, above). The 614 questions were reassigned to these fourteen new categories.

The second review provided a check on the assignment of question to the fourteen categories as achieved in the first review and, more importantly, facilitated identification of the principal issues in each of the fourteen major categories. This review resulted in the reduction by one of the fourteen categories (Data Analysis and Data Interpretation were combined). The results of this review, showing the principal issues in each major category, are presented in Appendix A.

III. THE PARADIGM

The data about the process of goal-setting gathered in the search for issues and the reorganization of that data as outlined in the preceding section, together with the personal experiences of the investigator as the co-ordinator of an educational goals project in a large urban school division, provided some insights into the process of setting goals. Armed with such insights and relying on what might be termed a sharpened intuition, an attempt was made to organize the data and knowledge into a paradigm for the process of setting educational goals.

Components of the Paradigm

- 1. A set of issues which are proposed as issues that must be resolved for the effective implementation of a goals setting process. (Table III)
- 2. Three tactical questions considered essential to the process of goal-setting which must be addressed by each of the issues in the paradigm. (Table IV)

Relationships in the Paradigm

- 1. The issues are interdependent; that is, resolution of one issue is not generally achieved without reference to some of the other issues.
- 2. Each issue interacts with each of the three tactical questions, the primary effect being that the issue determines how the tactical question will be answered.

TABLE III

CRITICAL ISSUES WHICH MUST BE RESOLVED FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN EDUCATIONAL GOAL-SETTING PROCESS

- I. What are the purposes for engaging in a process to set educational goals?
- II. What beliefs, values, and principles will be of significance to the process of setting educational goals?
- III. What properties and characteristics are the educational goals to exhibit?
 - IV. What procedures are to be used in setting educational goals?
 - V. What communication is needed concerning the process of setting educational goals?
 - VI. What follow-up activity is warranted by virtue of the undertaking to set educational goals?

TABLE IV

TACTICAL QUESTIONS CONSIDERED ESSENTIAL TO THE PROCESS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

- 1. Which constituents will be involved in resolving each of the critical issues?
- 2. What role will the various constituents play in resolving the issues?
- 3. What level of comprehension of the issues should the various constituents possess?

3. The interactions are potentially fluid. This implies that the resolution of any component is, at a particular moment, a tentative one. There may be no final resolution to the issues raised in the paradigm.

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE PARADIGM

A discussion of the paradigm will provide further elaboration on the components of the paradigm. The arguments and rationale which follow are intended to clarify the nature of the tactical questions and the major issues contained in the paradigm rather than to promote a prescriptive course of action for educational goal—setters.

The Tactical Questions

The literature on educational goals, particularly where attempts are made to provide practical directions for would-be goal-setters, clearly indicates that the question of involvement of the various constituents is an important one and should be dealt with explicitly and judiciously.

The three tactical questions contained in the paradigm are designed to address themselves to the matter of involvement. As the paradigm illustrates, each major issue to be resolved in the process of formulating goals should address itself to the questions of who will be involved in resolving the issue, what the nature of the involvement will be, and how well comprehended the issue should be by the constituents.

Given that educational goals are generally established as goals towards which instruction and learning in schools is to be directed, parents, students, and professional educators appear to have a high investment in educational goals. This does not imply that each constituent will assume or will want to assume a constant and significant role in determining each of the issues relevant to the process of formulating goals. It is possible that where technical issues or issues that are perceived as requiring professional knowledge exist, parents and students will accept a minor role and permit the professional educator to assume major responsibility for resolving the issue. On the other hand, when the issue is one of which goals should be pursued, parents and students may claim that theirs is the significant role and that professional educators function to advise and assist the lay public in this matter.

The point is that the actors and their roles change from issue to issue and from one locale to another. The matter of which actors and what roles may best be determined locally rather than by sources external to the jurisdiction. Furthermore, the question of involvement may not be one of what ought to be (the ideal), but rather one of what will be accepted or what is demanded at the local level.

It is considered doubtful that a school system can set educational goals and put them into effect without resolving, to the mutual satisfaction of its constituents, the question of involvement.

The third tactical question concerns itself with the matter of

communication. For each of the issues relevant to the process of setting goals, there is a need to consider how well the various constituents must comprehend the issue and the manner in which it has been resolved. One illustration may clarify this point. A school system may state that it is engaging in a process to set goals for the purpose of facilitating the planning of instruction and for conducting evaluation. Teachers may, however, focus on the word evaluation and interpret the term to mean the evaluation of teaching performance. Perceived in these terms, they may very well treat the whole process with some suspicion. Unless such misgivings and misapprehensions are ameliorated, an important segment of the school's community can become alienated and may subvert the process.

The Issues

The issues identified in the paradigm were suggested by the analysis of the data collected from the sources identified in the investigation. To facilitate understanding of the issues, more specific sub-issues were developed as illustrative of some of the considerations which are contained by the broader issues outlined in the paradigm. These appear in Appendix A.

The sequence in which the issues have been ordered seems logical and has been generally followed in each of the goals studies examined. However, the sequence need not be a rigid one. Thus, while it is possible that the purposes of setting goals may be the first issue, an examination of beliefs, values and principles advocated by

constituents can lead to substantial modification of purposes as originally perceived. Other similar illustrations could be provided to show that the issues are interrelated rather than independent.

Why should educational goals be set? This question is one of the first to be asked in the goals studies investigated. If, for example, goals are to be set for the purpose of gaining public confidence and support for the school systems it is conceivable that the process by which goals are set will be primarily a political one. It may be that goals will not be the real issue—any goals may do so long as the public, through participation, gains a feeling of ownership or partnership in the school system. On the other hand, if the purpose of setting goals is to facilitate evaluation of how well the school system is doing, the process may focus on developing realistically achievable goals which can be translated into measurable or observable behaviors.

The beliefs, values and principles held by the constituents of the school system can be of significance for the purpose of setting goals. It could prove profitable to examine these before the actual process of setting goals is begun.

Consider the belief expressed by some people that the professional educator, in addition to being paid to achieve educational goals, possesses the unique training and knowledge necessary to accurately determine which goals should be pursued. Contrast to this those who believe that the school system, as a public enterprise,

should have its purposes established and its direction controlled by the people whom it serves. Depending on which view prevails in the community, significant differences in the process whereby goals will be set may be warranted. Examination of Section I of Appendix A will reveal other beliefs, values and principles which may be equally significant.

Another issue which might be examined prior to initiating the setting of goals is the properties and characteristics goals are perceived to possess. Some of these characteristics may be determined by the previously identified purposes and beliefs. If, for example, goals are to serve as vehicles for evaluating how well the school system is doing, a preference for attainable and measurable goals may be indicated. Such goals may have to be written so that translation into specific behavioral indicators is possible.

Other properties and characteristics of goals can be investigated. If it is believed that goals must reflect the needs, interests and abilities of the individual learner, then consideration of for and by whom goals should be selected and established becomes a crucial issue. It may be that the learner becomes the central figure in the process. Should goals be viewed as static or stable over time rather than changing, the goal—setting process may be viewed as a "one—shot" affair as opposed to a continuing process of monitoring changing views about goals. As a final example, if educational goals are perceived as a selected set of priorities from among many possible goals, the

process of setting goals may differ from an alternate view of educational goals as representing a comprehensive set of educational aspirations.

While the first three issues raised in the paradigm could be examined prior to investigating methodological issues, it should be pointed out that an ultimate or final resolution of these issues may not occur. Two reasons can be cited for this statement. First, because the literature suggests quite strongly that the epistemological foundations for resolving valuations are not well developed, the process of setting goals may be viewed more as an 'art' rather than a 'science'. It is unlikely that a 'right' resolution to these issues exists. Secondly, the arena in which educational goals are set is fluid. As the various issues relevant to the process are considered, implications of previously made decisions emerge; such emerging implications shed new information on the issues and may lead to a reconsideration of previous decisions.

The would-be goal-setter, therefore, may be advised to consider the issues in the sequence suggested in the paradigm but only for the purpose of arriving at some tentative decisions or conclusions. He should be prepared to proceed to subsequent issues expecting to return and reconsider the previous issues.

With respect to the methodology by which educational goals are set, some elaboration of the paradigm is called for. Consideration of the methodological obstacles to setting educational goals is particu-

larly important when educational goals are perceived to contain a high value component. In such instances, it should be recognized that one is dealing with personal preferences and highly subjective priorities and intensities of feelings. No sophisticated mechanism apparently exists for collecting such data accurately. Consequently, the paradigm calls for critical reflection on how data is to be gathered and taken into account. Such reflection may encourage goal—setters to view their methodology as somewhat less than infallible and so prepare goal—setters for the scepticism that others may justifiably voice concerning any process for setting goals which may be proposed.

A further important consideration for methodology is the designation of the kind of data the goal-setter wishes to collect. The data, presumably, will be designed to shed light on those issues the goal-setter wishes to resolve. Considerations of the kinds of data could include determining whether open-ended as opposed to highly structured responses are to be collected, whether priorities among single or groups of goals are to be sought, whether intensities of feeling are to be registered, and whether the data is to be qualitatively or quantitatively expressed. These decisions will have bearing on the instruments that will be used to collect the data and the kind of analysis and judgements that will be possible once the data is collected.

Consequently, the eight major issues identified in the para-

digm under the general heading "What procedures are to be used in setting educational goals?" (Appendix A) are highly interdependent. It is questionable whether general methodological considerations, the specific instrumentation to be used, and the kind of data analysis to be done can be considered independently of each other and independently of the broader issue of methodological obstacles to the setting of educational goals. Neither can the implications for the process established by previous considerations of goal purposes, beliefs and goal characteristics be ignored.

