PROGRAM PLANNERS' PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE

by

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ABSTRACT

The adult education literature offers little analysis and understanding of the practical knowledge of the program planning process planners hold and use. Rather, a comprehensive review of theoretical sources revealed the widespread use of the academic model, informed by Tyler's rationale, which has yielded a linear model of planning and a technical view of planners. By contrast, the theoretical sources on practical knowledge and on curriculum and teachers' thinking pointed to the use of an experiential model, informed by Schwab's theoretical concepts, which has presented planning as deliberative, and planners as creators and possessors of knowledge.

The purposes of the study were to: gain an understanding of the kinds of practical knowledge planners in a university continuing education unit find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning; acquire a greater understanding of the planning process from their perspective; and develop categories for interpreting these understandings. The research was guided by an interpretive perspective and qualitative methods.

The study was conducted in two phases. A pilot and a follow up study. In total, a purposive sample of six planners, two males and four females, none of whom had pursued graduate study in adult education, working in the same institution, were interviewed.

It was concluded that practical knowledge, which informs planning practice, consists of three kinds of knowledge: declarative, procedural, and conditional which stand in dialectical relationship to one another; and that planning practice requires
that planners have and use all three kinds of knowledge. Further, planning is indeterminate and contingent on the context and planners' knowledge. These planners' practical knowledge incorporates a framework of concepts, rules and routines or strategies, beliefs, values, principles, and metaphors of practice. This framework has implications for planners' criteria of valid and reliable knowledge, informal and formal planning strategies, the ideological character of knowledge, and ethics of practice. As well, these planners use a combination of planning approaches which are directly related to the nature of the planning context and their own capabilities. The contextual and problematic nature of planning is made explicit. The study challenges the prevailing assumptions associated with a traditional view of planning.
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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

The field of adult education presents a curious paradox. Observations made in the course of professional practice lead one to conclude that program planning is a central activity in the adult education enterprise for which program planners are responsible. The fulfilment of that responsibility requires the ability to bridge the gap between theory and practice; to possess and use knowledge of the commonplaces, self, and planning in a purposive and creative manner; to negotiate decisions among competing and conflicting needs and interests of adult learners and various interest groups; to be cognizant of the mission, goals, and philosophy of the employing unit and the institution; to work within the constraints and conflicts of the unit, the institution, and societal context; and to facilitate and enhance adult learning. Good program planners need to be discriminating professionals whose intentions are to bring about learning in their clients and who struggle to choose methods, materials, and content that best serve the goal of bringing about such learning (Elbaz, 1981).

However, the program planning literature in adult education, which is informed primarily by Tyler's (1949) theoretical model, is often atheoretical and "cookbook like", provides a technical view of planners' practice (Apps, 1985; Sork and Buskey, 1986), and consequently, presents only a partial conception of planning and planners' practical knowledge. In contrast, Schwab's (1969) practical curriculum perspective portrays good planning as complex and creative, requiring a dialectical relationship between theory and practice. His perspective presents an alternative view of
planning and planners' practical knowledge (Connelly, 1972; Elbaz, 1981; and Clandinin, 1986). Since adult education is integral to the field of education, an understanding of the models and their intellectual traditions provides an organizing framework for the thesis and for understanding planning and practical knowledge in adult education.

Further, a number of writers in the field of adult education, including Pennington and Green (1976), Brookfield (1986), Burnham (1988), and Cervero (1988), suggest that planners reject the "wholesale" use of planning models because of their uneven fit in practice. Brookfield (1986) describes this uneven fit as theory practice disjunction. If some planners reject planning models in practice, then just what is it that they do and how do they know how to do it? What factors contribute to their practice? On what basis are their decisions made? Does the situational context affect these decisions? Thus, it is important to describe planning practice and elicit from planners the grounds upon which they base their actions.

Usher and Bryant (1989) concur that planning is a central activity of planners, and that many practice situations are not routine, but manifest uncertainty, uniqueness, complexity, and value conflict. In these practice situations, the ends are not always known and given, and the selection of means is not simply based on technical criteria of efficiency and effectiveness, the values and goals of the positivist perspective. Rather, problems encountered in practice situations rely for resolution on the practical knowledge of planners.

Although planners may not systematically reflect on their
practice, when they do, what is often articulated is a conscious, deliberate process informed by informal theories, or assumptions about the what, how, when, and why of practice which describe their practical knowledge (Usher and Bryant, 1989). Planners' practice is perceived to be intentional, systematic, and emergent. This conceptualization of planning practice deals with the means-ends as mutually determining each other, and focuses on knowledge and decision making in a deliberative process in the situation. This view offers a reconceptualization of planning, planners' practical knowledge, and the theory-practice relationship.

However, continued reliance on the dominant view of planning as technical not only obscures what planners actually do in practice, but also inhibits the development of meaningful conceptions of planning and planners' practical knowledge. Further, there are no studies in adult education which focus on planners' practical knowledge and the planning process. Therefore, it is important to redress this. To develop adequate conceptions of planners' practical knowledge and planning practice, an interpretive perspective is used to conceptualize practice.

Schwab's (1969; 1971; 1973) perspective, upon which a number of studies builds, including Connelly (1972), and Elbaz (1981), offers a useful alternative framework in which to conceptualize planners' practical knowledge and planning. This perspective may shed some light on the theory-practice relationship. Moreover, conceptualization is best accomplished on an empirically verifiable basis by examining planners' practice from their perspectives. Thus, it is critical to discover what informs planners' practice; that is, what practical knowledge is used in planning practice.
The collection of such data requires an involvement of planners in the research process. Thus, through interviews, planners will be asked to explain the grounds upon which their actions, decisions, and judgements are made during the planning process to understand, describe, and construct categories of their knowledge in practice.

1 Problem Statement

The lack of information in the planning literature in adult education concerning the kinds of practical knowledge planners in a university continuing education division find useful and relevant to their decision making in planning programs must be redressed to develop an understanding of both planners' practical knowledge and the planning process. Planners consciously and intentionally understand, describe, and confer meaning in planning to act in a manner they consider to be appropriate in the situation.

Planners not only identify content, objectives, learning experiences, and criteria to ensure that objectives are achieved, but also make decisions among educational alternatives in planning programs for adults. In a deliberative planning process, planners shape planning through their practical knowledge to make the "best" decisions related to the context, content, learners' needs, institutional goals and values, competing and conflicting interests of various groups, and instructors.

2 Purposes of the Study and Research Question

The purposes of this study are to gain an understanding of the kinds of practical knowledge planners in a university continuing education division find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning; acquire a greater understanding of the planning process from their perspective; and develop categories for
interpreting these understandings. The research has been guided by the following questions: 1) what are the aspects of practical knowledge that planners use in planning? 2) what are the components of planners' knowledge of planning? and 3) what is the nature of the relationship of planning and practical knowledge?

3 Significance of the Study

An understanding of the kinds of practical knowledge that planners have, and of their planning practice may be significant in a number of ways. It is through an exploration of planners' thinking about what they do and why, that new conceptualizations of practice may emerge. This, in turn, may provide the basis for the development of a comprehensive conception of planning. Therefore, by attempting to understand and describe planners' practical knowledge and the relationship of this knowledge to planning practice, this study is designed to contribute to the field of adult education and to education in general.

Through understanding how planners hold and use practical knowledge in planning, it is possible to discover whether practice mediates and is mediated by its context. An examination of this process provides further understanding of practice. This information, when compared with current planning models, may suggest a framework for describing what is done in practice, in addition to prescribing what should be done in practice. This approach may lead to further understanding of theory and practice.

Since the literature in adult education offers little analysis and understanding of planning practice and the practical knowledge that planners use, it is important to redress this. This study offers the potential to reconceptualize the continuing education
for planners as well as assist in mapping professional practice.

4 Organization of the Remainder of the Dissertation

In Chapter Two, a review of the literature, as related to the following areas relevant to this study, is presented: 1) selected planning models in education; 2) selected planning models and research on planning in adult education; 3) literature on practical knowledge and the theory-practice relationship; and 4) research on curriculum and teacher thinking. Chapter Three explains the methodology, design, and procedure used to accomplish the study. In each of Chapters Four, Five, Six, and Seven, through case analysis, the findings will be presented. Chapter Eight consists of three parts: summary of findings, suggestions for further research, and implications and discussion. The list of references and appendices follow this chapter.
CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Related Literature

Introduction

Research related to practical knowledge and planning practice is fairly new in the field of adult education. In education, theoretical formulations of Schwab (1969), Sternberg and Caruso (1985), and Elbaz (1981, 1983) have raised the concept of practical knowledge into the fore of curriculum study. While, in adult education, studies by Pennington and Green (1976), Lauffer (1977), and Burnham (1988) have raised the study of the planning process into focus with respect to questions asked, areas examined, and methods used.

This chapter is divided into four sections which deal with the related theoretical sources: 1) selected planning models in education; 2) selected planning models in adult education and research on planning in adult education; 3) literature on practical knowledge and the theory-practice relationship; and 4) research on curriculum and teacher thinking. These theoretical sources comprise the lens through which the research questions, problem, and findings are viewed.

1 Selected Planning Models in Education

Usher and Bryant (1989) suggest that three major models of planning and their intellectual traditions inform planning in education and adult education as well as provide some understanding and insight into the theoretical underpinnings of planning practice. These include: the academic or dominant model which is content focused and is informed by Tyler's rationale; the experiential model which is learner centred and is informed by
Schwab's theoretical concepts; and the social reconstruction/adaptation model which is problem-situation centred and is informed by Freire's theoretical formulation. Carr (1986) states these perspectives more accurately approximate the Habermasian view of the three general forms that human and social sciences can take (positivist, interpretive, critical) each based on a different interpretation of the nature of human action and social life (instrumental, communicative, reflective), and each incorporating different preferences about the kind of practical purpose (or human interest) that social scientific theorizing serves (technical, practical, emancipatory) (p.183).

Usher and Bryant (1989) suggest that the academic model still remains the dominant and widespread model in use at all levels of the education system including adult education. This perspective draws on the natural sciences, and emphasizes the discovery of knowledge based on the manipulation of variables as objects in the physical world. In this approach, there is a commitment to a disinterested, value-free science whose goal is to explain in order to control and predict through generalizable explanations. Valid and reliable knowledge is achieved by the application of quantitative techniques. The theory-practice relationship is logistical, whereby theory is applied to practice. In this view, the end of inquiry is to know.

A critique of the limitations of this approach for social sciences suggests the interpretive perspective, an alternative approach for the social sciences, which locates theory, practice, and research in social contexts and stresses hermeneutic understanding. In this approach, the construction of knowledge is
based on communicative understanding, interpreting, and conferring meaning in particular contexts based on qualitative techniques. Theories are inherent in contextual understandings and negotiated meanings. Valid and reliable knowledge is achieved by experimentation and problem-solving methods. The theory-practice relationship is dialectical, whereby theory and practice mutually influence each other. The end of inquiry is an increased capacity to act morally and ethically.

In addition, the critical paradigm draws conceptually on the interpretive perspective, and addresses problems and questions of social sciences. This paradigm underscores the construction of knowledge based on critical reflection and action through the application of qualitative techniques. Valid and reliable knowledge is achieved by a problem posing method. The theory-practice relationship is praxis, whereby thought and action are mutually constitutive. The end of inquiry is to expose and change social conditions and patterns of control. Moreover, these three perspectives constitute different interpretations of planning, the nature of planners' practical knowledge, and the theory-practice relationship.

For instance, Tyler's rationale assumes a mechanistic stepwise planning process which reduces the role of planners to a technical procedure of implementing the prescriptions which constitute his rationale. This view promotes planning by objectives whereby intentions are specified in advance and the means for achieving them are seen as unproblematic. Planning by objectives converts planning to a procedural process: one that is carried out by applying a uniquely suitable formula to achieve the prespecified
outcomes. Consequently, Tyler's rationale is seen as normative and prescriptive, providing a cookbook-like, "how to" formula which converts planning into a technique, reducing planners' role to technicians carrying out a routinized planning process (Apps, 1985; and Sork and Buskey, 1986).

Tyler's rationale is problematic in a number of ways. It provides no guidelines for weighing and prioritizing the selection of content from the three potentially competing and conflicting sources - content specialist, learners, and society. It emphasizes behaviour of learners in the educational experience. Further, Tyler claims that content must be chosen first and then submitted to psychological and philosophical screens which implies a one directional relationship between content and values. Finally, he suggests that objectives and criteria to measure the objectives must be specified in advance which implies that all learning is observable and measurable.

Tyler's rationale is informed by technical criteria of efficiency and effectiveness, and is linear and one dimensional. The ends are kept separate from means, and are seen as unproblematic. It does not account for human intentions and value commitments, nor for the interaction of those in planning, and decision making in the curriculum process. The emphasis on technique, control, and procedures to follow render the complexity, uncertainty, uniqueness, and value conflicts inherent in curriculum silent and unproblematic.

This model, which suggests that there is a "right way" of planning, is informed by a fixed view of knowledge, and tight structure among the commonplaces of planning. The relationship of
learners and instructor in the learning-teaching situation is vertical and characterized by teacher-pupil role. Planning is one dimensional and linear. Planners implement knowledge in practice. As well, the role of the planner is that of a theoretic-technician in search of control. Planning is viewed as essentially a technical activity designed to bring about the achievement of educational ends that have been specified in advance by some other educational agent.