It should be apparent that the three tactical questions are critical considerations for methodology. Whose opinions will be collected, what weight will be attached to them, who will interpret the results, and who will make judgements and decisions on the basis of these results will be of interest to both lay and professional constituents. It is entirely possible that, unless these considerations are satisfactorily resolved, the results of the goals search, however technically valid, will be viewed with scepticism and suspicion.

Reporting the results of the process of goal-setting is an important issue as well. It is assumed that the constituents involved in a process where important valuations have been investigated will be anxious to know the results of the investigation and the decisions arising from these. It is proposed that failure to communicate the results adequately can lead to disillusionment with the

exercise and can create suspicion as to the motives for soliciting views.

In reporting the data a decision has to be made as to what data will be reported and in what format. Consideration of the audience the data is intended for becomes apparent; professional people may be able to digest certain data that lay people would find difficult to understand. The action the different constituents are expected to take as a result of the goals search can have bearing on the kind of information that will be presented concerning the results of the goals search. Teachers, who may be called upon to implement the goals, may require a considerably deeper understanding of the results of the goals search than would parents who may be expected to endorse and support the goals. It may also prove advisable to include the rationale for the interpretations, judgements and decisions made on the basis of the data.

The literature suggests that it is difficult to avoid consideration of follow-up activity once the process of setting goals has been completed and the results communicated. This is so because of the expectations which tend to be raised by the process itself and by the purposes for which the goals have been set. Thus, if parents have been extensively involved in the process of setting goals, they may expect that the school system will at some time report on the achievement of such goals. Alternately, involvement of parents in setting goals may whet a desire for greater involvement in the management of

education—setting school policies, deciding upon acceptable instructional strategies, and determining appropriate curricular programs for achieving goals. Certainly, professional educators may anticipate that something will be done once the goals are set; they may legitimately expect that they will have to implement the goals. Professional educators will probably want to know what actions they are to take on the basis of the adopted goals.

The paradigm also suggests that the process of setting goals does not have a real termination. The process itself is an initiating step towards something else. That 'something else' may be the purposes originally established for the goals. It is doubtful that the process of setting goals is an end in itself.

V. SUMMARY

An intensive search of selected sources in the literature for major issues surrounding the process of setting educational goals led to the construction of a paradigm for that process. The paradigm consisted of nine questions which identified six major issues and three tactical concerns in the process of setting educational goals. The paradigm proposed that the issues and tactical concerns were interdependent and interactive.

A discussion of the paradigm offered some clarification on the paradigm and its components.

The paradigm was not designed as a prescriptive instrument.

It was presented for the purpose of stimulating critical reflection upon the process of setting educational goals.

CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF THE PARADIGM

The application of the paradigm to two goals projects is presented in a narrative style structured so that experiences pertinent to each component of the paradigm can be outlined. This format provides a concise but quite complete account of the goals process carried out in two school jurisdictions and reveals the relevance and possible applicability of the paradigm for future goals-setting endeavors.

The two goals projects selected for this purpose were conducted in the River East School Division of Metropolitan Winnipeg (Manitoba) in 1972-73 and in the Lethbridge School District #51 (Alberta) during 1972-73. For this study, the documentation on these projects consisted of all the agendas, minutes and reports of the special committees established in each of the two school districts to plan, implement and moniter the process of goal-setting. Additional sources of information on the River East project were available to the researcher as a result of his personal involvement in the River East project as chairman of the Philosophy and Goals Committee which conducted the search for goals.

II. THE RIVER EAST GOALS PROJECT

The Purposes of Goals

The purposes of engaging in a goals-setting exercise in River East were identified as a result of two separate projects initiated in the Division: a study of articulation in the Division conducted by two doctoral candidates during the winter of 1970-71; a Planning-Programming-Budgeting Systems (PPBS) project initiated in 1970 by the senior administrator of the Division. The former revealed that teachers and principals desired a clear statement of educational philosophy and educational objectives for schools in the Division to facilitate articulation and individualization; the latter called for educational goals to facilitate making choices among alternative programs, conducting realistic evaluation, and revealing to the public where and why educational funds were being spent.

While the purposes served by goals expressed by teachers in the articulation study were somewhat similar to those envisioned by senior administrators in the PPBS project, one notable exception can be cited. It is not apparent that teachers perceived goals as functioning to reveal to the public how much money was being spent on various programs. Such a purpose raises the possibility of program budget cutbacks. It is understandable that, to the extent that teachers perceived senior administrators to be emphasizing this purpose, some tension and apprehension about goals could emerge.

The goals project was initiated on the basis of the above needs.

No attempt was made to ascertain whether parents and students shared
these perceptions and needs concerning educational goals.

Action was taken to communicate the needs for and purposes of educational goals to teachers, parents and students once the goals project was undertaken. Because teachers and principals were identified as key people if the purposes of the goals were to be realized, communication with these two groups received considerable attention and planning.

The Beliefs, Values and Principles Serving to Guide the Project

One principle established prior to the project was that students and parents were to participate in the search for and make decisions concerning appropriate educational goals. This principle led to the establishment of a Philosophy and Goals Committee having equal representation from parents, students and professional educators. This Committee designed and conducted the search for goals and made recommendations to the School Board concerning the goals to be adopted.

During the search for goals, the opinions of parents, students and educators were apparently equally weighted.

Other principles, values and beliefs were not explicitly stated. Some can, however, be inferred from the documentation available. The data analysis conducted by the Philosophy and Goals Committee indicates that the Committee was concerned that the goals of the school system be consistent with the beliefs and values held by the community.

Indeed, the superintendent, in an interview with a reporter, frankly stated that the goals of the schools must reflect those goals that the public establishes for education.

Implicit in the approach taken by the goals project was the belief that educational goals common to all schools in the division should be established. Discussion of this issue by the Committee indicates that the means by which these goals were to be achieved as well as the establishing of priorities among the goals was to be delegated to the individual schools. In this way, apparently conflicting values of autonomy and commonality of purpose were resolved.

It is also apparent that, in setting educational goals, no alternative structures to the existing school system were being considered. That is, the goals were set for the school division and were to be pursued by the schools in the Division; other vehicles or institutions for pursuing educational goals were not identified.

The documentation does not indicate that these principles or beliefs were explicitly communicated to the constituents. It may be that the constituents were able to infer such principles and beliefs from the manner in which the project was conducted.

Properties and Characteristics of Goals

No evidence of formal consideration of this issue exists. The issue, however, was unconsciously resolved by the nature of the purposes established for the goals and the process by which goals were researched.

A draft statement of educational goals was in existence in the Division at the time that the goals project was undertaken. This statement, prepared by principals and vice-principals, was used by the Committee as a "white paper" for the purpose of stimulating discussion on goals in the Division. The goals identified in the "white paper" were a copy of goals developed by a provincial task force for secondary schools. Consequently, what a goal looked like, its level of specificity, was conditioned by the appearance of the goals in the "white paper".

Goals used by the Committee in questionnaires for the purpose of soliciting preferences and priorities were borrowed from other jurisdictions. Thus, goal characteristics, rather than being consciously selected, were indirectly determined by the selection of goals derived from external sources.

A major purpose of the goals was to facilitate curriculum planning and evaluation. For River East, this implied that goals had to be stated in or translated into measurable terms. Since the goals offered in the "white paper" and in the questionnaires used in the project can be characterized as primarily general motivating symbols, a translation of these goals into more specific behavioral objectives was called for. While this translation was not part of the goals project, the Philosophy and Goals Committee was aware of a plan being drafted by the PPBS Committee in which each school staff in the Division was expected to translate general goals into behavioral objectives.

The above illustrates one implication of goals characteristics for the process of goal-setting and indicates how this implication was resolved.

The goals established were isolated from means. The Committee, in fact, did differentiate between goals and the means whereby the goals were to be achieved.

How Educational Goals Were Established

Several guidelines for setting goals in River East resulted from the previous considerations and were obviously followed. The Philosophy and Goals Committee was responsible for planning, implementing and monitoring the goals process. Its membership consisted of equal representation from parents, students and educators. Parents and students were surveyed, together with educators, for opinions on goals. Parents and students, along with educators, participated in the analysis and interpretation of data, and joined to make final recommendations about goals to the Board. While the goals were not stated in measurable terms, provision was made for follow-up activity to ensure that such a translation occurred.

Methodological obstacles to determining goals were dealt with lightly. It is not apparent that the issue of whether goals, priorities among goals and intensities of feelings concerning goals could be methodologically determined was ever discussed. What is apparent is that procedures used in other jurisdictions, procedures which were

primarily ratings or rankings of specified goals, were investigated and modified to suit local conditions. This latter point should be noted; it was acknowledged that procedures might not be borrowed intact from other jurisdictions. It was felt that local conditions must determine the content and format of the procedures to be followed.

Also to be noted is that a very limited range of alternatives for collecting data on goals was examined. The alternatives considered were primarily different versions of one basic approacherspondents were asked to rate on a Likert-type scale a set of preestablished goals.

The methodological strategy used by River East involved a plan of action developed and implemented by the Philosophy and Goals Committee. This plan provided for representatives of each population to be surveyed (parents, students, teachers) to draft a plan of action for the target population they represented. Frequent joint meetings of the three planning sub-groups were called to permit sharing of information and discussion of concerns. Consequently, when the three approaches were finalized, there was a marked similarity: a draft questionnaire providing for rating of goals on a semantic differential scale, multiple-choice responses to specific questions and open-ended responses was to be drafted, field-tested, and modified as needed; the modified version was to be distributed to all members of the target population; wherever possible the represen-

tatives of the target population were to plan and handle the distribution and collection of questionnaires.

Three criteria for selecting the instrument to be used are evident. The first, already mentioned, was that the instrument selected for use had to be appropriate to the local situation. The second criterion was that completion of the instruments by respondents was not to be a time-consuming activity. The third criterion stated that the language of communication, whatever the instrument used, had to be understandable to the target population. It was assumed that the procedure by which the instrument was constructed, as outlined in the preceding paragraph, ensured that these criteria were applied.