Therefore, the dominant planning model describes planners' practice as exclusively concerned with developing objectives, identifying content and learning experiences, and establishing criteria to ensure the objectives are achieved -a content focused perspective. While this describes a significant component of planning, it is not a comprehensive model for it. Perhaps, this view of planning is suited for curriculum design in education. Also, there is a failure to address both the situational context in which programs are planned and the practical knowledge planners use in making decisions about planning.

In contrast, Schwab's (1969; 1971; 1973) works on the practical nature of curriculum brought to the forefront the inadequacies of the positivist perspective to resolve curriculum problems. Schwab (1969) argues that curriculum is a practical field of study and as such practical not theoretic knowledge is required when identifying alternative courses of action given the intentions and fundamental commitment of planners and the given contextual situation. Thus, Schwab proffers the practical as the language of the curriculum.

The practical is informed by the interpretive perspective
which has an interest in communicative understanding and interaction, and deliberation in the state of affairs. The means and ends mutually influence each other, the goal of planning is to act appropriately based on "tested knowledge", and the theory-practice relationship is dialectical, that is, theory and practice mutually influence each other (Popkewitz, 1984; Carr and Kemmis, 1984; Grundy, 1987; Usher and Byrant, 1989).

Gay (1980) summarizes the assumptions which inform the experiential model. People are involved in their learning when there is personal relevance to them. The most tenable and justifiable planning results from collaborative planning among instructors, learners, and content specialists. The inquiry process is based on experimentation and problem solving. Inquiry originates in interpersonal relations. Planning is responsive to the situational context.

Further, the experiential view of planning is informed by a tentative view of knowledge, and a predisposition to an informal, loose structure among the commonplaces of planning. The implications are: planning is multi-dimensional and deliberate; the relationship of learners and instructor is horizontal; planners' practice is intentional, systematic, emergent and based on communicative understanding and interaction. In planning, the means-ends mutually influence each other, planners mediate the process in a defensible manner based on practical deliberation.

In this view, planning is not resolved by technical or procedural means, nor are planners technicians carrying out the prescriptions of a technical planning process. Planners bring about adult learning by communicative understanding and interaction
based on deliberation in the situation among the commonplaces. Their purpose is to make the "best" decision based on their practical knowledge. If practical knowledge is an important component of planning, then a description of this knowledge and planning practice may provide a comprehensive conceptualization of the distinct parameters affecting practice.

In addition, the social reconstruction/adaptation model builds on the experiential model. In this view, the validation of reliable knowledge is based on the problematization of learners' lived world through a problem posing method. This process relies on the collaborative identification of problems related to the political, social, historical, and economic context which defines learners' lives. The purpose of education is "emancipatory" or social change based on critical reflection and action. Further, this view of knowledge is tentative whereby knowledge is constructed by instructors and learners. The relationship of instructor and learners is horizontal, and the planners' role is that of co-investigator. The views of planning expressed in the experiential and social reconstruction/adaptation models are perhaps consistent with planning practice in adult education.

The experiential and social reconstruction/adaptation models are similar but they differ on a number of points. The focal point of the experiential model is the learner, whereas in the social reconstruction/adaptation model it is the problem-situation. The purpose of the experiential model is individual change within the context of the social structures, whereas in the social reconstruction/adaptation model it is social change including structural changes. The process for arriving at valid and reliable
knowledge in the experiential model is through experimentation and systematic problem solving, whereas in the social reconstruction/adaptation model it is problem posing. The planners' role in the experiential model is communicative understanding and interaction to act appropriately in the situation, whereas in the social reconstruction/adaptation model it is critical reflection and action.

Eisner and Vallance (1974), Gay (1980), and McNeil (1985) argue that these models are heuristic devices, thus they are not operationalized at the level of practice. While the models are not mutually exclusive, that is, there is some overlap among the models, each has a unique focus. Further, in practice, planners do not use models in their pure forms. It is more likely that they use segments or parts of various models depending upon the situation, learners' educational needs, content, and context. In short, planners shape planning through their practical knowledge.

Since adult education draws conceptually upon the entire field of education these planning models and their intellectual traditions provide a framework for understanding planning in adult education.

2 Selected Planning Models in Adult Education

To understand how planning and planners' practical knowledge are conceptualized in the adult education planning literature, it is important to identify and describe the conceptual underpinnings of its major planning models. These models are described, similarities and differences identified, and conclusions drawn. Further, this provides a review of models for comprehension, analysis, and identification of a synthesis of the major components of planning.
Houle (1972), Apps (1985), and Sork and Buskey (1986) concur that the field of adult education draws conceptually upon the generic field of education in dealing with planning. Moreover, a review of the adult education planning literature reveals that the academic model is the conceptual model which informs the planning literature.

Apps (1985), Boone (1985), Sork and Buskey (1986), and Langenbach (1988) provide reviews of the major models which inform the planning literature in adult education. These reviews are re-examined in light of their relationship to the research questions and problem. These reviews indicate that the academic model and Tyler's rationale inform some models. For instance, Sork and Buskey indicate that these analytical models provide a "theoretical" framework or a set of interrelated ideas, principles or practices upon which the model is developed. By contrast, a number of publications are devoid of any analytical and theoretical underpinnings but are prescriptive and normative "how-tos" of planning. In addition, there are few descriptive models of planners' practice.

Houle (1972), Kidd (1973), Knowles (1980), Boyle (1981), and Boone (1985), theorists in the field of adult education, provide models of planning which closely resemble the academic model and its theoretical formulations. Houle (1972) provides a flexible framework for planning, which he identifies as seven "decision points", that includes the identification of the educational activity, a decision to proceed, the identification of objectives, the design and fit of the format into larger patterns of life, a plan is operationalized, and results are measured and appraised.
In addition, Houle identifies seven assumptions upon which the model is designed (p.32-40).

Houle draws conceptually upon both Dewey (1938) and Tyler. Like Dewey, he asserts the importance of learners' experiences and the changing nature of their situation to the context of planning and the learning situation. Unlike Tyler's rationale, he underscores planning as "a complex of interacting elements not as a sequence of events" or steps to be followed (p.32-40). Thus, Houle lays the foundation for challenging the dominant perspective.

However, Houle's seven decision point model draws conceptually upon the academic model and Tyler's rationale. Planning includes objectives and criteria to measure the achievement of objectives. Further, although he defines education in a Schwabian sense as a "practical art", he locates it among the theoretic disciplines and proposes the application of theory to the practical nature of planning. These points are consistent with the underlying thrust of the theoretic\academic model. For instance, in his explanation of the concept that "education is a practical art", Houle states:

As a sophisticated practical art, education draws upon many theoretical disciplines in the humanities and the social and biological sciences. It also uses an extensive and complex body of principles which has emerged from analysis of its own previous practice, and it has a history and lore of its own. But if this abstract and applied knowledge is to prove effective, it must be used in a specific situation to bring about a desired end (p.33).

Houle stresses the forms of knowledge in planning and assigns a logistical relationship to theory and practice, that is, planners apply theory in practice.

Kidd (1973) posits four major components in the model of planning and emphasizes content, objectives, and achievement of
objectives while stressing the importance of involving learners in the learning process to identify their felt needs and interests. Further, he underscores Tyler's recommendations to use screens to filter content and learning objectives after content is selected. This implies a one directional relationship between content and philosophical values and beliefs.

In addition, the engagement of learners in identifying their needs occurs through an exploration of learners' needs in relation to the content itself. Thus, learners' needs are informed by content with little reference to their situation. Kidd posits the use of routine evaluation methods to ensure educational and learning objectives are achieved. Kidd's model draws conceptually on the academic model and Tyler's rationale.

Knowles (1980) identifies a model for designing programs for learners which includes: assessing needs, defining purposes and objectives, designing and operating the program, and evaluating a program. Further, Knowles' model is informed by four andragogical assumptions about adult learning: adults move towards self-direction; adults use their experience as a learning resource; adults are ready to learn in accordance with sociodevelopmental tasks; and adults want immediate application of learning.

Knowles draws conceptually upon both Dewey and Tyler. Like Dewey, Knowles stresses learners' self diagnosis of learning needs, the participation of learners in planning and learning experiences, and learners' self-evaluation. In short, like Dewey, Knowles emphasizes learners' role in planning. Therefore, learners have an important role in defining their needs as well as participating in the teaching learning transaction.
With respect to Tyler, Knowles emphasizes the role of content, objectives, and the sequence of steps in planning. He indicates that potential objectives are to be divided into educational and operational categories and screened through filters of institutional philosophy, feasibility, and individual interests. These needs then are recast as program objectives. Thus, Knowles' model incorporates aspects of the content and the learner centred views of planning.

Although Boyle (1981) does not provide an actual model of planning, he identifies components which inform planning including elements of planning design and implementation, and evaluation components. Boyle emphasizes the role of planned change, through educational programs, based on a number of assumptions that stress participatory involvement of the community in its economic and social progress, under the guidance and leadership of an adult educator.

However, he synthesizes and expands upon a number of theoretical approaches which inform planning. His approach to curriculum and instruction draws conceptually on Tyler's rationale, and his approach to needs identification is based on Lewin's force field theory. That is, imbalance in the organism indicates a need to be satisfied, satisfaction of the need leads to reduction of tension, and the restoration of equilibrium to the organism.

Boyle indicates that planning is a comprehensive process involving theory, analysis, and practice, where the concept of lifelong learning informs planning. He emphasizes the context of planning, and although he posits that planning varies according to developmental, institutional, and informational types, these types
have not been empirically verified.

Although Boyle incorporates Tyler's rationale into planning, the thrust of his approach incorporates elements of the social reconstruction/adaptation model. This is reflected in the assumptions of planned change which inform planning. However, his emphasis is on the social adaptation or the "residual" approach to planning which sees individual change as synonymous with social change. To this end, Boyle's approach to planned educational change involves a framework of institutional model building, based on the premise that change is introduced by formal organizations under the direction of planners.

Boone, building on writers in the field, delineates a comprehensive conceptual planning model. Boone's (1985) model is informed by the "scientific approach to inquiry" (p.51). On the basis of this approach, he provides a complex and comprehensive "conceptual programming model" which includes three major components: planning, design and implementation, and evaluation and accountability (p.64-73). Further, under each of these components is subsumed "processual tasks" which delineate the specified steps to accomplish the identified tasks such as: identify the organization and its renewal process; link the organization to its publics; design the planned program; and implement the planned program.

The thrust in Boone's planning model is theoretic/academic. He carefully delineates the scientific approach which informs his conceptual model. He stipulates that planning is imperative and 1) provides a legitimate road map for a rational response to uncertainty and change; 2) facilitates control of organizational
operations by collecting information to analyze needs and evaluate programs and services; and 3) orients the organization to a futuristic leadership stance (p.80). He defines planning:

...a rational, continuing sequence of precise educational activities carried out by adult educators, operating from an organizational base, through which the organization establishes and maintains linkage with learners and their leaders in collaborative identification, assessment, and analysis of their educational needs (p.82).

Similar to Tyler, Boone's primary assumption is "...that all educational activity is aimed at bringing about individual behavioral change" (p.129). The language of the theoretic/academic/technical model is unmistakable in Boone's conceptual planning model.

However, these models, which are informed by Tyler's rationale, provide the basis for the formulation of some global perspectives of planning which emerge across the models. Sork and Buskey (1986), in their review of the planning literature, report that there are several steps which are common to most models. These reviewers generate a "generic planning model" from the literature composed of nine specific steps: analyzing planning context and client system; assessing client system needs; developing objectives; selecting and ordering of content; selecting, designing and ordering instructional processes; selecting instructional resources; formulating budget and administrative plan; designing a plan for assuring participation; and designing a plan for evaluating the program (p.89). This generic, expanded view of planning provides a useful device for comprehension and analysis of planning practice, and for defining program planning in adult education.
Further, these models closely resemble the academic model and Tyler's rationale for curriculum and instruction. Houle (1972) argues that Tyler's rationale became widespread in the field of adult education in three major ways:

...many institutions have found it necessary to reconstruct their programs and have used all or part of Tyler's rationale in doing so,...almost all of those who hold advanced degrees in adult education have secured them in graduate departments or schools of education where they have been extensively exposed to Tyler's ideas...many of the program planning models devised by theoreticians of adult education have flowed directly from his rationale (p.15).

Houle concludes that while his own framework draws on other curriculum theorists it also draws conceptually on Tyler's rationale. He writes "Certainly that fact is true of the framework suggested in this book" (p.15).

Apps (1985) concurs that Tyler's rationale is transformed into a number of planning models including Houle's and Knowles'. He concludes that Tyler's model is "...the predominant model that much of the continuing education literature proclaims" (p.182). Apps raises a number of questions related to the appropriateness and applicability of Tyler's model to the field of practice. However, he concludes that it makes no sense to abandon Tyler's model but suggests the necessity to recognize that many realities exist in the provision of educational programs for adults which require alternative approaches. He suggests that the "...writings of Habermas (1972) can guide us toward alternative approaches" (p.184).

Similar to Carr (1986), Apps (1985) states that Habermas' "...three approaches to teaching and learning: technical, practical, and emancipatory" provide different perspectives on
teaching and learning, and different perspectives on planning. Apps argues that Habermas' "technical", which relates to how the individual controls and manipulates the environment, may be well served by following Tyler's rationale. Habermas' "practical", which relates to how the individual derives meaning from the environment, may be well served by a planning process which may be quite different from Tyler's model, for instance, a liberal education planning process. Habermas' "emancipatory" category, which relates to the critical and action perspective of individuals in the environment, may be well served by Freire's approach to teaching and learning and by implication planning and planners' practice. Apps indicates that:

• programmers have been thwarted in developing programming approaches that fit their own situations
• one day these approaches may become a part of the literature of continuing education programming (p.186).

Habermas' three perspectives may describe planning practice while reflecting the complexity, uniqueness, and uncertainty of planning. Apps argues that as planners take charge of:

• both the practice and theory of programming, the field will be presented with a rich array of programming theory and practice. Not only will the collection of "tried and true" practical approaches be expanded, but the theoretical underpinnings of these approaches will be expanded as well (p.187).

These perceptions underscore the importance of this research to: examine planners' practical knowledge and planning from their perspective; construct a comprehensive view of planners' practice; and develop a language of discourse which is consistent with this view.

A related observation is that Tyler's formulation with its apparent simplicity and parsimonious style is translated into a
"cookbook like" model or recipe in a substantive body of the planning literature in adult education. For instance, Houle (1972) stipulates that:

The books which deal generally with program development in adult education are highly practical...If such books deal with theory, it is often by the assertion of values and beliefs, thus offering a philosophy in the common man's use of that term, but they are essentially how-to-do-it manuals... (p.245).

Although Houle calls for a non-linear, analytical approach to planning, other authors continue to advocate prescriptive, linear treatments of how-to-do-it manuals. Houle's approach has not been widely accepted and it has not had a major influence on subsequent writers in the field, for they, with a few exceptions, adopt a linear approach that seems to argue for the one best way. Sork and Buskey (1986) concur that the literature is predominantly prescriptive and normative: "...most of the publications contained normative models, that is, models which represented the author's recommendations for how one should go about the tasks of program planning" (p.87). They argue that "...the literature as a whole has a rather low degree of theoretical explanations" (p.92). They identify examples of planning models in specific planning contexts which illustrate the pervasiveness of the normative and atheoretical nature of the planning literature. They conclude that a body of literature has been developed which incorporates a rather low level of theoretical explanations and research findings, essentially atheoretical literature.

The academic model which informs the adult education planning literature poses a number of problems. Elbaz (1983) indicates that there is a radical separation between theory and practice with
concomitant problems of how to "apply" theory to practice, and there is a failure to acknowledge planners' practice and practical knowledge in planning. However, although planners' practice may be guided by the dominant model, it is more likely that they use an eclectic approach to planning. Based on deliberation over the commonplaces, planners mediate planning to act appropriately in the situation.

Schwab (1969) suggests that in deliberative planning, planners transform ideas into educational programs to bring about learning. Through an intimate knowledge of the situation, planners identify problems, deficiencies, or inadequacies in the system and its product. They formulate solutions to maintain, repair, or improve the system and its product; set problems; and anticipate, weigh, and generate educational alternatives. Planners combine a variety of knowledge components regarding content, learners' educational needs, learning activities and objectives, learners' and instructors' intents, abilities, skills, and sensitivities, contextual values, evaluation procedures, and conflicting and competing demands of learners, and the situation into a reasonable educational program to facilitate and enhance adult learning. In planning, planners utilize practical knowledge.

However, the pervasiveness of the behaviourist discourse and the technological perspective which inform the dominant model make it difficult for planners to engage in meaningful discussions of planning issues and inhibit the development of a language of discourse which is in keeping with the practice of planning. The literature, with a few noted exceptions, does not address planners' practice from their perspective nor their practical knowledge in
planning. Moreover, the research related to planning in adult education is formulated out of the dominant/positivist perspective. The few descriptive studies which deal with planning in practice are examined for their implications to this research.

2.1 Research on Planning in Adult Education

In the adult education planning literature, few studies examine, through planners' eyes, what happens in practice with what is prescribed in the literature. For example, Rossman and Bunning (1978), and Daniel and Rose (1982) examine planners' theoretical knowledge and practice but these works are based on perceptions and prescriptions of professors of adult education in university graduate programs, and/or deans and directors of university continuing education units. Daniel and Rose (1982), building on Rossman and Bunning's Delphi study, compare planners' and professors' opinions concerning the knowledge and skills planners need. Their findings identify a discrepancy between perceptions of deans and directors, on the one hand, and professors of graduate programs, on the other, regarding the priority they assign to the knowledge and skills planners need. They suggest that professors of adult education are expected to provide planners with the necessary knowledge and skills. However, if preparation of planners occurs without input from planners in the field, planners may not gain knowledge and skills in some areas which are important to practice (p.87). Daniel and Rose recommend that further study should be conducted to determine if this discrepancy manifests itself in planners being ill prepared to function in the field.

Furthermore, Daniel and Rose (1982) suggest that to understand
and develop a theoretical base of planners' knowledge in the field, it is important to ask planners directly about their practice. Reliance on the perceptions, prescriptions, and theoretical knowledge of professors, and deans or directors of continuing education units may result in educational programs at the graduate level which do not provide planners with the necessary knowledge and skills which are required in the field of practice. Thus, to identify if there is a deficiency in planners' knowledge, an examination of their practice from their perspective may reveal it.

In addition, Sork and Buskey state that "...a small number of publications contained descriptive models or models which represented how program planning was actually done in a particular context" (p.87). The descriptive studies of Pennington and Green (1976), and Lauffer (1977) are examples of these studies. Specifically, Pennington and Green examine planning through planners' perspectives while evaluating the planning model in practice with Tyler's rationale.

Pennington and Green indicate that Tyler's rationale is rarely followed in practice. They assert that there is little indication of needs assessment; there is rarely a comprehensive approach to identify and develop objectives; there is little effort to select teaching methods to match learners' characteristics; and a comprehensive evaluation is rarely if ever conducted. These writers state:

What appeared to be occurring as those interviewed described their planning strategies was a blending of what Walker...labelled a "classical" model and a "temporal" model. Planners use the language of the classical model to label their planning actions. However, as they describe their planning actions it becomes clear that personal values, environmental constraints,
available resource alternatives, and other factors impinge on the program development process. These actions have received little attention in the literature, but probably represent a major set of critical factors for program development (p.22).

These findings confirm that Tyler's model, the "right" way, is not the approach used in practice, but that "...personal values, environmental constraints, available resource alternatives, and other factors impinge on the program development process" (p.22). These writers argue that these factors receive little or no attention in the literature, but probably represent a critical set of factors in the practice of planning.

Accordingly, this study builds on these empirical claims and argues that, if planners' planning is guided by and makes sense in relation to a personally held set of beliefs, values, principles, and contextual factors, the role of research is to help planners make explicit their often implicitly held knowledge bases, and the contextual factors which mediate practice. Some of these factors occur inside planners' heads, and are thus unobservable which may pose methodological problems for a positivist mode and suggest the use of an interpretive mode.

An interpretive perspective is used to facilitate the examination of planners' practice from their perspective. This offers the possibility to uncover planners' knowledge bases and contextual factors, and to develop categories which may provide a comprehensive view of planning in practice and planners' practical knowledge. Further, the concerns identified by these writers inform the research questions and problem, and are considered in the formulation of the purpose of this study. However, before an examination of planners' practical knowledge and planning practice,
the following section describes the literature in education which
deals with practical knowledge and theory-practice.

3 Literature on Practical Knowledge

The literature, related to planners' practical knowledge and
the theory-practice relationship in planning, is examined to gain
an understanding of the conception of practical knowledge as well
as the conception of the theory-practice relationship which inform
planning in practice.

3.1 Definition of Practical Knowledge

While descriptions of planners' practical knowledge are not,
in themselves, inherently useful and interesting, they are valuable
because they offer the possibility for insight into how planners
hold and use practical knowledge and arrive at defensible decisions
and actions. Further, this approach calls into question the
predominant model of planning and the concomitant partial image of
planners as simply means by which programs are developed. Roberts
(1980), Johnson (1984), and Sternberg and Caruso (1985) explicate
a definition of practical knowledge which provides a useful
framework for this study.

Roberts argues that a sufficiently sophisticated conception of
the connection between the practical and the theoretical knowledge
of educators engaged in planning provides insight into their
practice. Such a conception permits understanding the practical
knowledge which links theory and practice. Further, this
connection is made possible by understanding how educators'
practical knowledge is constructed, held, and used in planning.

Moreover, Johnson (1984) suggests an understanding of this
connection provides insights into the complexity of planning. That
is, the complex "...interweaving of skills,...institutional structures, social relations, cultural constraints, historical influences and conceptual determinants that...produce the fabric of the educators' knowledge base" (p.467). This understanding may lead to the recognition that "...such a meaning complex is not subject to reductionist models, linear analysis or hierarchical structuring". To this end, practical knowledge is not simply "know how" but the contextually related capabilities of planners as active intellects who define, describe, and create human learning through the subtle artistry of the interrelation of theory and practice (p.467).

Building on these views, Sternberg and Caruso (1985) posit five interrelated questions for thinking about practical knowledge. These are: What is practical knowledge? How does it relate to other kinds of knowledge? What are the means by which it is acquired? How is it applied? How is it held?

Firstly, they view practical knowledge as "procedural" knowledge which is useful in everyday life. They stipulate there are two conditions of practical knowledge. It is knowledge which is procedural rather than declarative and it is knowledge that is relevant to everyday life. In short, "...it is knowledge of procedure and for use relevant". Also, it is a function of the relationship of individuals' environment, that is, "...it is intricately linked to the individual and the individual's context of its use" (p.134).

Secondly, practical knowledge is held (mentally represented) in the "...form of productions, or condition-action sequences that implement actions when certain preconditions are met" (p.134).
Practical knowledge is held as "production system" and or "script or standard event sequence" which complement each other. Many production systems are embedded within the framework of a very general scriptural organization of practical knowledge. These production systems help the scripts to function in an adaptive, and practically useful way.

For instance, non procedural or declarative forms of knowledge, are stored in the form of networks, integrating concepts, and evidence claims. An example of this form of declarative knowledge is "academic" knowledge. Sternberg and Caruso argue that what distinguishes practical from academic knowledge are the conditions that practical knowledge meet, both "...real world relevance and procedural action consequences" (p.138). In short, they maintain that practical knowledge is both procedural and relevant knowledge while knowledge that is declarative or irrelevant to everyday life is academic knowledge.

This investigator argues that although this definition is useful to conceptualize the nature of practical knowledge, it is limited. For instance, the generalization that all academic knowledge is irrelevant knowledge and consequently does not qualify as practical knowledge is questionable. Not all academic knowledge is irrelevant; however, that which is irrelevant cannot be classified as useful and relevant to everyday life. That which is academic and relevant can be classified as practical knowledge. In short, some academic knowledge is a species of practical knowledge.

Thirdly, Sternberg and Caruso identify three processes for the acquisition and transmission of practical knowledge: direct learning when knowledge is acquired from theoretical sources;
indirect learning when knowledge is acquired through experience from another source; and tacit learning when knowledge is acquired through trial and error. They assert that most of the practical knowledge adults acquire is tacit and this kind of knowledge, in comparison with theoretic knowledge which is acquired directly in undergraduate and graduate programs, is more relevant for successful on-the-job performance (p.146-7).

Finally, they posit that practical knowledge is used in three major forms of responses to the everyday world or individuals' context. Firstly, **adapting** is the process whereby individuals accommodate themselves to demands of the environment because of demands created by self, others, or tasks. Individuals use practical knowledge to respond to demands of the environment. Individuals use "adaptive intelligence", that is, the ability to use old scripts or create new scripts through the formation of new production and production systems to deal with demands of the situation.

Secondly, **shaping** is the process whereby individuals attempt to mold the environment to make it more suitable to their needs or interests. Shaping, like adapting, is created by demands from self, others, or tasks. Shaping involves another use of practical knowledge and it is used independently of adapting. Both shaping and adapting operate in "a kind of equilibrational balance". Achieving the right balance between shaping and adapting is one of the most important resources in individuals' practical knowledge.

Finally, **selecting** is the process whereby individuals decide to leave the work environment. While adapting and shaping presuppose the attempt to work things out within the situation,
selecting is viewed as the last resort after adapting and shaping have failed. The decision to select another work environment arises from self, others, or the tasks. Sternberg and Caruso do not make explicit the distinction between adapting and shaping; however, they indicate that the three components do not represent a hierarchical relationship.

They argue that the "better" response to a given problem situation is a combination of individuals' abilities, purposes of the program, individuals' ability to achieve these purposes, and the nature of the situation. All of these are informed by the individuals' practical knowledge.

This analytical framework for thinking about practical knowledge suggests that while practical knowledge is situation specific, the ability to acquire and apply practical knowledge is probably more general than the knowledge itself. Furthermore, Sternberg and Caruso argue that the more practical knowledge individuals acquire, the more flexibility and ability they have to meet the demands of the environment and to achieve desired goals (p.155).

In short, this investigator argues that practical knowledge is declarative and relevant, procedural, and contextual rather than declarative and irrelevant. It is acquired and transmitted through direct, mediated, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self. It is used to adapt, to shape, or select individuals' environment in response to demands placed on self, others, or the tasks. This expanded definition underscores the dialectical relationship of theory-practice. This definition of practical knowledge provides a framework for viewing the research
questions, problem, and findings.