The data analysis to be done was left to the discretion of the chairman of the Philosophy and Goals Committee, who was the PPBS Director in the River East School Division. The data analysis consisted of the following:

- 1. calculating the percentage of respondents, by target population, replying in each category provided with a specific question.
- 2. determining the weighted mean for the semantic-differential rating of goals, by target population and for the total population sampled.
- 3. ordering the rated goals according to weighted means of responses.
- 4. categorizing the open-ended responses according to issues raised in the responses.

No guidelines for interpreting the data were established. The Committee examined the data and discussed various interpretations that could be inferred from the data. Essentially, the Committee relied on discussions leading towards a consensus of opinion within the Committee. The documentation on the project does reveal that the Committee noted and dealt with differences indicated by the data, that various interpretations and rationalizations of these differences were considered, and that the Committee reached no conclusions on some of these differences. In effect, the Committee recommended to the Board a statement of goals, which, while accepted by the Committee, represented to some Committee members a set of goals not completely warranted by the data collected. The goals statement apparently reflected what was acceptable rather than what was desirable to individuals on the Committee.

Reporting the Results

The Philosophy and Goals Committee gave considerable attention to the matter of reporting the results. It was recognized that copies of the results in detail would not only be costly to reproduce for the seventeen thousand people surveyed, but would not be comprehended and appreciated by many of the constituents. Consequently, a summary outlining the significant features of the results was prepared, distributed to all teachers and carried in the local papers. Advertisements were placed in local papers to inform constituents that copies of the detailed data analysis were available upon request. Two copies of

this comprehensive report were placed in each school.

The goals, once adopted by the Board, were distributed to all teachers in the Division.

Follow-up Activity

The Committee briefly considered follow-up action being designed to implement the goals. Since this action was being planned within the framework of the PPBS project, the Philosophy and Goals Committee left the follow-up issue to be resolved by other personnel in the Division. It should be observed that a specific plan for implementing the goals was available when the goals were adopted and that the plan was put into operation shortly thereafter. The plan envisioned the translation of adopted goals into measurable objectives by each school staff and evaluation and annual reporting by each school on the achievement of the objectives and adopted goals. This plan was consistent with the purposes and guidelines established for goals during the goals project.

The Tactical Questions

The narration provided in the preceding sections on the River East project contains several references to the questions of participation, nature of participation and communication. Representatives of parents, students and educators, as members of the Philosophy and Goals Committee, planned, implemented and monitored the goals process. They were also responsible for interpreting the data and making recom-

mendations to the Board of Trustees as to the statement of the goals which should be adopted. Their recommendations were fully approved by the Board.

Representatives of each target population were given full authority by the Committee to develop and implement a data-collection instrument for their respective target group.

All parents, high-school students and teachers in the Division were consulted by means of questionnaires as to their views on goals. These views were, apparently, equally weighted by the Committee. Public meetings were held for parents and special in-service days, planned by the local teachers' association, were held in each school to provide opportunity for clarification of the "white paper" on goals and the questionnaire accompanying it.

The local news media cooperated in publicizing the project, particularly its results. Special advertisements were placed in the local papers concerning the public meetings and the purpose for them.

Since the Division was intent on translating goals into action, the plan for implementing goals was accorded special attention. Because the role of the principal in each school was considered a critical one, two meetings of one and one-half days duration were held with principals and vice-principals to outline the implications of adopted goals for further activity at the school level. Two week-long "live-in" retreats were conducted for principals and teacher representatives from each school to examine several important implications of the

plan to implement goals; decentralized decision-making, translation of general goals into behavioral objectives, and investigation of the specifics associated with general goals such as creativity and personal-social development. A special ad-hoc committee presented guidelines for developing school policy manuals which would reflect the spirit of the adopted goals. A committee of the Board investigated organizational changes which emphasized flexibility of staff services and increased attention to curriculum and professional development in the Division.

III. THE LETHBRIDGE GOALS PROJECT

The Purposes of Educational Goals

One of the first issues considered by the Educational Goals
Leadership Team, established by the Lethbridge School District to
conduct a search for goals, was the matter of what purposes were to
be served by setting educational goals. While it is apparent that
the purposes identified—reducing uncertainty which existed in the
minds of people as to the purposes of education, satisfying parents
that the school district was giving careful consideration to the
direction being taken by education, providing a blueprint for longrange planning and resource allocation, providing guidelines for
innovation and change in the schools, and evaluating a public enterprise financed by public funds—were recognized by members of the

Leadership Team, it is not certain that the needs giving rise to these purposes were shared by teachers, parents and students in the school community. Thus, while the Leadership Team did ask the question, "What evidence is there of the need to review goals?", the answer to the question came from the perceptions of needs held by members of the Team.

The Leadership Team was concerned that the purposes of the goals project be clarified and expressed some apprehension that others might not perceive the published purposes in the same way as the members of the Team. The Team felt that a clear and unequivocable statement of purposes was needed so that none of the school district's reference groups would be under any unnecessary misapprehension as to the reason for the project. Presumably, such a statement was communicated. The documentation does not reveal whether it did take place nor how such communication was managed.

The Team was aware that unanticipated benefits from or purposes for a goals study might emerge. It is not clear whether provision for recording these was made in the goals search.

The Beliefs, Values and Principles Serving to Guide the Project

The Lethbridge Educational Goals Leadership Team dealt with and explicitly identified certain values or principles which were established as a guide to the process of goal-setting.

The school system was viewed as being a part of the community

and, therefore, responsible to it. The Team translated this principle into a need for broad community involvement in setting educational goals. The composition of the Team reflected this belief as well; parents, students and professional educators were represented on the Team, though the ratio of lay to professional members was one to two.

The role of the school as an agent for changing or preserving social values and attitudes was considered, though not resolved. Consideration was given to the possibility of alternative structures to the existing school system for meeting educational goals and was apparently resolved in that the Team felt the goals search should not be used to attach blame to or undermine the existing structure.

General goals, the Team believed, could be established for the Lethbridge school system. Specific goals, however, could vary from school to school if each school was to be sensitive to the characteristics of the local environment. This latter point was prized by the Team.

The Team believed that choices among goals could be made intelligently, directions for the schools could be identified, and that a large measure of agreement was possible. Within the Team itself, decisions by consensus were valued.

Finally, the Goals Leadership Team underscored the principle that the model developed for the goals search must be consistent with the purposes established for the project.

Properties and Characteristics of Goals

Various questions and concerns were raised by the Leadership
Team about the properties or characteristics of educational goals.

Some were explicitly resolved, some implicitly; some concerns or questions were raised and apparently never resolved.

A major concern was one of for whom educational goals were to be set. Were goals to be set for the school district, the school, or the individual student? Were educational goals to be set for the educator or for the community? The issue was resolved in favor of goals set for the school system. The questionnaires used in the study asked respondents to indicate what they thought the goals of the Lethbridge Public School System should be. While both educators and the community were polled as to their views on educational goals, it is not clear which views had the greater impact on the goals eventually set for the school system.

The Team wondered about the level of specificity attached to the goals. Were goals to be general statements open to varied interpretations? Were goals to be translated into measurable behavioral indicators? The answers to these questions were implicit in the purposes for goals perceived by the Leadership Team. The Team established that goals for the school system should be translated, at the school level, into more specific or performance objectives. Thus goals at the district level could be stated in general terms open to varied interpretations. The interpretations, however, were to be in

terms of specific behavioral objectives. Whether goals ultimately established by the district were translatable into specific measurable objectives is not clear.

Would goals be product, process or structure goals or all of these? This question, raised by the Team, was not definitively answered. However, the goals identified by the Team for investigation in the questionnaire clearly indicate that all three types of goals were considered.

The Team also deliberated about whether goals were static or changing, whether goals were present or future oriented, whether the goals were to be compatible with provincial goals, and whether goals were equivalent to societal values. The Team also considered the implications of some of these questions. They were also concerned about the language in which goals were to be stated. How these questions were resolved is not apparent in the documentation available.

How Educational Goals Were Established

Several guidelines for the process of setting goals were established by the Leadership Team. Firstly, because the school system was perceived as responsible to the community, the search for goals was to involve parents and students. Representatives from these groups sat on the Leadership Team. Secondly, the Leadership Team felt that choices among goals could be made intelligently and with a large measure of agreement. Consequently, a scientific search for goals was deemed possible and plausible.

Thirdly, the Team believed that the goals to be set would be goals for the school system; more specific goals or objectives were to be developed at the school level, apparently by the professional staff. Fourthly, existing organizational and communication channels were to be used for conducting the goals search. Finally, the Team felt that the search for goals must be conducted efficiently.

The Leadership Team did pose some questions about methodological difficulties associated with the determination of educational goals. It wondered whether goals were unearthed empirically, rationally or through a literature search. It debated whether goals could be systematically investigated or by "muddling through". It wondered how potential conflicts between lay people and educators could be resolved. Finally, the Team asked about the problems associated with going to various publics and how such publics could be involved. What is not clear is whether these questions were resolved nor is it clear by what procedure the above questions were resolved. Thus, while the Team considered some methodological obstacles, there is no evidence of the scope and depth of the investigation into these methodological problems. The Team did proceed with the project. That may be taken as an indication that the methodological concerns were satisfactorily resolved. General methodological strategies for conducting the goals search were considered at length by the Leadership Team. It debated the kind of questions to which the search for goals should be addressed. What feedback did the Leadership Team want? From whom should that feedback be obtained? How extensively were various population groups to be consulted?