3.2 Theoretical Sources on Theory-Practice

The theory-practice relationship is complex. To understand this relationship is to be in a better position to make defensible decisions in planning. Although Schwab's (1969, 1971) theoretical formulations brought the dialectical relationship of the theoretical-practical into the forefront of curriculum thinking, many scholars before him, including Dewey (1916) and McKeon (1952), had wrestled with the nature of this relationship.

Schwab's (1969) treatises on the theoretical and the practical in curriculum highlight the difficulties and problems which result when theoretic principles and methods are employed to the exclusion of practical principles and methods to resolve problems and questions in a field which is essentially practical in nature. Schwab (1969) indicates that the theoretic fails to respond to the needs of the field:

...A crisis of principle arises,...when principles are exhausted- when the questions they permit have all been asked and answered- or when the efforts at enquiry instigated by the principles have at last exhibited their inadequacy to the subject matter and the problems which they were designed to attack (p.6).

He argues for a dialectical relationship of the theoretical and the practical to deal with the particular nature and purpose of the curriculum field which he describes as practical.

Schwab indicates that the practical differs radically from disciplines of the theoretic whose inherent nature is: 1) abstractions and generalizations, 2) induction on phenomenon by a detached researcher, and 3) hypothetical deductions from findings which lead to "warranted knowledge". The heart of the practical is
a "recourse to accumulated lore". This is acquired in the situation and through experience at the level of the concrete case (p.14). In Schwab's view curriculum theorizing deals with practical questions of "what", "how", "why", and "when" which are located in concrete situations.

Schwab (1969) postulates the practical, a discipline in its own right, as the language of curriculum and identifies the assumptions of the practical curriculum. He suggests that the subject matter of curriculum is not lawlike generalizations but human action in the situation over the commonplaces to gain situational insight and understanding. The source of curriculum problems is not abstractions created by the researcher but the situation. Its method is not induction and deduction but deliberation based on interaction in the situation which leads to defensible decisions: "...the target of the method is not a generalization or explanation but a decision about action in a concrete situation" (p.20). The end of curriculum is not warranted knowledge but an increased capacity to act morally and ethically based on defensible decisions.

Therefore, the practical is "concrete and particular", the particularities of which are discovered in the site itself. To this end, Schwab posits that a renaissance of the curriculum field requires a dialectical relationship of theory and practice, not a "wholesale" application of the theoretical to a field which is by nature practical. The dialectical method, which is universal and fundamental to all human activity, is posited as the conception to bring the theoretic and the practical into closer alignment. However, this does not stand alone; it is supplemented by practical
and eclectic arts.

Further, the concept of "practice" is central to the practical curriculum process. Carr and Kemmis (1984) suggest that practice, which informs the practical curriculum, is "...the organized expression in action of a commitment; it relies for its success on responding to the practical exigencies of the situation in which it is enacted." They state that:

...all practices, like all observations, have 'theory' embedded in them and this is just as true for the practice of 'theoretical' pursuits as it is for those of 'practical' pursuits...Both are distinctive social activities conducted for distinctive purposes by means of specific procedures and skills and in light of particular beliefs and values (p. 111).

Furthermore, the character of practical curriculum and hence practical inquiry is that of everyday problem-solving and experimentation intended to understand, describe, confer meaning, and to act appropriately in the situation.

Carr (1986) indicates that the practical curriculum is open, reflective, indeterminate and a complex form of human action. As such, it is irreducible to theoretical principles or technical rules. It provides the basis for making wise and prudent judgements about "what ought to be done". In contrast, the theoretical curriculum is based on technical rationality designed to bring about the achievement of specifiable educational ends. In this regard, good practice is determined by reference to scientific principles by means of which desirable educational outcomes are efficiently produced.

Schwab (1969) delineates the underlying principles of the practical which include: ensure the maintenance and improvement of patterns based on purposeful action. That is, work within the
existing framework to bring about change. Recognize deficiencies in the system and inadequacies in its product to repair these. Have an "...intimate knowledge of the existing state of affairs", identify the problem, set the problem, and formulate solutions which necessitate the anticipation and generation of alternative solutions to problems (p.18).

Schwab proposes that deliberation is fundamental to the practical curriculum. Deliberation is "...complex and arduous". It deals with "...both ends and means as mutually determining one another" (p.20). The process involves identifying relevant facts for the concrete case, identifying what is missing but needed for the said case, generating alternative solutions, weighing consequences of these solutions, and choosing the best possible solution for the specific case. This process is accomplished by creating a communication linkage and synthesis from a variety of theoretical perspectives of a particular phenomenon and bringing this to bear on the state of affairs.

Carr (1986) adds that the practical curriculum centres on deliberation which is the human search for meaning and understanding that enriches individuals, groups, and community. Deliberation is the basis of the practical curriculum upon which defensible judgements about educational practice is mediated. In deliberation, human beings are possessors and creators of knowledge which informs their actions in situations they encounter. This is based on the assumption that practice situations are essentially complex, uncertain, and unique requiring deliberation by key actors to reach decisions.

Central to deliberation is an ethical commitment or a
framework of values to contribute good and worthwhile decisions that enable those involved and those affected by action that emanates from curriculum decisions to change and grow in increasingly human ways. To this end, the interpretive perspective, which informs the practical curriculum, describes practical situations in ways which uncover the underlying values and beliefs, the tacit knowledge, and unarticulated assumptions inherent in practice.

Schwab (1969) states that the practical arts are used to identify discrepancies of the theoretic which is composed of largely unconnected separate theories of many distinct subjects. The practical arts modify and match theories in the course of their applications, and devise alternative solutions (generate, and weigh alternatives versus consequences) to account for aspects in the situation not addressed by the theoretic. The practical arts join the theoretic and the practical because:

...such theories are not, and will not be, adequate by themselves to tell us what to do with human beings or how to do it. What they variously suggest and the contrary guidelines they afford to choice and action must be mediated and combined by eclectic arts and must be massively supplemented, as well as mediated, by knowledge of some other kind derived from another source (p.13-14).

Schwab (1971) stipulates that the arts of the eclectic, which are methods used to prepare theory for practical use (p.495), join and reconcile the incompleteness of theory. The arts of the eclectic deal with the incompleteness of their subject and the incomplete view each takes of its incomplete subject. As well, they take into account the "complex web" of actions and transactions of those involved in the deliberative process. Further, they identify the underlying structure of theories which

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gives the appearance of completeness to the subject of inquiry (p.501).

The arts of the eclectic uncover what a given principle of inquiry does to its material; what the principle of inquiry emphasizes; and what view the principle of inquiry includes and excludes. They are analytical devices for comprehending, discriminating, and using the many views of the theoretic. Specifically, the practical arts are related to particulars of the practical omitted by the theoretic. The arts of the eclectic are concerned with the incompleteness of each subject of the theoretic, and select, adjust, and combine the incomplete views. The practical and eclectic arts are means to operationalize the dialectical relationship of the theoretic and the practical. Schwab (1971, 1973) moves from a conceptual to an operational level in delineating the practical curriculum. In the process, he expands the language of the practical. In operationalizing the practical curriculum, Schwab's (1971) use of the commonplaces or the "topica" of curriculum provide a useful device for the systematic analysis of what is included and excluded in each curriculum deliberation (p.513).

The commonplaces allow planners to see aspects of the whole and to understand and defend why those aspects are included or excluded in the deliberative process. Schwab suggests the method of a "polyfocal conspectus". Through the repeated application of theories in an "unsystematic" manner planners transform a theoretic doctrine or a "body of knowledge" into a view, a perspective, or a "...habit of observation, selection and interpretation of the appropriate facts to concrete cases..." (p.519). Planners ensure
that the selection of facts is relevant to the topic, and that even if perspectives are collapsed or combined, the planners are able to offer defensible reasons for the decision.

Schwab's perspective, with its emphasis on the practical nature of planning, assumes a dialectical relationship between theory and practice. In this view, the planner's practice is intentional, systematic, and emergent; the means-ends are seen as conflicting, competing, and mutually determining each other. The focus of planning is deliberation among representatives of the commonplaces, including the planner. Planning is defined and bounded by the particularities inherent in the situation. Planning is contextualized and problematized. The centrality of a planner's role, and deliberation of planning over the commonplaces offer a reconceptualization of planners' practice, the theory-practice relationship, and planning.

Schwab's perspective includes a number of interrelated processes. First, the commonplaces are considered in relation to the social, cultural, historical, economic, and political perspectives. Second, the planner, in deliberation with representatives of the commonplaces, transforms a "doctrine", that is, a habit of thinking into a perspective during planning. For instance, the various learning theories are scrutinized for their appropriateness to the situation at hand, and based on deliberation, a synthesized view is selected for the situation. Third, the final process, is deliberation which is informed by the practical and eclectic arts. At the theoretic level, data are collected, analyzed, synthesized, and evaluated. At the practical level, deliberation over educational alternatives and choices based
on understanding and interpreting the situation gives rise to
defensible decision-making and action.

Schwab (1973) operationalizes the process of deliberation. He
proposes a committee of ten to twelve with representatives from the
commonplaces. He describes the process as a "...spiral movement
toward a body of generated educational alternatives and choices
among them" where choices satisfy the collective (p.501). The
process, which is chaired by the curriculum specialist, involves:
the discovery of each representative's body of experience,
expertise, and relevance to planning; the coalescence of what has
been discovered; and the utilization of the coalesced body of
concerns as tools to generate new educational materials and
purposes.

Walker (1971), Wick (1972), Westbury (1972), Pereira (1984),
Roby (1985), and Roberts (1980) concur with Schwab's analysis of
the dialectical relationship of the theoretic and the practical and
attempt to operationalize the practical in the curriculum process.
To this end, Walker (1971) develops a naturalistic model of
planning using the commonplaces as a "platform" through which
deliberation of planning is suggested.

Wick (1972) supports Schwab's thesis of the theoretic nature
of the curriculum field and the need to think and talk about
curriculum in the language of the practical. He identifies the
problems of the curriculum field as normative problems: what should
be done? what should be taught, and learned? why? by whom? in what
order and combinations?, and under what circumstances? Wick argues
that curriculum problems are about not only "...what is the case"
(theoretical/scientific) nor are they resolved by "...establishing

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an explanatory theory" but also they are practical and must be treated as such (p.37).

Westbury (1972), Pereira (1984), and Roby (1985) explicate the deliberative process. Westbury suggests that the practical arts is a "generic method" which can be employed in curriculum making. He argues that the method of deliberation is a complex, fluid, transactional discipline which focuses on the identification of the worthwhile and the attainment of desirable educational goals.

Pereira (1984) articulates the arts of perception which are part of the practical. The arts of perception allow the planner to perceive and use the significant and particular aspects of problematic situations. Planning entails making decisions about what and how to teach particular groups at specific times and locations in concrete circumstances. Theory alone is insufficient to determine these decisions. Neither can general policies, guidelines or models tell us, by themselves, what ought to be done. Pereira asserts planners understand the concrete and particular aspects of the situation under discussion; judge their significance; choose the relevant features; and formulate a plan of action which accounts for these features.

Pereira concurs that the commonplaces are used as a systematic guide in deliberation. They are the criteria for weighing, generating, and choosing alternatives. The process is an educative one for participants and for discovering and generating new terms in which to expand the scope of the language of the practical. He stresses a reciprocal learning process for all involved in planning and an expansion of a language of discourse which is consistent with planners' practice.
Roby (1985) operationalizes curriculum deliberation. He provides a description of deliberation, a list of habits which impede deliberation, and suggestions for the amelioration of these habits. Accordingly, he argues that to turn the task into curriculum deliberation, it is necessary to "factor in" the commonplaces at each stage in the process. He concurs with Schwab that the process is distinctly a spiral versus a linear movement which involves a process of discovery of meaning.

He argues that the use of the commonplaces is critical because: they provide multiple foci which enable a view of a wide range of details with different perspectives; they allow various perspectives which are alternative resources to be "cultivated and refined", not avoided; and they allow shifting relation between problem posing and solution setting - a movement from confronting a problematic situation to developing a situation of problems and solutions. He summarizes the deliberative process as: critical reflection, backtracking, and review and revision (p.29-30). This provides a model for deliberation.

Roberts (1980) argues that theory and practice are irreconcilably different in nature and purpose but enrichment on both sides is possible only if one has a comprehensive conception of their relationship. He undertakes to operationalize a connection of theory-practice which is mutually supportive and dialectical. Roberts concurs with Schwab that theory is incomplete, truncated, and needs to be treated by the arts of eclectic. Theoretical accounts of a science event are not complete: no two theories explain all aspects of a "generic phenomenon", for example, learning, equally well. Research
truncates the science event to make it manageable. The arts of eclectic are required to capture the richness of many views that coexisting theories for the same phenomenon present, and to "...reintroduce wholeness to the phenomenon" (p.71).

The more theories a planner has available, the more multifaceted and enriched the interpretation of the phenomenon can be. A synthesized view of the phenomenon is achieved through a process of systematic eclecticism or "informed eclecticism". In practice, there is a reconciling of the incompleteness of theories through the use of this informed eclecticism. This process is a means for "...scrutinizing the event in its wholeness". The decision to act is not based on an outcome of direct deduction from one theory or many theories but on a "process of deliberation" (p.73).

Roberts concurs with Schwab that the commonplaces, which are part of the tradition of the curriculum field, form an analytic device in the process of informed eclecticism. The commonplaces are included by planners involved in curriculum deliberation, and are used as a framework for analysis. The commonplaces allow for defensible decisions in planning.

In attempting to operationalize Schwab's theoretical formulations, these writers offer prescriptive and normative models of planning. Therefore, this literature is limited. This investigator argues that Schwab's theoretical formulation provides an alternative approach to planning which is consistent with practice. However, to understand and describe planning and practical knowledge and the match with Schwab's theoretical formulation, it is important to conduct research which examines
planning from planners' perspectives.

Curriculum deliberation is often complex, unique, and uncertain. This planning process requires planners to join theory and practice in the situation. In this conceptualization of planning, practice is intentional, systematic, and emergent. This conceptualization implies a framework which can render practice meaningful, and it suggests a language of discourse which is consistent with practice. The next section examines research on curriculum and teacher thinking, including theories and beliefs, epistemologies, practical knowledge, and planning.

4 Research on Curriculum and Teacher Thinking

Halkes (1986) indicates the National Conference on Studies in Teaching, which was convened in June 1974 by the National Institute of Education (NIE), marked the official inauguration of research on teachers' thought processes. The report states "...it is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think" (p.211).

Further, Clark and Peterson (1986) stipulate the Panel 6 report presents the teacher as a "...professional...[rather] than ...technicians who execute skilled performances according to prescriptions or algorithms defined by others" (p.256). These writers indicate that research on teachers' thinking is a rapidly developing field of research. They provide a concise evaluative review of the research related to curriculum and teacher thinking which is re-examined in light of its relationship to this study.

Clark and Peterson provide a useful heuristic device for conceptualizing the development and growth of research in this area. They posit that the research falls into two streams: 1)
teachers' thought processes: a) teachers' theories and beliefs, b) teachers' planning (preactive and postactive thoughts), c) teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions; and 2) teachers' actions and their observable effects: a) teachers' classroom behaviour, b) students' classroom behaviour, and c) students' achievement. They argue that these research streams differ on two fundamental levels: "Teachers' thought processes occur 'inside teachers' heads' and thus are unobservable. In contrast, teacher behaviour, student behaviour, and student achievement scores constitute observable phenomena" (p.257).

The phenomena in stream one, that is, teachers' thought processes, are not observable and measurable and deal with program development and design, and theories and beliefs which inform these processes. This stream is examined because of its relevance to the research questions and problem. As well, this stream is fraught with challenging methodological problems for the positivist mode and entails an emerging research perspective, the interpretive mode (p.257).

Further, Clark and Peterson suggest that research related to teachers' theories and beliefs represents the smallest and youngest part of the research on teachers' thinking. Studies are small sample descriptive research, and the methods of inquiry include ethnographic participant observations, interviews, stimulated recall, and the use and administration of the repertory grid. A variety of terms are used to describe this research, including "personal practical knowledge" (Connelly, 1972), and "practical knowledge" (Elbaz, 1981).

Clark and Peterson argue that the fundamental principle which
informs these studies is that teachers' cognitive and other behaviours are guided by and make sense in relation to a personally held system of beliefs, values, and principles. The main role of research is to help teachers make explicit these implicitly held and private knowledge bases which inform practice (p.287). Accordingly, an interpretive perspective is conducive to the study of planners' theories and beliefs in planning.

4.1 Research on Teachers' Theories and Beliefs

Clandinin (1986) suggests that research on teachers' thinking which deals with teachers' knowledge base is further divided into two categories: 1) research which relates to what we know about teachers; and 2) research which relates to what teachers know. Research from the second category related to the research questions and problem is examined. This research is further subdivided into categories which are not mutually exclusive and include: theoretical knowledge or knowledge which teachers acquire from disciplines; pedagogical knowledge or knowledge which teachers acquire about practice; epistemological knowledge or knowledge which teachers acquire about valid and reliable ways of knowing; and practical knowledge or knowledge which teachers acquire from practice.

However, for purposes of this study, research related to teachers' epistemologies and practical knowledge are examined. Clandinin (1986) indicates that research on teachers' epistemological knowledge identified categories from an analysis of the philosophical literature and then attempted to confirm these categories by empirical studies. Research on teachers' practical knowledge is based on single case studies which developed
categories of teachers' practical knowledge.

4.1.1 Research on Teachers' Epistemologies

Young (1981a), Clark and Peterson (1986), and Clandinin (1986) suggest that research on epistemological knowledge draws upon the dominant positivist perspective, and these findings are not encouraging. Young concludes that the degree of consistency between categories derived from the literature and empirical studies of teachers' epistemologies is low. Participants select items from check lists which represent several of four types of epistemologies (realism, idealism, pragmatism, and existentialism) developed from the literature. Patterns of correlation between categories derived from the literature and empirical studies are difficult to interpret. As well, there appears to be only a limited relationship between epistemologies measured in this way and other areas of teachers' philosophy. In other words, there is little "lateral" consistency between teachers' epistemologies and other aspects of their educational practice. At the same time, it appears that research which uses the dominant positivist perspective offers little promise for understanding planners' theories and beliefs in planning.

However, Young's (1981a) study of teachers' epistemologies is one approach which offers promise. Young suggests that the development of a satisfactory "technique" for discovering epistemologies seems to require a careful study of the nature of epistemological beliefs, values and attitudes of the group involved, which can be best facilitated by an ethnographic exploration of these epistemologies prior to further theory development. In short, epistemological categories should be
derived from the data of participants rather than from conceptual analysis of the philosophical literature. To this end, Young used a multistage approach to identify teachers' epistemologies. Through the use of an ethnographic study, a list of teachers' epistemologies is constructed, the way categories form systems are explored, and four categories which are identified are operationalized in the form of four Likert scales.

Young (1981a) develops categories which range on a continuum from "scientism" to "hermeneutics" with a "pluralist" position in the middle. Young argues a teacher's epistemology is likely to have implications for four categories of teacher's beliefs: the selection and justification of knowledge in the curriculum, the process of managing the presentation of this knowledge, the teacher managed pedagogy, and the evaluation of learners.

Furthermore, a scientific view of knowledge supports: a didactic view of teaching, that is, a teacher centred approach to learning and teaching, a discipline oriented view of the overall curriculum organization, and a teacher centred approach to control and evaluation. This scientific view is informed by a content centred approach to curriculum (p.202).

Young (1981a) posits that the "technicist" view of education (an associated view of the "scientistic" view) is gradually replacing the "traditional" educational philosophies. The results of his survey to measure the four categories of teachers' beliefs indicate that, taken together, the four categories of belief form a "coherent pedagogical ideology". There is a strong tendency towards consistency in terms of a sociological rather than a philosophical theory of the implications of a teacher's
Young's findings indicate that a scientistic epistemology is associated with a preference for tight curriculum organization, a high degree of teacher control over learners, and management of classroom behaviour. In contrast, hermeneutic epistemology stresses purposeful meaning and interpretation, is associated with a learner-problem centred approach to curriculum organization, a high degree of learner's personal development, and active learner's participation in the management of the teaching learning transaction.

This study argues that these views are consistent with those described in the academic\technical model, on the one hand, and with those in the experiential and social reconstruction\adaptation models, on the other hand. In the academic model, there is a predisposition towards a tight vertical structure of teacher control of curriculum and the teaching learning transaction, and a fixed view of knowledge. In the experiential and social reconstruction\adaptation models, there is a predisposition towards a loose horizontal structure of teacher control of curriculum and the teaching learning transaction, and a tentative view of knowledge.

While these studies are by and large all related to schooling and teacher education, Young's research indicates that epistemological categories derived from ethnographic studies appear to be appropriate to and consistent with educators' epistemologies in practice. Moreover, educators' categories of beliefs appear to form a coherent belief system with specific implications for their educational practice.
4.1.2 Research on Teachers' Practical Knowledge

Research on teachers' practical knowledge describes what teachers know in practice. Connelly (1972), an early associate of Schwab, is the progenitor of the "personal practical knowledge" studies. Connelly applies Schwab's ideas in his own curriculum work. He is influenced by Schwab's view that curriculum is a practical field of study in which thoughtful deliberation by representatives of the commonplaces is central. Connelly focuses on teachers' role in curriculum development rather than on teachers as mere transmitters of externally developed curriculum materials. He is interested in knowledge which informs teachers' curriculum decisions. He emphasizes the practical and interactive nature of teachers' roles and suggests that teachers make decisions and adapt new ideas as they acquire new understandings of their situations.

Connelly and Dienes (1982) utilize the term "personal practical" to describe the knowledge that teachers utilize to make curriculum decisions. They posit that in dealing with theory teachers:

...attempt to personalize and make practical... theoretical ideas...the process of making theoretical matters practical and personal is the way practitioners cope with new ideas and eventually make them their own. Undoubtedly the ideas will be greatly modified when this happens, since the personal practical knowledge of one person is unique to that individual (p.197).

This is a Schwabian view that theories are not applied wholesale in practice but through a dialectical relationship of theory and practice; practitioners modify ideas in planning.

Elbaz (1981, 1983), the first of Connelly's graduate students to study practical knowledge, completed her dissertation on "personal practical knowledge". Elbaz used observations and open
ended interviews in her study of "Sarah", a secondary school teacher. She explores Sarah's practical knowledge in terms of Schwab's (1973) commonplaces or topica. The context of Sarah's knowledge includes knowledge of: self as teacher, milieu in which she works, subject matter, learners, and the curriculum.

Elbaz (1983) examines how Sarah's knowledge is oriented in active relation to her teaching situations. She identifies five orientations: 1) situational, as it relates to the classroom, school, and the community; 2) personal, as it relates to self and gives meaning to experience; 3) social, as it relates to structure and social reality; 4) experiential, as it relates to experiences through which knowledge has been acquired and has given shape to experience; and 5) theoretical, as it relates to theory and practice. The relation among them determines both how Sarah acquires and uses practical knowledge and how she attains theoretical knowledge and exploits it for practical ends.

Further, Elbaz defines the structure of Sarah's practical knowledge. Elbaz posits three basic categories: 1) a rule of practice which consists of a "...brief, clearly formulated statement of what to do or how to do it in a particular situation frequently encountered in practice" (p.132-133); 2) a practical principle which is an "...inclusive and less explicit formulation in which the teacher's purposes, implied in the statement of a rule, are made more clearly evident" (p.132-34); and 3) an image which is the "...less explicit and most inclusive of the three... the teacher's feelings, values, needs, and beliefs combine as she forms images of how teaching should be and marshals experience, theoretical knowledge and school folklore to give substance to
these images" (p.134).

Clandinin (1985), another of Connelly's graduate students, developed the idea of image in her dissertation on practical knowledge of two teachers "Aileen" and "Stephanie". Stephanie holds images of "the classroom as home" and maker of things. Aileen holds images of the classroom as a "mini-society of cooperation". In a recent paper Clandinin (1987) describes the first year teaching experience of "Stewart" and offers, as one of his images, "teaching as relating to children" (p.10).

However, the research on personal practical knowledge is problematic. Clandinin's research does not provide any new insights into the nature of teachers' personal practical knowledge. For instance, Court (1988), who provides a conceptual analysis of this emerging area of research, indicates that what these teachers value and the way they teach seem, for the most part, to be rather ordinary and questionable. Court argues that while these images tell us something about teachers, they seem rather cliche like and prosaic. Court indicates that the construct of image may be a powerful one for uncovering teachers' values and beliefs that are beyond their conscious level, but researchers must go beyond the generation of images.

Court argues that if insightful and appropriate images are generated, then these can be building blocks to help teachers articulate the values and beliefs held in the images. Moreover, while Clandinin suggests the importance of the "moral dimension", it is not explored in any systematic manner. In Court's view, the "moral dimension" is one component of the blend of knowledge, experience, and values which becomes submerged in the treatment of
Connelly and Clandinin (1985), and Clandinin (1987) explore the idea of "narrative unity". Clandinin (1987) states:

The method we have developed for offering accounts of teachers' personal practical knowledge is a narrative one with a particular focus on personal experience...A narrative method has as its principal feature the reconstruction of classroom meaning in terms of unities and rhythms in the lives of...participants (p.5).

Clandinin and Connelly (1986) explore two central ideas: narrative which deals with the "life stories" in teaching (not life histories); and unity which deals with "...the power of the cyclic temporal order in schools and the difficulty of breaking through the bonds of cyclic regularity" (p.378).

While these studies offer thick, rich description of personal context, their use as personal stories and metaphors are not valuable in and of themselves. Court states that Clandinin and Connelly seem to get involved in description for its own sake rather than for the purpose of asking: from where are these "myths" and "unities" derived? What are their effects on learners and teachers? and what could and should be done to change them? Moreover, problems of misinterpretation and under-analysis can become acute. Court's summary of the research on "personal practical knowledge" provides a useful reference point for the current research.

Court indicates that the research offers a rich, detailed description of the context of teaching. This is valuable because the context must be taken into account to understand teachers' classroom actions and decisions. However, it provides little deep and focused probing of reasons, values, and beliefs embedded in
personal practical knowledge. The research offers too much
description and not enough careful analysis. It very seldom posits
questions of "why", which may have uncovered values, beliefs,
strengths, and shortcomings in educators' practical knowledge.