Several alternative approaches to gathering data about goals were considered. The criteria for judging the alternatives were identified and systematically applied. Once an alternative was selected, the Team developed a systematic plan of action. It established a time frame for the project; specific target dates were set and activities associated with these dates identified. The Team also assigned responsibilities for these tasks. In effect, the Team selected, developed, implemented and monitored the plan. The Team considered facilitating devices. Consultant services available to the district were identified and potential roles for these examined. Financial resources for data analysis, reporting of results and consulting services were explored. Other goals projects which might be of value to the Team were noted. The literature on goals and various models on the procedure for identifying goals was consulted.

Both open-ended and structured responses were provided for by the Leadership Team. While the Team wondered about having respondents replying to pre-established goals as opposed to respondents generating their own goals, the former procedure was selected. The respondents, in effect, replied to those concerns identified by the Team.

The procedure developed at Lethbridge to collect goals reveals that intensities of feelings concerning various goals were to be registered by respondents. While the analysis of the data led the Team to

indicate priorities among goals based on the means of Likert-type response scales, respondents were not asked to priorize the goals.

The Lethbridge Educational Goals Leadership Team determined that data would be gathered through questionnaires, public meetings and briefs presented by concerned individuals or groups. Both a long-form (133 items) and a short-form questionnaire (63 items) were developed by the Team. The minutes of the Team's meetings indicate that considerable time was devoted by the Team to the development of the questionnaires. Who would develop the questionnaires? On what issues would they focus? Would they be field-tested? These questions were of much concern to the Team.

Some elaboration on the procedure by which the questionnaire was developed may be of value. Eleven issues were identified by the Leadership Team as worthy of investigation. This included areas such as curriculum, parent-public involvement, general goals, and instructional modes. Individuals on the Team then selected one of the areas for the purpose of drafting items that could be used in the questionnaire. It had been agreed that respondents would rate each item on a five-point Likert-scale, the categories ranging from "of extremely high importance" to "of no importance".

Once the first draft of items was completed, two members of the Team (including the consultant) were responsible for combining the items and drafting the complete questionnaire. This was then examined by the Team; errors and changes were noted and incorporated into what became the final version. Similar detailed attention was given by the Leadership Team to the public meetings and the call for briefs. Publicity on these two vehicles for gathering data was a significant issue to the Team.

The long-form of the questionnaire was distributed to teachers, administrators, and students in grades four to twelve in the school district. The short-form was distributed to a random sample representing 25% of the residents of the school district.

The minutes of the Leadership Team suggest that the matter of what data analysis should be done, while raised prior to the development of the instrument, was dealt with and resolved after the questionnaire had been distributed and a large number of completed questionnaires returned. The analysis of the data from the questionnaires was restricted, according to the minutes, to frequency tabulation, mean, mode, and standard deviation. Six different forms of cross-tabulation were also agreed upon. The final report on the project, however, presents considerably more limited data analysis. Modes and standard deviations are not revealed.

The Team debated at length its role in the goals search and concluded that it was not responsible for making recommendations concerning specific action by the Board as a result of the data collected.

Consequently, the Team decided to restrict itself to an examination of the data collected on each item in the questionnaire, translating the quantitative information into a statement of interpretation, presenting recommendations concerning the implications of the findings,

and identifying "priority findings". It is not apparent what criteria were used by the committee in making the interpretive statements and recommendations and in identifying the priority areas.

While the data showed that differences in responses between various population groups were apparent, the Leadership Team did not reveal how significant differences were determined. According to the written interpretation provided in the report, such significant differences were somehow determined.

It appears that in making recommendations, differences of opinion among the various groups had to be resolved. It is not clear, however, how such differences were resolved. The minutes do not indicate that the Team recognized that the interpretation of the results was a judgmental matter and that the beliefs of individual members of the Team would influence the decisions made regarding what the data indicated.

Reporting the Results

The Leadership Team gave careful consideration to the reporting of the data. It recognized that parents, teachers, Board members and the news media would want some feedback on the results of the goals study. The Team also recognized that the contents and manner of presentation of the data would be dependent upon the target population.

The results of the goals study presented in the final report of the Leadership Team reveal the Team's decision on several issues.

In compiling this report, the Team expressed concern about the length of the report, what data (raw data, data analysis, data interpretation, recommendations) was to be included in the report, and where this data was to be presented in the report. The Team also considered to whom this final report would be sent.

Follow-up Activity

While the Leadership Team determined that the Board would have to formulate its own priorities and recommendations for further action, it was nevertheless concerned about what would happen to the results of the goals study. At one point, the Team debated whether its function should be broadened to include making recommendations to the Board for follow-up activity.

The Leadership Team did decide that its report to the Board should include recommendations as to what the Board ought to attend to as a result of the goals survey. Examination of the findings of the Team as presented in the final report indicates that the Team did indeed assess the implications of the data for further Board action and presented recommendations on action to the Board.

The documentation does not reveal what follow-up activity occurred as a result of the goals project.

IV. SUMMARY

The search for educational goals conducted by River East School Division No. 9 and by Lethbridge School District No. 51 as recorded in the available documents (minutes, agendas, reports) was subjected to an analysis that was guided by the paradigm established in Chapter Three. The analysis, as recorded in the narratives in this chapter, revealed that the issues and tactical questions raised in the paradigm assumed considerable importance in both projects.

While conducted independently of each other, the narratives suggest that the two goals projects were markedly similar; the similarity is found both in the kinds of issues faced by each goals project and in the manner in which the issues were resolved. Further evidence of this point is provided in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

THE PARADIGM AND THE GOALS PROJECTS: OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The paradigm which evolved from the study of selected sources in the literature on educational goals and the process by which educational goals are set consisted of nine questions, six of which were described as critical issues regarding the process of setting educational goals. The remaining questions were labelled as tactical questions which confronted goal-setters. It was noted that the nine questions were considered to be interrelated; that is, the resolution of any one question was likely to be dependent upon and have implications for the resolution of the others.

The paradigm was proposed as a heuristic device. The questions comprising the paradigm, therefore, were offered as a framework for stimulating critical reflection by potential goal-setters upon the nature of the educational goal-setting task. It was assumed that the critical reflection arising from a consideration of the issues raised in the paradigm would facilitate and guide the thinking and action of goal-setters.

A discussion of two goals projects recently conducted in Western Canada was presented using the framework provided by the paradigm. This discussion served to illustrate the potential utility of the paradigm. The paradigmatic analysis of the two projects revealed that the two goals projects were remarkably similar. Furthermore,

it was observed that the nine questions raised in the paradigm were very important issues faced by goal-setters in both projects.

Additional observations are now presented to substantiate and elucidate upon the above. Firstly, the similarities and differences in the two goals projects are pointed out. Secondly, the relationship between the paradigm and the two goals projects is commented on. Finally, several speculative statements are presented about the process of setting educational goals. These statements are essentially tentative hypothesis which are open to further investigation, be it rational, empirical, or extra-rational.

I. A COMPARISON OF THE TWO EDUCATIONAL GOALS PROJECTS

Rather than treat separately the similarities and differences between the two projects, the two are compared on issues in which similarities and differences can be simultaneously observed. The comparison is not exhaustive; the projects are examined in sufficient depth to establish that they are, indeed, more similar than dissimilar.

The first observation which can be made is that the needs which gave rise to the two goals projects are very similar: a concern for accounting to the public on the allocation of educational resources and the achievement of educational purposes; a desire for a clear statement of purposes to facilitate educational (curriculum) planning. While these needs were articulated by administrators and

teachers in River East, in Lethbridge the needs reflected the perceptions of the school district's administration. In neither district
were parents and students consulted as to the need for setting educational goals.

The structures developed in the two school districts for planning, implementing and monitoring the process of setting educational goals were similar. In each case a committee composed of representatives of high school students, parents, teachers, principals, and central office administration was established and charged with the above-mentioned functions. Both committees were given what amounted to complete autonomy with regard to the process for investigating goals. Both committees were expected to present a final report to the Board in which data, interpretations, and recommendations would be included. The Boards in the two districts reserved to themselves the authority to decide what action would be taken as a result of the goals study.

When one considers that the two goals projects were conducted independently of each other, it is perhaps surprising to observe the degree of similarity in the plans adopted by the two committees for conducting the search for goals. In each project, the committee adopted an eclectic attitude: while various approaches to goalsetting were examined, the approach finally adopted amounted to a collection of ideas borrowed from several sources but modified to reflect what the committee believed to be the unique needs and charac-

teristics of the local district. This eclectic approach, used by each committee, led to similar methods for gathering data about educational goals in the two communities. Questionnaires were employed to gather opinions on the basis of responses on a Likert-type scale to goals issues selected by the goals committees. Provision was made for comments to be written in. The questionnaires were distributed to teachers, students, and parents in the community. While both projects requested all teachers to respond to a question-naire, River East differed from Lethbridge in that the former also asked all high school students and parents in the district to respond while the latter relied on a random sampling of parents and students in grades four to twelve. Both committees "field-tested" their questionnaires before distributing them to the respondents.

Both projects held public meetings to stimulate interest in and debate on educational goals. Anecdotal records of comments made at these meetings were used as additional sources of data. Leth-bridge sought and encouraged submissions by interest groups and individuals whereas River East did not.

While the projects were ostensibly aimed at gathering data regarding educational goals, an examination of the content of the questionnaires reveals that both committees were also concerned with and saw fit to gather data about the processes by which goals might be achieved and the structures through which goal achievement could

be facilitated. Yet, both committees clearly noted the dichotomy between means and ends. The decision to seek data about things other than goals was made deliberately by each committee.

While the documentation of the two projects reveals that
Lethbridge gave substantially greater explicit attention to the
relationships among values, goals and objectives and to the question of the properties and characteristics of goals than did River
East, both districts adopted the position that goals were general
statements of purpose established for the whole district requiring
further translation into more specific and measurable objectives.
That translation, as perceived by both committees, was to take place
at the school level. Thus, both districts valued the apparently
contradictory concepts of autonomy and articulation and resolved
that dilemma in the same way.