Moreover, Apple (1982) charges that research in this area
lacks critical analysis of how personal practical knowledge is
socially constructed, and does not provide any critical
understanding of ways in which schools help to create and make
legitimate forms of consciousness that are dialectically related to
the corporate society. In response to this criticism, Elbaz stated
that this form of understanding was not sought in her study because
her concern was to bring into the sharpest possible focus teachers'
active role in using knowledge. She sees her study as a form of
consciousness.

These perceptions of the limitations of the studies of
personal practical knowledge provide some understanding of how the
current research builds upon and departs from research studies on
practical knowledge. The current research provides rich, thick
description and careful analysis of the context to understand
planners' practical knowledge and planning. It also offers careful
analysis and probing of reasons for planners' decisions and actions
to carefully map professional practice. Further, the ethical and
moral dimension, an inherent quality of practical knowledge which
involves not merely correct interpretation of the practice
situation but right action, is also explicated.

Furthermore, Apps (1985), and Usher and Bryant (1989) suggest
that adult education as a field of study has systematically
neglected to study practical knowledge and the mode of
understanding associated with it. It has not only failed to interlink its study with its practice, but also has searched for knowledge in disciplines. It is important to study knowledge in practice to develop theory which starts from that knowledge. This thrust locates adult education in the practical. The present study offers this potential and thus attempts to break new ground.

Further, it may identify points of intersection and overlap with the research in other areas within education, specifically on curriculum and teacher thinking. Young's framework of questions and Elbaz's conceptual framework of practical knowledge provide useful analytic tools for framing questions around categories of planning and planners' practical knowledge. Further, research on teachers' planning is explored because of its relevance to the current research.

4.1.3 Research on Teachers' Planning

Clark and Peterson (1986) subdivide this research area into three questions: what are the types and functions of teachers' planning? what planning models are used to describe planning? and what is the relationship between teachers' planning and teachers' subsequent actions in the classroom? The studies related to the research questions and problem are examined.

Clark and Peterson (1986) suggest that Tyler's rationale is the most widely prescribed model for teacher planning. Thus, it has widespread use on all levels of educational planning and teacher education programs. However, research of the 1970s which examined planning models in use and compared what is practised with what is prescribed supports the researcher's observation that Tyler's model is not used in practice.
Taylor's (1970) study examines how teachers plan syllabi for courses and make decisions regarding various components of the process. Taylor's findings indicate that the academic model based on Tyler's rationale is not used in practice. Rather, the findings indicate that learners' needs, abilities, and interests provide the focus of planning which support a learner centred approach to planning which is consistent with the experiential model of planning. This is followed in order of importance by content, objectives, and teaching strategies. Further, it is found that little attention is paid to evaluation and the relationship of specific courses that teachers teach to the rest of the curriculum.

Zahorik's (1975) study, which asks teachers to list their decisions, pursued a similar line of investigation. His findings indicate that the decision of greatest concern to teachers is choosing learners' activity in the teaching learning transaction. Although decisions regarding content are made first and are followed by objectives, these findings suggest that teachers' planning decisions do not always follow the linear model and that objectives are not viewed as important based on the infrequency of their use.

Further, Yinger's (1977) ethnographic field study of one teacher's planning generated a theoretical model of planning: 1) problem finding, 2) problem formulation and solution, and 3) implementation, evaluation, and routinization. The importance of Yinger's study is that it suggests a cyclical or interrelated planning process which supports the claims of theorists such as Schwab, Houle (1972), and is consistent with the empirical research of Pennington and Green (1976). Further, Clark and Yinger's (1977)
study, of five elementary teachers' planning in regard to a unit of writing, corroborates Yinger's three stage cyclical planning model.

Favor-Lydecker (1981) and Sardo (1982) studied planning-styles of experienced and inexperienced teachers. Sardo's study of four junior high teachers indicates there is a relationship between individual differences in planning style and teaching experience. These studies concluded the planning style of the least experienced teachers comprise mainly of daily planning based on Tyler's linear model. By contrast, experienced teachers spend less time planning, are less systematic in planning, and make overviews of weekly lesson rather than detailed daily plans.

Neale, Pace, and Case (1983) concur with Sardo's findings about experienced and inexperienced teachers' planning and the use of Tyler's rationale. In addition, through the use of questionnaires and interviews of experienced elementary and student teachers, their findings suggest that there is a positive attitude by both groups of teachers towards Tyler's rationale. However, experienced teachers indicate that Tyler's model is perhaps more appropriate and useful for novice teachers and when planning new materials. Further, the findings indicate that while teachers are well acquainted with Tyler's model, it is not the model of choice for either group of teachers.

Clark and Peterson (1986) summarize the research on teachers' planning: it provides a direct perspective of the cognitive activities of teachers as professionals; it is almost exclusively descriptive and deals with planning by experienced elementary teachers; it indicates psychological benefits are produced from planning, that is, increased confidence and reduced uncertainty; it
states Tyler's model provides a good foundation upon which novice teachers can develop their own planning style congruent with their personal dispositions and the environmental context; and it states that Tyler's model does not portray planning behaviour of experienced teachers (p. 268).

These findings about teachers' planning are consistent with the observations of this study that planners' practice is intentional, systematic, and emergent, which implies a conceptual framework which renders practice meaningful. Further, Tyler's rationale, which is widespread at all levels of the educational system, is not used wholesale in practice. Instead planners temporize their planning according to their knowledge, content, learners, instructors, and context.

5 Summary

The theoretical formulations presented in this review have contributed significantly to identifying and clarifying the research questions and problem. As suggested, planners translate theoretical notions about planning into practice (Connelly and Dienes, 1982). Yet there remains a lacuna of research, in the adult education planning literature, about what planners do, how they do it, and why they do what they do. This study focuses on these critical questions to gain an understanding of planning as it is practised, and planners' practical knowledge.

Apps (1985) and Grundy (1987) argue that the objective model of curriculum (Tyler's model) is informed by a "technical cognitive interest". Implicit within this model, is an interest in "controlling" learning through control of the learning environment. Also, the concern is with ensuring that learners acquire the
behaviours that have been systematically identified. Grundy suggests that this technical orientation to planning sheds little light on practice and the theory-practice relationship. Rather, it reduces the complexities of planning to a sequence of steps along a single dimension which planners should follow.

In contrast, Grundy argues that the orientation of practical planning is "understanding" the environment so that the individual can interact with it. In short, "...the practical interest is a fundamental interest in understanding the environment through interaction based upon a consensual interpretation of meaning" (p.12). Grundy summarizes Habermas's position of "interaction" in this orientation:

By interaction...I understand communicative action, symbolic interaction. It is governed by binding consensual norms, which define reciprocal expectations of behaviour and which must be understood and recognized by at least two acting subjects (14).

In this view, the theory-practice relationship is constitutive: knowledge is judged according to how the interpreted meaning assists the planner in the process of making judgements about how to act rationally and morally. The action which arises as a consequence of this view is "interaction". Interaction is not action upon but with the environment. Planning is not a means ends procedure but a process through which representatives of the commonplaces interact to make meaning of the particular situation. In this view, planning is concerned with promoting right action, not simply knowledge qua knowledge. Thus, the ethics of practice, the centrality of planners' practical knowledge, and the complexity of planning need to be explored.

Further, the "wholesale" use of planning models is rejected in
practice because of their uneven fit in practice, a condition Brookfield (1986) describes as theory-practice disjunction. If planners reject models in practice, it is important to explore planning practice from their perspective which then describes practice. However, description of planning in and of itself is not inherently useful unless it describes the theoretical framework which informs that process. Thus, the reasons for planning practice need to be exposed.

Usher and Bryant (1989) suggest that planners consciously and intentionally understand, interpret, and confer meaning on the particular practice situation to act appropriately in the planning of programs. However, studies in the adult education planning literature did not focus on planners' practical knowledge. Therefore, it is important to consider planning practice to identify planners' framework or theory that renders practice meaningful. Also, Schwab's deliberative practical planning and Elbaz's (1981) study offer alternative frameworks to help conceptualize planning and planners' practical knowledge.

This study builds on these approaches while including the components of planning. Also, the study recognizes the interrelation among competing and conflicting ends and means that require planners to bring theory and practice to bear on the problem in the actual situation. The study focuses on planners, in a university continuing education division, about whom very little is known with respect to practical knowledge and planning practice. As well, the study employs an interpretive perspective which aims to understand and explicate meanings that individuals give to planning activities within specific contexts. And finally, the
study uses qualitative methods which are congruent with the epistemological foundations of the interpretive perspective.
CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

This study has been undertaken to redress the gap in our knowledge of the kinds of practical knowledge that planners in a university continuing education division find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning; acquire a greater understanding of the planning process from their perspective; and develop categories for interpreting these understandings. It was anticipated that the study would permit insight into the wide range of knowledge which, although unarticulated, planners have and use as well as the indeterminate and contingent nature of their planning. The research was conducted against a background of relevant theoretical concepts. It was anticipated that an increased understanding of planners' practical knowledge and planning practice might assist in conceptualizing the continuing education for planners as well as in mapping professional practice. This chapter describes how the study was conducted. It commences with the approach and methodological focus of the study. This is followed by a description of the study design including the pilot study and the case study method. And finally, it describes the selection of setting and participants, data collection and analysis, interview process, and document analysis.

1 Approach of the Study

Merriam (1988) indicates that when asking "how" and "why" questions the focus is on the process rather than on the outcome or product. This requires an interpretive approach. This approach stresses the interdependence and interrelatedness of all phenomena -educational, political, economic, social. Also, this view
emphasizes contingency and indeterminacy which contrasts with the prevailing traditional paradigm that values certainty and predictability. This perspective emphasizes everyday problem solving, meanings that individuals give to objects and events, and the uniqueness of contexts within which interactions and actions of individuals occur. This study focuses on a specific context, a university continuing education unit, and examines the knowledge and process of planning practice; as well as reasons which individuals give for their practice. From this perspective, individuals are viewed as possessors and creators of knowledge. Also, this approach allows for the development of categories which are generalizable across planners' practice as well as the generation of rich thick descriptions of situations, events, participants, interactions, and beliefs. Thus, the study employs an interpretive perspective which is consistent with the research problem, questions, desired end product, and assumptions and observations of the study.

2 Methodological Focus

Schubert (1982) summarizes what he regards as the four assumptions of interpretive inquiry. First, the problem source is not only the actual state of affairs to be understood but also the "lives" of those involved in it. This study takes a close look at planning practice as well as the contextual factors which impinge on planning. Second, the subject matter is the commonplaces or "topica" of planning. The study argues that the planner is central to planning, thus the planner's practice, including learners, content, context, and instructors are critical components for study and analysis. Third, the method of inquiry is communicative
understanding and interaction. This is the interdependent and interrelated relationship of events, planners' values, context, and investigator and participants. The investigator enters the situation and is interested in the discovery of worthwhile knowledge. The investigator has theories which guide the development and formulation of the research problem. These theories merge with theories which are embedded in participants' practical and experiential perspectives, to understand, interpret, and develop categories related to the research. There is a convergence of investigator's theories and participants' theories which may result in new understandings and formulations of categories. Fourth, the end of inquiry is planners' ability to act appropriately in the situation, that is, planners' ability to make defensible decisions and take action based on theory-practice or tested knowledge.

Carr and Kemmis (1984) suggest that in the interpretive perspective subjective meaning links human action and behaviour, and to observe individuals' actions does not necessarily grant insight into their meanings. Further, observation entails the investigator's interpretation of the meaning which participants place on behaviour. Therefore, since actions can only be interpreted with reference to motive, intentions, or purposes of those who perform the actions, the reconstructed accounts are validated with participants.

Moreover, since the research attempts to uncover the social rules which inform planners' practice, the investigator systematically confirms with participants the subjective meaning structures which guide their actions and behaviours in the
situation. Thus, the assumptions and criteria of rationality, which inform planners' decisions and choices on which the action is justified, are clarified. In short, the research exposes the theoretical context that informs practice to the awareness and scrutiny of participants. Therefore, the possibility of change through critical analysis and self reflection becomes a reality for participants and investigator.

Accordingly, the theory-practice relationship of the interpretive perspective is dialectic: practical deliberation is enlightened not only by theories, but also by the practical exigencies of situations, which demand critical assessment and are mediated by planners' values and beliefs in planning. Each planning activity provides an opportunity for understanding planners' practical knowledge since planning is guided by some theory. By the same token, all theories are products of planning activities. Thus, the interpretive perspective offers the best fit to this study.

In addition, the study employs qualitative methods which are congruent with the epistemological foundations of the interpretive perspective. These methods assist in understanding, interpreting, and constructing meaning of the conceptions of practical knowledge and planners' practice. These methods include participant observation, semi-structured indepth interviews, an informal conversational approach, and documents to corroborate data from interviews. Data are reported in literary prose style.

The credibility of findings is achieved by ensuring that findings are plausible and believable to participants. A number of activities are used to ensure that the accounts are credible and
believable: the investigator spends an extended period of time with each participant in the setting to establish trust and to learn the context. This activity minimizes distortions. The investigator triangulates the data which entails cross checking events and multiple data sources such as documents, and interviews to build plausible and credible findings.

Further, since the investigator has an intimate knowledge of the work of planners including their language and problems encountered in practice, the investigator not only gained better understanding and access to their planning and practical knowledge, but also may have lost some distance from the study. To address this issue, the investigator used a coding paradigm based on a rule of practice for categorizing the data; used a journal to reflect on discussions with participants; clarified with participants the basic criteria of rationality and assumptions of their practice; and validated the reconstructed accounts with the participants.