Lethbridge also, apparently, gave more explicit consideration to methodological questions regarding the collection and interpretation of data on "value-laden" issues such as educational goals.

Nevertheless, in both districts, the goals committees relied on similar vehicles for collecting data and subjected data to the same kind of statistical analysis; namely, the numbers responding to each category for each question, the weighted means of these responses, and the percentages corresponding to the numbers responding in each category. No further statistical analysis was employed. The interpretation of the data is not supported by any evidence that specific cri-

teria were established to discern what was significant and what was not significant. It appears, therefore, that both committees were guided by tacit knowledge, intuition, and dialogue in resolving questions of data significance and data interpretation.

As a final illustration, both goals committees expressed considerable concern that the results of the goals study be clearly communicated to the public and to teachers in the district. There is clear evidence that each committee deliberated at length about the format of reports to the various constituents. Each committee recognized that the information needs and the abilities to comprehend the data gathered differed among the constituents; each committee sought vehicles for meeting these differing needs and abilities.

In summary, while the Lethbridge and River East goals projects did differ on several very specific issues or details, they were markedly similar in their decisions and actions on major issues and most of the related sub-issues.

II. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE PARADIGM AND THE EDUCATIONAL GOALS PROJECTS

The text of Chapter IV revealed that the nine questions contained in the paradigm were important issues which the goals committees in the two projects dealt with and resolved. It has been demonstrated in this chapter that the resolutions of these issues were very

similar in the two projects. Several additional observations concerning the paradigm's relationship with the two goals projects can be added.

Firstly, the issues raised in the paradigm were not always dealt with explicitly in the two goals projects. On several occasions, it was not immediately apparent that one or the other goals projects had addressed itself to a particular question contained in the paradigm. However, following a closer examination, it was noted that, implicit in the decisions or actions of the goals committee was the consideration and resolution of an issue.

Two illustrations serve to substantiate that claim. The River East Philosophy and Goals Committee did not directly address the question of the properties and characteristics of educational goals. However, the goals statements, borrowed from other goals studies, reveal an implicit acceptance (or perhaps a tacit understanding) that educational goals are statements of general intent which cannot be directly measured and which must be translated into more specific terms for purposes of instructional planning and evaluation. The goal statements circulated by the River East committee were not a mixture of general and specific aims.

The question of methodological obstacles to gathering and interpreting data on educational goals was explicitly raised in Lethbridge and provides a second illustration of the implicit components of a project's activities. While the methodological question was

raised by members of the Lethbridge Leadership Team, there is no record in the minutes of that committee of the scope and depth of their deliberations nor of their resolution of the issue. The Leadership Team did, however, develop and administer an instrument to collect data on goals. The team did interpret that data and presented its interpretations to the Board. Implicit in the actions of the Leadership Team is the satisfactory resolution of the methodological issue. Presumably, had the Team felt that no adequate methodology for collecting data on goals existed, it would not have proceeded further with the goals search.

The above leads to another observation concerning the relationship between the paradigm and the two goals projects. While any question in the paradigm may embrace both theoretical and practical considerations, it was apparent in several instances in the two goals projects that the practical considerations took precedence over the theoretical ones. The methodological issue cited in the previous paragraph is an excellent example. While theoretical issues such as validity, reliability and tests of significance constitute part of the general question of methodology, there is no evidence that these questions were raised and deliberated in either of the projects. Questionnaires were developed and administered; data was collected, subjected to simple statistical manipulation, and interpreted. No rationale or justification in support of the techniques used was recorded. Perhaps the practical demands of collecting and analyzing

data were such that theoretical concerns were of little consequence.

Alternately, the theoretical concerns may have been unconsciously resolved through the application of tacit knowledge to the practical problems.

A third observation regarding the relationship between the paradigm and the goals projects related to the matter of sequence. The sequence of six critical issues, as listed in the paradigm, was loosely observed in both goals projects. That is to say, matters relating to the purposes or needs to be served by educational goals preceded concerns about beliefs, values and principles relevant to educational goals and the process by which they are set, which in turn preceded issues related to characteristics and properties of goals, and so on. However, this sequence was not strictly adhered to but only generally. Thus, methodological questions appeared before questions about beliefs and values had been resolved. Nevertheless, questions tended to be raised in the sequence suggested by the paradigm and explicit or implicit resolutions of issues followed the order of the six questions in the paradigm.

III. SPECULATIONS ABOUT THE PROCESS FOR SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

The analysis of the relationships which exist between the paradigm and the two goals projects offered an opportunity to arrive at some tentative statements concerning the process of setting edu-

cational goals for public school districts. These statements, which are now presented, assume the status of hypotheses in need of further investigation.

The first observation is that the issues identified in the paradigm are issues which apparently must be addressed when educational goals are being set for a public school district. River East and Lethbridge either tacitly, intuitively or explicitly recognized those issues and dealt with them. There is evidence that the Bayview Elementary School Goals Project and the Report of the Advisory Committee on Guidelines for Goals in California accepted these issues as concerns which had to be examined and resolved. The paradigm, therefore, assumes an imperative character: it serves to provide a framework for critical reflection upon necessary issues. Further research is needed to ascertain the apparent imperative nature of the questions in the paradigm.

In addition to the imperative quality of the issues, there exists a particular order in which the questions must be addressed. This imperative order is tempered by the overlap and interaction of issues but, nonetheless, remains as an order which in general must be followed. Again, further research is needed to test this claim.

Not to be overlooked in the preceding discussion of the imperative aspects of the paradigm is the observation that the issues may be explicitly or implicitly dealt with when educational goals are being set. The bases for decisions and activities are not always

explicitly stated.

A third observation is that, given the present state of knowledge regarding the resolution of issues relevant to the process of
setting educational goals, systematic and rational approaches provide
little or no advantage over a muddling and intuitive approach. This
statement arises from the observation that differences in systematic
and rational approaches to certain issues between River East and
Lethbridge led to no apparent differences in the resolution of those
issues.

The qualification made in the opening phrase of the third observation is important. If, as Berlak (1970) suggests, the epistemological questions concerning the resolution of differences in opinions and priorities about educational goals have not been adequately answered, then this deficiency in conceptual development may substantially reduce the benefits of systematic and rational approaches.

Intuition and "mucking around" in foreign and uncharted fields may be at no disadvantage to a quite opposite approach.

A factor which may detract from the potential benefits of a systematic and rational approach is the impact of values and norms on the resolution of issues pertaining to the process of setting educational goals. If the values and norms in the two districts were similar and if these values and norms were powerful influences on the decision-makers, then the potential effects of systematic and rational deliberation on issues may have been severely curtailed.

The two districts may also have shared a common tacit know-ledge about educational goals and goal-setting. Such common understanding could have led the two districts to achieve similar resolutions of the goal-setting issues while apparently differing in the degree of explicit consideration given to the issues. Thus, by way of illustration, Lethbridge dealt explicitly and at length with the matter of the characteristics of an educational goal; River East gave little or no explicit attention to the issue. The similar resolution of this issue is then attributed to the common knowledge about educational goals shared by the two districts. This knowledge may be tacitly held by educators in the two districts because they share a common culture (experience and professional training).

It is possible, however, that the apparent lack of advantage of systematic and rational approaches may be confounded by incomplete analysis. Firstly, what was identified as systematic and rational in the two goals projects may have been confused with explicitness and deliberativeness. Secondly, the advantages examined may have been too narrowly defined. The advantage of a rational and systematic approach may rest in increased appreciation of the uncertainty and limitations associated with the resolution of an issue rather than in the resolution itself.

The third observation, then, raises several questions which might be further explored. At its heart is the need to test the

utility claim of system and rationality.

The eclectic approach adopted in both goals projects suggests a fourth observation: the nature of the educational goal-setting process is such that the process must be adapted to and reflect the unique characteristics of the jurisdiction for which the goals are being established. This observation implies that specific procedures established by agencies external to the local situation are expected to serve as guidelines for local goal-setters rather than prescriptions. Local goal-setters, the observation suggests, are advised to adopt those processes which meet local conditions.

The observation may stand simply because the methodological issues regarding the collection of data about educational goals and priorities among those goals and the resolution of differences among competing and conflicting goals and goal priorities have not been resolved. Lacking this conceptual base, goal—setters are left with the task of finding their own solutions to the methodological issues. Alternatively, the goal—setting process may be not so much dependent upon a conceptual base as it may be upon what will be locally acceptable as a process or what can be locally justified. In any case, the uniqueness of the local situation is supported.

The fifth and final observation suggested by this study is that the consideration of educational goals does not occur in isolation of considerations about means and structures whereby goals may be attained.

This observation is reminiscent of Peter's rhetorical question
"Must An Educator Have An Aim?" and Lindblom's essay on "The Science
of Muddling Through". It is substantiated by the experiences of
River East and Lethbridge.

V. SUMMARY

The paradigm which evolved out of this study was related to two educational goals projects: River East School Division #9 in Winnipeg, Manitoba and Lethbridge School District #51 in Lethbridge, Alberta. The relationships between the paradigm and the two goals projects, together with a comparison of the similarities and differences between the two goals projects, led to the following five statements which require further study and research:

- 1. The issues identified by the questions in the paradigm are issues which must be addressed when educational goals are being set for a public school district.
- 2. The order of the questions, as identified in the paradigm, is the order in which the questions must be addressed.
- 3. Given the present state of knowledge regarding the resolution of issues relevant to the process of setting educational goals, systematic and rational approaches provide little or no advantage over a muddling and intuitive approach.
 - 4. The nature of the educational goal-setting process is such

that the process must be adapted to and reflect the unique characteristics of the jurisdiction for which the goals are being established.

5. The consideration of educational goals does not occur in isolation of considerations about means and structures by which goals may be achieved.