The investigator also received feedback on the preliminary analysis of data from members on the supervisory committee. This is a form of member check by which assumptions and biases are held up to scrutiny of independent external peers. This also served as part of the credibility check. Finally, to increase the credibility of findings, a direct test of findings and interpretations against the raw data is possible because the data have been fully recorded and archived for any tests of adequacy. The process of inquiry and reporting of findings may be publicly examined.

To ensure that the study has transferability, rich thick description is collected and provided as part of the findings.
Further, a number of activities is used to ensure rich thick description, such as careful observation of two team meetings whereby participants elaborated on planning activities. The investigator conducted only two participant observations of team meetings because the agenda items of the meetings were follow-up to planning activities which participants provided in the interviews. The data are transcribed and the preliminary analysis is reviewed with participants to corroborate the information. Also, the investigator collected documentary materials which described the programs the participants discussed.

The findings are clearly related to the context which may enable other researchers to judge if they are transferable to other contexts. Rich thick description of the context and planning activities is provided to allow a backdrop whereby events and situations can be viewed within their social context, and to give the reader enough detail to make sense of the experiences described.

Therefore, detailed descriptions are provided to create an awareness of the social structure of the institution and participants. This provides a framework for understanding participants' descriptions of their actions, and for producing analyses to construct explanations which are consistent with the context in which the study is conducted. The meanings that participants give to their actions and behaviour are to be understood within the contextual values, practices, and structures of the context; as well as the multiple perspectives that pervade the context. Accordingly, interviews, which are recorded and transcribed, are conducted in the work setting.
To ensure the confirmability of the study, the investigator triangulated the data sources by comparing and contrasting descriptions provided of the same program by two participants, and analyzed the documentary sources against descriptions participants provided. Further, the investigator kept a journal for reflecting on the interviews, informal meetings, and participant observation. Since the validity of a theory is partially defined by its ability to be internally consistent with participants' theories, the investigator verified with participants the meaning of their account to ensure its meaning and validity.

Thus, to ensure the study's credibility, transferability, and confirmability, the investigator undertook a process of constantly confirming and disconfirming data sources through a number of activities which are concerned with the process of inquiry, the sureness of the representativeness of the data, findings, and interpretation. The study examines the process of planning; as well as meanings and interpretations which participants provide to explain their intentions, actions, and behaviours. This type of knowledge offers the basis for understanding planning practice and practical knowledge.

Since one of the investigator's concerns is to determine the feasibility of the research questions and the problem, the study is conducted in two phases. Phase one, a pilot study of two planners, explores the feasibility of the research questions and the problem. Based on this stage, a questionnaire is modified and used as a guide in the second phase. Building on phase one, phase two incorporates a case study of four additional planners.
Pilot Study

The investigator's assumptions and personal observations lead to the conclusion that planners have and use a broad range of knowledge which may not be articulated but is knowledge of practice. Thus, planners are viewed as holding and actively using knowledge which shapes their work situation and guides their practice. In this regard, the character of that knowledge should become evident from its use. Thus, a valid approach to conceptualizing planners' knowledge is through direct examination of practice through their eyes. The research questions which guide the pilot study are: what is the planning process that planners follow? and what kinds of practical knowledge do planners find useful and relevant to their planning decisions?

Non-directive interviewing was used to allow planners to reveal their planning activities on their own terms as well as to construct a parsimonious conceptualization of planning practice and practical knowledge concerning these activities. A questionnaire, which was reviewed by a committee of experts, was designed for use in the pilot study. Based on the pilot study, the questionnaire was modified and used as a guide in the second phase of the study.

The pilot study was conducted in two stages with an introduction to gain access to the setting. Access to the setting and participants was gained through telephone contact followed by two-hour meeting with the dean of the unit to discuss the purpose and to identify participants for the pilot study. Based on this discussion, the dean identified two planners with the most seniority, and sought their consent to participate.

The planners are Erna and Liz. Erna is a program director who
is responsible for team leadership and developing language programs. Liz is a program officer whose responsibility includes administering the Educational Assistants Program and the English as a Second Language Program.

Once access to the setting and participants had been gained, the pilot study involved two-hours of informal conversational interviews with each participant to discuss the purpose of the study, their work in general, and to establish a climate of trust and confidence. This interview was followed by six two-hour semi-structured, indepth interviews using the questionnaire guide with each participant. In addition, two-hours of participant observations at two planning meetings were also undertaken. Thirty-four hours of interviewing were used in the pilot study.

Stage One of the pilot study used an informal conversational interview approach which allowed for 1) the establishment of a climate of trust and confidence, 2) the spontaneous generation of questions during the natural flow of the interaction, 3) the development of the interview, and 4) the appreciation of the phenomenon under study (Patton, 1980; and Merriam, 1988). This design also permitted the modification and formulation of questions for the questionnaire guide.

Stage Two of the pilot study is a semi-structured, indepth interview with the use of the questionnaire guide which is a checklist of questions with the relevant topics. This guide allowed for probing of ambiguous answers. Also, this approach allowed for seeking reasons behind answers, gaining insights into participants' understanding of their practice, and constructing an emerging perspective on the phenomenon. The outline of the semi-structured,
The indepth interview is: 1) the investigator requests participants to provide an account of planning a program; 2) the investigator outlines what the participants describe as the planning process followed by asking "why" in reference to the particular aspect of planning under discussion; 3) the participants clarify their planning; and 4) the investigator uses probing questions on specific components of planning.

Each participant was interviewed in six two-hour interviews, in addition to a two-hour informal conversational interview. All the interviews are audio taped, transcribed, and analyzed. From the analysis, major categories of planning and planners' ways of knowing were identified. The feasibility of the research questions, problem, and methodology was confirmed. Further, the supervisory committee provided comments on the emerging categories identified from the pilot study. Based on the preliminary analysis of the data, the data of the pilot were included as part of the analysis. In Phase Two four additional participants from the setting were interviewed.

Phase Two of the design includes four two-hour semi-structured, indepth interviews with four other participants in the setting for a total of eight hours. Forty-two hours of interviewing were used in total in the study. These hours include: Phase One, the introduction and pilot study, and Phase Two, the major part of the study.

4 Case Study Method

This design draws conceptually upon the case study method which allows: indepth study and pursuit of many hard-to-reach concepts, which are embedded in planners' practice; and the
development of rich, thick description from which to derive analyses, interpretations, and categories. This may lead to the further development of theory and a language of discourse which is meaningful to planning practice.

This method is important, in and of itself, because it uncovers information about the unit of analysis, that is, planners' practical knowledge as they plan programs. Thus, this method provides a specificity of focus which is appropriate for problems which are derived from practice such as describing the dialectical relationship of theory-practice in planning of programs. In fact, the case study method offers the potential to concentrate attention on the way planners confront specific problems around planning while taking a holistic view of the specific situation.

4.1 Definition of Case Study

The definition of the case study which guides the inquiry process is synthesized from the literature as outlined by Bogdan and Biklen (1982), Lincoln and Guba (1985), and Merriam (1988). The case study is a process which occurs over time, and attempts to arrive at a thorough understanding of the phenomenon under study through rich thick description for purposes of analyses, interpretation, and development of categories about the phenomenon.

4.2 Characteristics of the Case Study Method

This study incorporates the four major characteristics which are fundamental to the case study method (Merriam, 1988). First, particularistic, wherein the focus is on a specific situation, context, program, or phenomenon. In this research, the focus is on planning practice in a specific context. Second, description, wherein rich, thick description is produced of the unit of
analysis, that is, the planning process. The case study method incorporates as many factors as feasible and displays the interaction of these factors over time. There is an implicit element of the longitudinal in this research. Analyses and interpretation, which are generally qualitative, are produced and presented in prose and literary style. Third, heuristic, wherein the case study enhances and or confirms the understanding of the phenomenon studied, and generates discovery of new understandings and meanings of planning practice. These new understandings and meanings may lead to a rethinking of the phenomenon being studied. Fourth, induction, the foundation of grounded theory, wherein inferences or generalizations are used to arrive at useful theory. This research focuses on planning practice to arrive at a conceptual framework of practice.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) describe the significance of the relationship between qualitative methodology and theory building: it enables understanding and explanation of behaviour; it is used in a field's theoretical advancement; it is used in practical application, that is, to understand and control the situation; it offers a view on behaviour, that is, a position to be taken toward the data; and it directs the style of the research on a specific area of behaviour (p.3).

The case study offers the potential for the construction of theories, categories, and hypotheses so that critical theories may be confirmed in present and future research. This research describes planners' planning practice in order to construct categories which are generalizable across these planners' practice. Qualitative methods and the interpretive perspective are the
paradigmatic angle for viewing the research.

5 Selection of Setting

The setting was selected because observations, assumptions, and empirical claims of the study are based on the practice of planners in a university continuing education unit. Therefore, it is important to focus on the setting to explore how it mediates practice and how practice mediates it.

The study focuses on constructing categories for interpreting the kinds of practical knowledge planners in this setting find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning. Three university continuing education units are within the investigator's geographic location. However, two sites were eliminated because of the issue of biasing the data, and the difficulties in securing access to participants and setting.

The meanings that individuals give to their actions and behaviours are understood within the contextual values, practices, and structures of the setting. The perspectives of individuals in the setting are included. There is a commitment to understand and examine events and actions of participants within the context, the social entity, of a university continuing education unit of a small liberal arts college.

Further, Kowalski (1988) identifies a typology of organizations of adult education. This typology frames the sampling selection process. The university continuing education represents one of the six categories in this typology: an institution which provides adult education as an exclusive function. Thus, framing the research within this typology allows for the purposeful selection of planners in this setting. This
continuing education unit provides programs including certificate programs, seminars, workshops, short courses, and conferences to a variety of adult learners.

6 Selection of Participants

Participants in this study are drawn from a small university continuing education unit which has a staff of seven planners including a dean and associate dean. Its organizational structure is based on a team concept. There are currently three teams: a management team comprised of a dean, an associate dean, and an administrative secretary; and two planning teams. Each planning team consists of: a program director who is responsible for developing programs and team leadership; program officers who are responsible for administering programs; and a program secretary who provides secretarial support to the team. One team is responsible for language programs. Another is responsible for management, computers, and general interest programs. Participants are selected from all three teams.

Six participants, two males and four females, from the total complement of seven planners were selected for the study. The selection process occurred in two phases. Two planners, a program director and an officer, are selected on the basis of seniority for the pilot study, and on the recommendation of the dean. All but one of the remaining five program staff are selected for the final phase of the study. They are selected on the basis of their length of service. The program officer who was not selected had been employed for two months. The investigator contacted, by telephone, the remaining four participants to participate in the study. For purposes of anonymity and confidentiality, pseudonyms have been
used for persons and programs.

Joel, one of the males, has been dean for three years. He holds a Ph.D in Educational Administration but has had no formal training in adult education. However, he had been a teacher and school principal in the secondary school system for fifteen years, and dean of a college for five years. Joel developed both a Program for Native Students and the Educational Assistants Program. Pete, the other male, has been associate dean for two years. Pete holds a Ph.D in Higher Education and he also has had no formal training in adult education. He worked for ten years in an administrative and programming capacity in a government department of arts and culture prior to joining the unit. Pete developed the Gasper Reserve and Futures Studies Programs.

Netta, Erna, Liz, and Anna are the female participants in the study. Netta has a M.B.A. and had worked with the university in an administrative capacity for five years before joining the unit three years ago. She is a program director who is responsible for team leadership and development of the management, computer, and general interest programs. Erna has a B.A. with a major in French and has completed course work towards a M.A. in Languages. She had taught for five years as a language teacher of adults before joining the unit four years ago. Erna is also a program director who is responsible for team leadership of the language team as well as for developing heritage and romance language programs. Liz and Anna are program officers responsible for administering programs. Liz has a B.A. with a major in languages. She had taught both in Canada and overseas for approximately six years as a language teacher of children before joining the unit three years ago as a
member of the language team. Liz administers a number of programs including the Educational Assistants Program and English as a Second Language Program. Anna has a B.A. with majors in Mathematics and French. She had been a teaching assistant for three years in the French department of the university before joining the unit two years ago. Anna had been a member of the language team and more recently became a member of the management, computer, and general interest team. She is responsible for a number of programs including Writing for the Journal and Refine Your Accent. Although participants have not had formal training in adult education, they are typical of planners in the field.