CHAPTER VI

EPILOGUE: SOME PRACTICAL GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATIONAL GOAL-SETTING

The study reported in the previous chapters provides a basis for formulating some practical suggestions about educational goal-setting. These suggestions may be taken as a set of guidelines to which goal-setters are advised to give careful consideration.

In the remainder of this chapter, the phrase "goal-setting" will include both educational goals and the process by which those goals are set. "Educational goals", or just "goals", and "process" will be used to signify one of the two components of goal-setting previously mentioned.

Thirteen principal guidelines for goal-setting are proposed; in effect, they constitute a series of steps advocated for goal-setting. Following the statement of each guideline, more specific suggestions and elaboration on the guidelines are provided. The principal guidelines are:

- I. Make a commitment to planning.
- II. Establish an ad-hoc planning committee.
- III. Ascertain the functions proposed for goal-setting and the nature of the commitment to those functions.
- IV. Establish the significance of prevailing beliefs and values and existing policies for the goal-setting.

- V. Define those properties and characteristics of educational goals which appear compatible with the previously determined functions, beliefs, values, and policies.
- VI. Make explicit the implications of goal functions, goal properties and characteristics, and goal-related beliefs, values, and policies for the process of setting educational goals.
- VII. Develop a detailed plan of action, consistent with the above implications, for the process of setting educational goals.
- VIII. Outline a procedure for monitoring the plan.
 - IX. Make explicit the follow-up activities which are envisioned upon completion of the goal-setting.
 - X. Gain acceptance for the plan, the monitoring procedures, and the proposed follow-up activities.
 - XI. Implement the plan as approved.
- XII. Communicate the results of the goal-setting.
- XIII. Initiate the follow-up procedures.

I. MAKE A COMMITMENT TO PLANNING

Planning refers to the critical reflection upon issues relevant to the goal-setting before the actual goal-setting activities are undertaken. Planning implies intentionality as opposed to accident or spontaneity, comprehensiveness rather than incompleteness, and explicitness instead of covertness. Associated with planning are the goals of efficiency, effectiveness and openness.

deration of alternative means to ends, co-ordination of diverse activities directed towards ends, and the identification of unnecessary
or duplicated efforts. Effectiveness arises as planning makes goals
explicit, outlines the steps and resources required to meet goals,
establishes the relationship between means and ends, and provides
the justification (or rationale) for the selection of ends and means.
Openness occurs when planning makes the foregoing explicit and public.

While it is recognized that planning cannot be complete because of various constraints placed on it, even severely limited planning offers benefits through creating awareness of and sensitivity to potentially significant issues and possible resolutions to some of those issues. This offers goal-setters an opportunity to be at least partially prepared for issues when they arise.

II. ESTABLISH AN AD-HOC PLANNING COMMITTEE

The task of the planning committee is to develop a plan for goal-setting. A committee is advocated because diverse groups will probably have considerable interest in educational goal-setting. It is also probable that goal-setting will have important implications for certain groups. A planning committee representing these diverse interest groups provides an opportunity for active participation in decisions about goal-setting; such participation promotes commitment among those involved and the interests they represent.

Several specific suggestions are offered in this area.

1. Initially, have representatives appointed from the school board,
the superintendent's office, the principals' association, and the
teachers' association.

It is probable that goal-setting will in some way affect each of these groups; it is unlikely that goal-setting will not be of interest to each of them. The four groups generally represent legitimately different but not necessarily incompatible interests in the school district. The first two groups provide the official sanctions for goal-setting; the latter two groups are usually intimately involved in the operationalizing of goals.

2. Retain the option to expand the committee.

Other interest groups (parents, students, community leaders) as well as people possessing certain needed expertise may be called upon to participate in planning. The apparent conflict between benefits associated with a small committee and broad representation will become evident. No rules can be cited for its resolution.

3. Have representatives selected by the groups they represent.

Whether warranted or unwarranted, suspicions about motives will be raised when representatives of groups are selected by external bodies. Those suspicions can be highly detrimental to the goalsetting enterprise.

4. Emphasize the ad-hoc nature of the committee

This provides the committee with a task that has some end in view. It also offers an opportunity to broaden the scope of participation as other related tasks arise. The option to change the status at some future time to a standing committee is retained.

III. ASCERTAIN THE FUNCTIONS PROPOSED FOR GOAL-SETTING AND THE NATURE OF THE COMMITMENT IN THE SCHOOL JURISDICTION TO THOSE FUNCTIONS

Presumable, goal-setting functions do meet certain needs which may or may not be explicitly identified. The importance of those needs and the commitment to meeting them should be determined. More specifically:

- 1. <u>Determine what needs educational goal-setting is expected to meet.</u>

 Ask those who are advocates of goal-setting why they wish to set educational goals.
- 2. Ascertain how widely and how deeply these needs are felt.

The objectives here are to find out how many share the needs for which goal-setting is advocated and how strongly those needs are felt.

3. Determine whether other important needs exist in the school district and assess the relative priorities among these and those established for goal-setting.

Multiple needs probably exist in any school district. Those for which goal-setting is advocated may not be the needs for which scarce resources should be expended.

4. Assess which important needs in the district educational goal-setting may be realistically expected to meet.

Some may view goal-setting as a panacea for all the district's needs. Alternatively, goal-setting may be a means of meeting needs not initially identified. The objective is to establish the full potential

utility of goal-setting.

5. Determine if goal-setting is the best way to meet important needs in the district.

Alternative ways of meeting needs for which goal-setting is a solution should be considered. Goal-setting may not be the most effective or efficient way of meeting high priority needs. Another possibility is that goal-setting is one of a series of steps in a solution to district needs and not necessarily the first step.

6. <u>Determine the resources (human, financial, moral support) that can</u> be committed to goal-setting as a means of meeting needs.

Goal-setting may consume a lot of scarce resources, especially human resources. The amount of resources available for the enterprise serves as a constraint of which planners must be aware; it may also be an indication of the real commitment to goal-setting which exists in the district.

It is important to assess the moral support which top-line administrators are prepared to give to goal-setting. Unless their commitment is sincere and visibly expressed, the commitment of subordinates (eg. teachers) to goal-setting will be frustrated and will eventually dissipate.

IV. ESTABLISH THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SCHOOL DISTRICT POLICIES AND PREVAILING BELIEFS AND VALUES FOR GOAL-SETTING

Certain policies and beliefs and values may exist in the school district which have implications for goal-setting. For example, a

strong belief in the right of the community to set educational goals contains implications for who should be involved and what the purpose of the involvement should be.

Four specific steps are proposed for this planning task:

- -identify those policies and beliefs and values which potentially have implications for goal-setting
- -outline those implications
- -ascertain the strengths of beliefs and values and the committment which exists to the policies in the district
- -determine which of the implications identified above should be heeded during the goal-setting

While it may be difficult to ascertain the strengths of prevailing beliefs and values in the district, informal discussions with community leaders and educators who are very familiar with the district can provide reliable information for use by planners.

V. DEFINE THE PROPERTIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS WHICH APPEAR COMPATIBLE WITH THE FUNCTIONS AS DETERMINED ABOVE (III) AND THE BELIEFS, VALUES, AND POLICIES OF CONSEQUENCE PREVIOUSLY OUTLINED (IV)

Various properties and characteristics have been assigned to educational goals. The properties and characteristics of goals for a school district should reflect the functions established for goalsetting and be consistent with the beliefs, values, and policies affecting education in the district.

A listing of possible properties and characteristics of educa-

tional goals could prove useful. The literature review in this study (Chapter II) and Appendix A provide some information. Other sources could include goals as established in other school jurisdictions and commercial goal kits such as those provided by PDK and CSE.

Another important consideration is the format and language for stating goals. Educational goals can be arranged in a hierarchical structure according to degree of specificity, in order of priority, or in accordance with a set of domains (eg. cognitive, affective, psychomotor). The language can be general or specific; professional terms may be used or avoided.

VI. MAKE EXPLICIT THE IMPLICATIONS OF GOAL FUNCTIONS (III),
GOAL PROPERTIES AND CHARACTERISTICS (V) AND SIGNIFICANT POLICIES, BELIEFS, AND VALUES (IV) FOR
THE PROCESS OF SETTING GOALS

While this point repeats earlier suggestions, it bears consideration as a separate principal guideline. The deliberations outlined in guidelines III, IV, and V will have generated important implications for goal-setting. Disregarding or violating some of these implications can negate the anticipated benefits of goal-setting.

VII. DEVELOP A DETAILED PLAN OF ACTION, CONSISTENT WITH THE ABOVE, FOR THE GOAL-SETTING PROCESS

Steps II to VI above have established the purpose for goal-setting, determined the commitment which exists in the district for that enterprise, and ascertained the principles or issues to which goalsetting must be sensitive if its purposes are to be realized. The important beliefs, values and policies which must not be violated by goal-setting have also been identified. Armed with this knowledge, planners are in a position to deal intelligently with the development of a specific plan for setting educational goals.

A good plan will outline the specific activities that will be undertaken and who will be responsible and involved in those activities; it also will provide a time-line indicating the initiation and completion dates for each activity.

The major issues which should be considered in developing a plan for setting educational goals follow.

1. Give explicit consideration at each stage of the plan to the matter of involvement.

Involvement embraces both participation in and communication about goal-setting. Participation acknowledges the value and legitimacy of direct contributions to goal-setting by constituents; communication keeps constituents informed of what is happening and why it is happening. Both participation and communication build commitment to the goal-setting activity and its purposes.

Three questions should be addressed by planners in resolving the issues of involvement: Who should be involved? In what manner should they be involved? Why should they be involved in this way? The latter question serves to justify the answers to the first two; that justification will be substantially derived from the deliberations which occurred in steps III to VI.

2. Study alternative strategies available for setting educational goals.

There is no one best way for setting educational goals. Different approaches have been adopted by different jurisdictions. It is assumed that these differences arise, at least partly, from the different functions established for goals and from differences in significant beliefs, values, and policies held by the various jurisdictions. Goal-setting, it appears, reflects the uniqueness of the local situation.

Planners should be aware of the different approaches adopted by other agencies. The PDK Goals Kit, the Elementary School Evaluation Kit (ESEK), and the goals approach mapped out by the California State Legislature are worth examining. Reports of studies by school jurisdictions in Canada and the United States offer other alternatives.

The examination of these alternatives should focus on their principal similarities and differences. Considerations could include: quantitative or qualitative approaches to data generation; potential for statistical or other forms of analysis; utilization of question-naires, public forums, Q-sorts, or other data gathering devices; establishing priorities, preferences, and ratings on some absolute or relative scale.

3. Establish and apply criteria for judging alternative strategies for setting educational goals.

The criteria which matter and the standards by which the criteria will be judged are usually unique to each jurisdiction. The resources available act as a set of constraints; these resources are

in part determined by the commitment which exists in the district to goal-setting. The implications for goal-setting previously identified (VI) will also affect the criteria selected and the standards of judgements applied to the criteria.

It is useful to be explicit and systematic in the setting of criteria and the application of standards. Explicitness not only provides a justification of decisions made about alternatives but also acts as some protection against the introduction of hidden and perhaps unwarranted criteria. A systematic approach facilitates a comprehensive analysis of alternatives and helps eliminate bias in the application of criteria and judgements.

This step should terminate with the selection, at least tentatively, of an approach for setting educational goals.

4. Determine how data collected will be analyzed and interpreted.

Whatever strategy is used for setting goals, some data about goals will be collected. The plan for setting goals should contain explicit instructions about how the data will be analyzed and interpreted. Consideration of this matter before data collection begins will give planners an indication of the possibilities and limitations associated with particular forms of data. This can lead to a reconsideration of the data collection strategy employed in the selected approach.

Issues that could be addressed at this stage are:

-possibilities and limitations to analysis inherent in the data

-determining what analysis will prove useful, what analysis

will be done, and who will assume responsibility for doing it.

-limitations and problems associated with interpretation of
a particular form of data: as an example, while a statistical analysis of quantitative data may yield tests of significance, the question of importance of those measures is
quite another matter.

-guidelines to be followed in interpreting data: Who will be involved? How will decisions about interpretation be conducted (vote, consensus, etc.)? What weights will be attached to different forms of data (eg. questionnaire responses, statements made in public forums, interview responses) and to responses from different sources (eg. teachers, students, parents).

-the merits of making explicit the rationale for the data analysis and the interpretations which are made of the data.

The latter point is important. Both data analysis and data interpretation contain a subjective element. The subjectivity appears in decisions about what the data means and what is important in the data. By being explicit about the rationale underlying these decisions of those not party to these decisions are afforded an opportunity to acquire an understanding or appreciation of why particular decisions were made. It also provides them with an opportunity to make informed judgements about the validity of interpretations. Depending on the purposes established for goal-setting, such "openness" may be vital to success.

VII. OUTLINE A PROCEDURE FOR MONITORING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLAN

A monitoring procedure outlines the responsibilities associated with implementing the plan and assigns those responsibilities to certain individuals. It also includes provision for periodic reporting on the implementation to appropriate authorities.

The monitoring procedure should establish the authority and provide for the resources needed to carry out the responsibilities contained in it. A good monitoring procedure will ascertain the willingness of those assigned a responsibility to carry out the responsibility. Unwilling conscripts should not be employed.

Monitoring is a responsibility which the planning committee could assign to others. This will broaden participation in goal-setting. Provision should be made for adequate liaison between the planning committee and monitoring personnel.

IX. MAKE EXPLICIT THE PROCEDURES THAT WILL CONSTITUTE A FOLLOW-UP TO THE COMPLETED GOAL-SETTING ACTIVITY

The follow-up activity to goal-setting will be dependent upon the functions established for goal-setting. Several specific suggestiona are offered:

1. A strong link between goal-setting and follow-up activities must be established.

This link avoids confusion that may arise as to why certain follow-up activities are being proposed. This link can be established by specific reference to follow-up activities in the planning and imple-

mentation of goal-setting.

2. While a general outline of follow-up may be sufficient, it should provide a clear indication of the commitments and responsibilities which are expected to follow once the goal-setting is completed.

It is possible that, once such expectations are made clear, there will be some second-thought given to goal-setting and its purposes.

3. Consideration should be given to the development of specific details about follow-up during the goal-setting activity.

This avoids a possibly unnecessary and harmful delay occurring between the time the goal-setting is completed and the follow-up activity begins.

- 4. The advantages to involving others in the development of specific follow-up plans should be considered.
 - X. GAIN ACCEPTANCE OF AND COMMITMENT TO THE PLAN, THE MONI-TORING PROCEDURE, AND THE PROPOSED FOLLOW-UP

The importance of acceptance of commitment to the above will depend upon the functions proposed for goal-setting. These functions will have implications for follow-up activities and the expectations associated with those activities. These, in turn, contain implications for commitment to and, hence, acceptance of the plans. Included in those implications will be concerns regarding whose acceptance and commitment is needed and the depth of commitment that is required.

Careful consideration of the need for and the nature of accep-

tance and commitment provides a basis for making intelligent plans for gaining acceptance and commitment. If widespread acceptance and deep commitment are necessary, a considerable amount of time and energy may have to be devoted to achieving two goals. It might prove beneficial to include explicit provision for modifications to goalsetting plans, monitoring procedures, and follow-up activities resulting from feedback as acceptance and commitment is being established.

XI. IMPLEMENT THE GOAL-SETTING PLAN AND THE MONITORING PROCEDURE AS APPROVED

If, during Step X, modifications have been made to plans, the modifications should be communicated to those affected by them.

XII. COMMUNICATE THE RESULTS OF THE GOAL-SETTING PROCESS

Attention must be given to matters of format and detail regarding the presentation of results. Again, these issues are dependent upon the functions established for goal-setting and the beliefs, values, and policies of significance to goal-setting.

Depending upon the audience for which it is intended, the presentation of results may be made in summary or in detail, in print and/or in other visual and audio forms, and in lay or professional language. The timing of the presentation of results, the length of the presentation, and the choice of sites for the presentation are important considerations.

The need for detailed knowledge about the results of goal-

setting and how those results were arrived at may vary among constituents in the district. The differential needs will be dependent on the functions established for goal-setting. These considerations should be largely responsible for resolving the issues raised in the preceding paragraph.

XIII. INITIATE THE FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES

It bears repeating: A clear link between the terminated goal-setting phase and the follow-up activities which have been planned is essential. There is a danger that goal-setting and follow-up will be perceived as two distinctly separate activities unless provision for linking them is deliberately made. Confusion as to why follow-up activity has been initiated can be avoided; planners should take steps to avoid that confusion.

XIV. SUMMARY

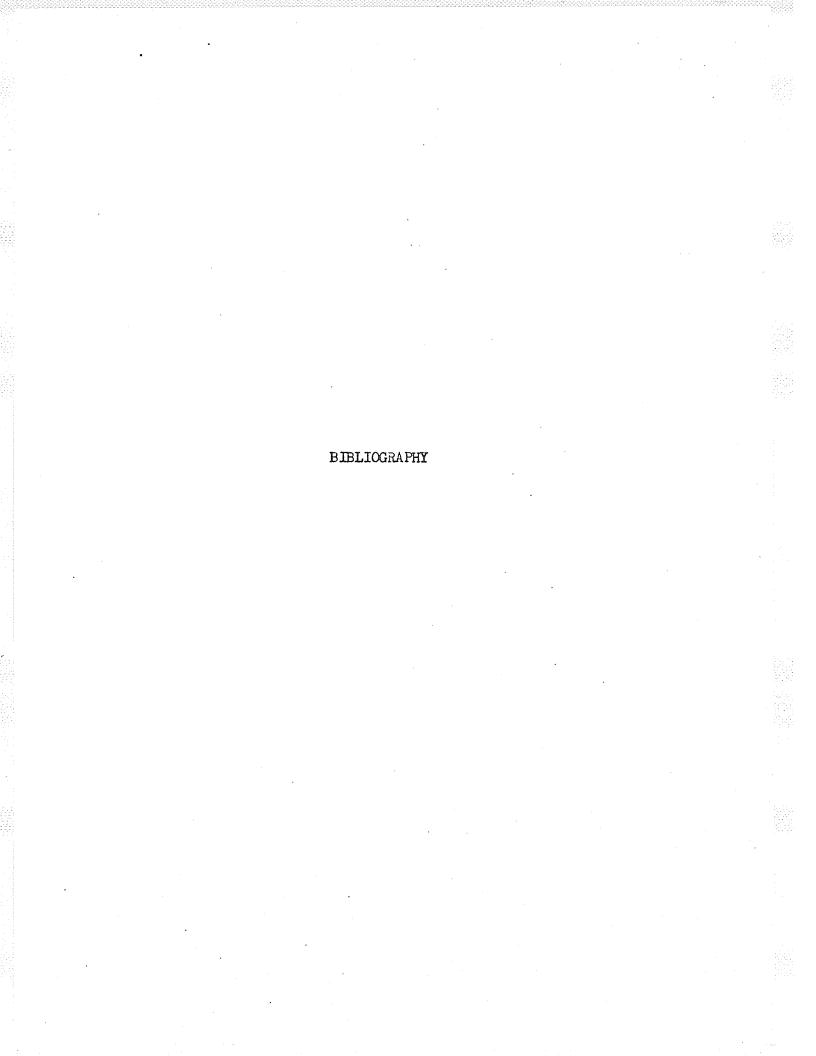
Thirteen guidelines for educational goal-setting have been presented. It is proposed that they be considered in the order in which they have been presented. However, because the resolution of issues associated with any one guideline will seldom occur independently of considerations of issues associated with one or more of the other guidelines, no strict adherence to sequence outlined in this chapter is anticipated. Nor is such strict adherence advocated.

Emphasized in this chapter was the need to develop a coherent

approach to goal-setting. An undertaking to set educational goals could benefit from a consideration of the functions goal-setting is expected to play, the values, beliefs, and policies existing in the district which have significance for goal-setting, and the properties and characteristics which educational goals are perceived to possess. It was noted that these issues have important implications for questions about involvement and commitment in goal-setting, the selection of mechanisms for gathering data about goals, the communication of results of the goal-setting, and the nature of the follow-up activities to be undertaken once goal-setting is completed.

Finally, while many issues about goal-setting have been raised, few solutions to those issues have been offered. Educational goal-setting appears to be an activity that is highly sensitive to perceptions about local needs and local conditions. These perceptions tend to ascribe a unique character to the local situation. Hence, each jurisdiction may need to reflect upon that uniqueness in resolving the issues.

There is, then, no one "best way" for setting educational goals.



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APPENDIX A

PRINCIPAL ISSUES, BY MAJOR CATEGORY, IN THE PROCESS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL GOALS IDENTIFIED IN THE INTENSIVE SEARCH

What beliefs, values, and principles will be of significance to the process of setting educational goals?

I. Philosophical Issues

- 1. What beliefs are held about the role of the school in society?
 - a. Does the school exist to serve the community?
 - b. Are educational goals to reflect societal values?
 - c. Does the school function to change or preserve societal values?
 - d. Are the people the ultimate source of all legitimate authority in our democratic system?
- 2. Is the present delivery system of public education to be retained?
 - a. Are alternative structures possible? Are they to be considered?
- 3. How is a desire for local decision-making to be accommodated with a desire for district-wide goals?
 - a. Can and should goals vary from school to school?
- 4. Are goals necessary to an understanding of the school system and what it is doing?
- 5. How is an educational philosophy formulated? Upon what does it depend?
- 6. Should educational goals and the process whereby they are established be consistent with prevailing beliefs, values and philosophy regarding education?

What are the purposes for engaging in a process to set educational goals?

II. Goal Functions

- 1. Why should a project to set educational goals be undertaken?
 - a. Is there a need for setting educational goals?
 - b. What evidence is there of such needs?
- 2. What functions are envisioned for educational goals?
 - a. What are the various functions educational goals can perform?
 - b. Which functions are to be served by the goals project?
 - c. Whom do goals serve?
 - d. Can goals serve multiple functions?
 - e. Are such functions static or changing?
- 3. Do the functions selected for educational goals have implications for the kinds of goals to be set and the process by which they are set?
- 4. How clearly must goal functions be perceived? By whom?

What properties and characteristics are the educational goals to exhibit?

III. Goal Characteristics

- 1. What relationships with educational goals should be considered?
 - a. How are goals related to societal values?
 - b. Can educational goals be considered in isolation of their operational implications?
 - c. How are educational goals related to philosophy, needs and objectives?
 - d. How are educational goals related to the learning abilities of students?
 - e. What relationship is envisioned between local and provincial goals of education?
- 2. What orientation do educational goals possess?
 - a. Do educational goals describe what is, what will be, or what ought to be?

- b. Are goals to be product, process or structure oriented?
- c. Are goals to be objects aimed at or objects to be achieved?
- d. Are goals measurable or unmeasurable?
- e. Should educational goals be comprehensive or highly selective?
- f. Are goals to be stated in general or specific terms?
- g. Are goals static or changing?
- h. For whom are goals established?
- 3. In what format and language should goals be stated?
- 4. Can goals be externally established for a system or an individual?
- 5. Can goals be "objectively" known?
- 6. What are the implications of goal characteristics and properties for the process whereby educational goals are set?

What procedures are to be used in setting educational goals?

IV. Monitoring and Planning Structure

- 1. What structure will be used to plan and monitor the process of setting educational goals?
- 2. What will be the function of each component of the structure?
- 3. What background information does each component require?
 - a. To whom is each component responsible?
 - b. Within what time constraints is each component to work?
 - c. What consultative services are available?
- 4. Is a definite plan of action to be formulated or will "muddling through" approach be accepted?

V. Facilitating Devices

- 1. What support is needed for the process of setting educational goals?
 - a. What moral support is required?

- b. What financial resources are available?
- c. Are consultative services for the process of setting goals obtainable?
- 2. Who will provide the support needed to set educational goals?
- 3. What external resources can be tapped?
 - a. Are other goals projects to be consulted?
 - b. Do models for setting goals exist in the literature?
 - c. Can consultants on specific matters be identified and tapped?
- 4. Is special training of personnel required to set educational goals?
- 5. What information or communication is envisioned to combat ambiguity, suspicion, uncertainty, and apathy?

VI. Involvement

- 1. Who should be involved in setting educational goals?
- 2. Why should various people (or groups) be involved?
 - a. What are the perceived benefits and costs of involvement?
 - b. Are certain populations critical in terms of involvement?
 - c. Is involvement to be voluntary?
- 3. How extensively are the various participants to be involved?
- 4. How are participants to be involved?
 - a. What roles are participants to have in the process of setting educational goals?
 - b. What vehicles will be used to promote these roles?
 - c. What pitfalls concerning involvement are to be avoided?
 - d. What incentives can be used to promote involvement?
 - e. What leadership among various groups can be utilized?

VII. Instrumentation: Theoretical Issues

- 1. Can educational goals be methodologically determined?
 - a. What espistemological foundations exist for resolving moral (value) issues?
 - b. Do adequate theories and models exist for determining educational goals?

- c. Can priorities and preferences among competing and/or conflicting goals be established?
- d. Can educational goals be determined scientifically? Rationally? Empirically? Quantitatively? Objectively? Intuitively? Systematically? Logically?
- 2. How are educational goals to be established?
 - a. How are conflicts among goals and priorities to be resolved?
 - b. How are intensities of feelings and numbers preferring various alternatives to be combined?
 - c. Are traditional approaches (eg. rank ordering) satisfactory?
 - d. Are preferences stable or changing?
 - e. Can decisions concerning educational goals be logically or objectively justified?

VIII. Instrumentation: General Planning

- 1. What considerations are to be observed in developing a plan for setting educational goals?
 - a. Are goals to be generated by or for participants?
 - b. Will priorities or rankings among goals be undertaken?
 - c. Can instruments for setting goals be borrowed from other jurisdictions?
- 2. What instruments will be used?
 - a. What alternative instruments for collecting data should be considered?
 - b. What criteria will be used to judge these?
- 3. How are areas or goals to be investigated established?
- 4. To whom should the plans be communicated?

IX. Instrumentation: Development

- 1. What form is the instrument for collecting data to take?
 - a. To what are participants expected to respond?
 - b. Are responses to be structured or open-ended?
 - c. How are preferences to be indicated?
 - d. What kind of data, qualitative and quantitative, is sought?
- 2. How will the instrument be developed?
 - a. Will the instrument be "field-tested"?

X. <u>Instrumentation: Administration</u>

- 1. To what populations will the data gathering instrument be administered?
 - a. Is sampling or "total population" response to be done?
- 2. How will the collection of data be conducted?
 - a. How can maximum response be facilitated?
 - b. What channels will be used to collect the data?

XI. Methodology: Data Analysis and Interpretation

- 1. What data analysis is to be done?
 - a. Who should decide what data analysis is to be done?
 - b. What quantitative and/or qualitative analysis is desired?
 - c. What is the value of this data analysis?
- 2. Who will do the data analysis?
- 3. What guidelines are to be followed in analyzing and interpreting the data?
 - a. Should the data collected be described, criteria for judging it presented, and judgments on the data rendered? By whom?
 - b. Are decisions to be made rationally or intuitively?
 - c. Is the rationale for decisions to be presented?
 - d. Are differences or conflicts in interpretation to be resolved? How?
 - e. How are significant differences to be determined?
 - f. Are equal weights to be attached to all opinions?
- 4. What interpretation of the data is possible?
 - a. How broadly are certain value positions held and how desirable are goals perceived to be?
 - b. Are differences in views real or apparent?
 - c. Do the views expressed represent the target population?
 - d. Of what significance are views expressed in a public forum?
 - e. What is to be done with very reactionary views?
 - f. Are implications for schools of data interpretations to be considered?

What communication is needed concerning the process of setting educational goals?

XII. Methodology: Reporting

- 1. To whom will the results of the goals study be reported?
- 2. What will be reported?
 - a. Will the same information (data) be given to everybody?
 - b. What criteria will be used to decide who gets what data?
 - c. Are only relevant issues to be reported?
 - d. Will recommendations for further action be included?
 - e. Will the rationale for recommendations be reported?
- 3. How will the data be reported?
 - a. How should judgement data be reported?
 - b. How can values be meaningfully communicated?
 - c. Will the public media be used?
 - d. Is a "final report" to be compiled? In what format?
- 4. What considerations should be kept in mind when reporting?
 - a. What level of detail is considered appropriate?
 - b. Are costs of reporting a significant variable?
 - c. Do different constituents require different kinds of reporting formats?

What follow-up activity is warranted by virtue of the undertaking to set educational goals?

XIII. Follow-up Action

- 1. Should a review of the completed goal-setting process be conducted?
 - a. Are there areas of the process which require study?
 - b. Will the perceptions of others concerning the formulated goals be explored?
 - c. Do formulated goals require additional clarification?
 - d. Is a follow-up study of goals considered advisable?
- 2. What action seems necessary as a consequence of the goals study?
 - a. What expectations have been raised by the process of setting goals?

- b. Are there plans to deal with these expectations?
- 3. What will happen to the "results" of the goals study?
 - a. Are goals to be implemented?
 - b. Does a plan for implementing goals exist?
 - c. How is the implementation plan developed?