7 Data Collection

The study of the conception of planning and planners' practical knowledge is an attempt to take a fresh look at planning practice to uncover the "what", "how", "when", and "why" of practice. Data are triangulated to construct a plausible and credible interpretation and explanation which accurately describe the phenomenon under study. The triangulated design includes: 1) interviewing participants in the setting, 2) observing participants at two planning team meetings, and 3) collecting documents (program proposals, promotional materials, and a position paper). The following table summarizes data collection from the major part of the study. The table identifies the source of the data, the process of data collection, and the kinds of data collection related to the interviews and documents collected.
Table 1: Data Collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Kinds of Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviews:</td>
<td>Semi-structured in-depth interviews used</td>
<td>Sociodemographic data of participants are collected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participants asked same questions</td>
<td>Data are reported in literary prose style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generation of spontaneous questions to enhance understanding</td>
<td>Rich, thick description is provided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal conversational approach used to establish a climate of trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purpose, technique, &amp; procedure discussed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of questionnaire guide</td>
<td>Questions related to: planning activities; knowledge of content of programs;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time is spent: probing for insights, &amp; clarity</td>
<td>nature of learners &amp; instructors; need for programs; evaluation; opinions,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews are audio-taped, fully transcribed, analyzed, &amp; archived</td>
<td>feelings, beliefs &amp; values of planning; and experience &amp; knowledge of planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tell &amp; listen/ listen &amp; tell method is used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With four planners for a total of 8 hours
### Documents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field Journal for field notes</th>
<th>Reflect on data; generate further questions; &amp; create distance</th>
<th>Notes are written about interviews, informal meetings, &amp; participant observation meetings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public or archival materials such as catalogues</td>
<td>Verbal request for written materials</td>
<td>Promotional brochures which describe programs planners describe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Position paper authored by a program director</td>
<td>Triangulation of data from documents with interview data, &amp; field journal notes</td>
<td>Written materials which evaluate the unit's programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Proposals including minutes of committee meetings</td>
<td>Documents which describe programs presented to committees including Senate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.1 Interviews

As identified in the above table, a semi-structured, in-depth open-ended questioning interview design was one source of data collection which allowed: 1) collecting sociodemographic data on participants, 2) asking all participants the same questions while constructing an emerging perspective from the data, and 3) generating spontaneous questions to enhance the understanding of the topic. The interview, which is a purposeful conversation normally between two individuals under the guidance of one to elicit information from the other, is the major technique used to collect data.

The investigator used the following process: At the outset of
each interview, the investigator established, through an informal conversational approach with participants, a relaxed and trusting climate which proved to be conducive to open and honest responses. The investigator discussed: 1) the purpose of the interview, 2) the interview technique used, and 3) how the study would proceed, that is, the process for recording and transcribing data, checking with participants for accuracy of data, and verifying the meaning of accounts.

This kind of data collection is facilitated by the use of a questionnaire guide which includes a number of open-ended questions related to activities planners undertake in planning programs, and the knowledge, values and beliefs they bring to planning. For instance, questions relate to planners' knowledge of content of programs, the nature of learners and instructors, the need for programs, and evaluation of programs. Other topics include: planners' opinions and feelings in regard to the context of planning, their beliefs and values about planning programs, and their experience and knowledge of planning programs. These topics are neither ordered nor asked in the same pattern so that a natural and responsive interview results. (See Appendix A). In addition, basic demographic information is collected because all participants are asked to complete a biographical sheet. All interviews from all participants were audio-taped by cassette recorders, fully transcribed, archived and are available for public credibility checks in the future.

Part of the process of data collection, includes spending some time in the interview probing fresh insights and new information which participants provide. Moreover, because of the difficult
nature of the research questions and problem, this process allowed for the development of the interview in a general manner while gaining an appreciation of the phenomenon under study. The informal conversational approach helped to develop relevant questions in addition to the basic questions which guided the interview.

This design permits an interactive, flexible, and adaptive format. It allows probing into ambiguous answers, the context, and reasons behind answers. It allows insights into participants' understanding of their planning and concerns which they face in their practice, from their own perspectives. This design facilitated an emerging perspective of planning and planners' practical knowledge. Besides the design and the recording of the interview, setting the tone of the interview is important in establishing a climate of trust and rapport. In this regard, during the interviews the climate was enhanced by using a "tell and listen/listen and tell" approach (Adler and Adler, 1987-88).

7.2 Document Analysis

Documents as well as interviews are important sources of data because they help to uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem (Merriam, 1988). The documents collected include: 1) a field journal which is used to make field notes, to reflect on interviews and meetings, to create distancing from the data, and to generate additional questions; 2) public or archival materials such as catalogues which describe the unit's educational programs; 3) a position paper, written by a program director, which evaluates the unit's programs; 4) private materials regarding proposals for programs which are
prepared for submission to internal committees; and 5) minutes of program committee meetings.

The process of data collection includes asking participants during the interviews to provide written materials of programs for which they are responsible. The kinds of data collected include catalogues for promoting programs, and materials prepared for the approval of programs, documents related to guidelines for program development, and the mission and goal statements. Data from documents including field notes are triangulated with interview data, and form part of the data source.

### 7.3 Data Analysis

Data collection and analysis processes occur simultaneously (Strauss, 1987; Merriam, 1988; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The investigator undertook analysis of the data during the data collection phase and while working with the data. Initially, the investigator expected the findings to emerge from the data while holding in abeyance theoretical concepts of: Schwab (1969), Sternberg and Caruso (1985), Elbaz (1983), Tyler (1949), Freire (1970), Houle (1972), Knowles (1980), and Sork and Buskey (1986). However, as the analysis proceeded, the literature and understandings that prompt the study became increasingly more central and useful to the study. The reason for this is that these theoretical concepts are able to describe, to a large degree, the processes that participants carry out in planning.

All data were transcribed, then organized into categories which are derived from the data. The data are filtered through relevant theoretical concepts, through which the findings then begin to emerge. Codes were developed for various components of
the data and categories were developed for the same content. Simultaneously, a rule was used to describe the criteria for the category. This rule justifies the inclusion of certain content into the category; provides a basis for later tests of replicability; and renders the category set internally consistent. In other words, the categories are developed on the basis of their fit to the rule rather than their "look or feel alike" quality (Strauss, 1987).

All categories which are similar are compared, contrasted and grouped together to get the data into manageable parts and to search for patterns. Each category is analyzed to discover the important concepts which are formulated into a conceptual framework for theory building. In addition, the categories were integrated to reveal if there are consistent, stable and meaningful category sets; were reviewed for overlap; and were examined for possible relationships to build a conceptual framework. As a preliminary form of data analysis, memos were written about the category sets, which were reviewed to determine what is important about the category sets.

Specifically, Strauss' (1987) coding paradigm is used to analyze the data: 1) the conditions which planners use to describe program plans; 2) the interactions of those involved in planning decisions; 3) the strategies or tactics which planners use to plan programs; and 4) the consequences which planners identify for their particular actions and decisions. With respect to developing categories of practical knowledge, this coding paradigm is found useful for synthesizing the categories into concepts. For instance, the conditions of planning transposed into planners'
declarative way of knowing. The interactions and strategies or tactics of planning described planners' procedural knowledge. The consequences of planning suggested planners' conditional way of knowing.

With respect to developing categories of program planning, Sork and Buskey's (1986) nine generic components of planning were found useful to describe the activities and decisions participants describe. For instance, Sork and Buskey's components of "development of objectives", "selection and ordering of content", "selection, design, and ordering of instructional processes", and "selection of instructional resources" are consistent with the activities and decisions identified in this research as "developing the curriculum". Also, their component, "design of a plan for assuring participation", (p.89) is consistent with the activities and decisions identified in this research as "promote and market programs". In contrast, the components identified in this research as "a focus of concern", "planning context", "collaborating with partners", and "nurturing instructors" (which is included under the component "developing curriculum") are rarely described in the adult education planning literature but, in the eyes of these participants, are useful to planning.

The process of collecting and processing data stopped based on the criteria of exhaustion of sources, saturation of categories, and emergence of regularities (Strauss, 1987). In other words, when data are far removed from the core categories, data collecting and coding stop. However, memo writing and reflecting on ideas continued to build units which define categories. The analysis of the data was presented to participants, for member check, for
scrutiny, and to confirm the accuracy of the assessments as well as to provide a vehicle for further discussion and reflection.

Further, a constant comparative method was used which involves the comparison of incidents which are applicable to each category. This process stimulates ideas that lead to descriptive, analytical, and explanatory categories, that is, categories which are constructed from the data and those the investigator constructed. The final method of analysis is triangulation. This includes the cross checking of multiple data sources such as program proposals, promotional materials, the position paper, and the reflective journal to validate category sets against other data source.

This study emphasizes the accounts which participants provide, that is, how they describe and construct their realities. From the analysis, a set of categories which emerge from the data and appear to be generalizable were developed. These generalizations are supported by the data; are consistent with planners' accounts; are recognizable and acceptable to planners; and comprise planners' methods of rendering their decisions as rational actions. These categories suggest their means of understanding that their actions have purposes which are expressed through specific understandings of knowledge categories and through specific actions.

The analysis suggests that these planners' practical knowledge consists of three kinds of knowledge (declarative, procedural, and conditional) which inform planning practice. Also, these knowledge categories have implications for six components of planning practice including planning context, collaborating, assessing needs, evaluating, promoting and marketing programs, and developing the curriculum. Each category of planners' practical knowledge is
presented in the next three chapters with illustrations from these six components of planning, while Chapter Seven describes the conceptual framework which evolved from the analysis. For instance, Chapter Four describes planners' declarative knowledge; Chapter Five addresses planners' procedural knowledge; Chapter Six discusses planners' conditional knowledge; and Chapter Seven presents the deliberative practical planning framework.
CHAPTER FOUR

Declarative Knowledge

This chapter describes the findings related to these planners' declarative knowledge. The chapter is organized as follows: it starts with a brief description of the three kinds of practical knowledge as well as planners' components of planning. Then, planners' declarative knowledge is explored through categories of planners' knowledge of planning. In essence, specific practical knowledge categories and planning activities, which emerged from the data, are supported by a composite of the data from interviews, participant observation team meetings, and documentary materials where appropriate. As well, quotations are used to support and describe the categories which, in turn, contribute to the development of the conceptual framework.

1 Planners' Practical Knowledge

There are three interrelated kinds of knowledge within planners' practical knowledge: declarative, procedural and conditional. These concepts are implicit in Sternberg and Caruso's (1985) definition of practical knowledge which "...is knowledge that is both procedural and relevant to a person's everyday life. Knowledge that is declarative or irrelevant to everyday life is academic knowledge" (p. 139).

Declarative knowledge is an information aspect whereby planners collect, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate data related to a situation. The purpose of this aspect is to use data to describe the situation. Also, procedural knowledge is an interpersonal communication aspect whereby planners use knowledge of rules and routines to implement planning strategies. And, conditional
knowledge is a critical reflection aspect whereby planners use their understanding of contextual values as well as their principles of practice, educational philosophy, and guiding metaphors to make defensible decisions in planning. These knowledge components inform planning practice as well as provide a response to the research question related to the kinds of practical knowledge planners find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning. These knowledge components may not be exhaustive of all possible ways of knowing; however, they are dialectically related to each other. These components form part of the conceptual framework of planning practice.

2 Planners' Knowledge of Planning

The data support the idea that planning is composed of six major components. These components form clusters of interrelated activities and decisions which vary in degree of conceptual abstraction. A cluster/series is a single group of activities and decisions which may overlap with other clusters.

These components of planning are also consistent with those identified in the literature on planning. For instance, Sork and Buskey (1986), in their review of the planning literature, conclude that "...there are several steps which are common to most models", and generate from the literature a "...generic planning model composed of nine specific" components (p. 89). However, planners' categories are not exhaustive of all possible planning tasks and decisions.

Series one, related to the planning context, includes the mandate of the unit, operational policies and practices, the team concept, the mission of the institution, the deficit budget, and
the budget process. Series two, related to collaborating with partners, includes working with external and internal partners. Series three, related to assessing needs, includes originating the program idea, validating the idea, and formal and informal needs assessment. Series four, related to evaluating the program, includes conducting formal and summative evaluation, identifying problem needs, and holding informal and formative evaluation. Series five, related to promoting and marketing the program, includes developing a directory, acquiring and using knowledge related to the commonplaces, and developing alternative means to increase participation. The sixth series, related to developing the curriculum, includes identifying and selecting instructors through a committee structure, conducting formal and informal interviews, holding orientation sessions, nurturing instructors through professional development and classroom observations, identifying and selecting content based on the academic, the social reconstruction/adaptation, and the experiential models, and identifying and selecting objectives. Each series forms part of the conceptual framework of practice.

3 Planners' Declarative Knowledge

The planners discussed a number of programs for which they were responsible. From the analysis of these programs, a number of categories related to planning and practical knowledge were identified which describe planners' declarative knowledge. Planners' declarative knowledge is oriented to 1) organizational knowledge including mandate, deficit, and budget process; 2) theoretical knowledge including research methods, evaluation, program content, program ideas, and setting problems; and 3)
knowledge of the field of adult education including the commonplaces of planning, and program design related to content, problem-learner-situation, and learners. These components of knowledge are not exhaustive, are interrelated, and oriented to other categories of planners' knowledge.

3.1 Knowledge of Organizational Context

Planning is framed, in part, by planners' organizational knowledge. This gives meaning and understanding to planners' actions and decisions, and includes the mandate of the unit, the deficit, and the budget process. This knowledge mediates and is mediated by planners' practice.

3.1.1 Knowledge of Mandate

Planners describe the parameters within which planning occurs. Joel's discussion typifies the nature of the knowledge of the mandate which planners hold and use in planning. Joel describes the mandate he received when he became dean of the unit, which establishes the conditions under which the unit operates and planning is conceptualized. He states:

...the mandate I was given was a pretty difficult one and...was hard to achieve. It was from my supervisor, who was the vice president. It was to do something with the programs, make them grow, make them worthwhile, a significant part of a small liberal arts college that served the downtown core area...make it self sufficient, that is, make money, so that it makes a surplus to be used in other parts of the university...

(Inter I, p. 4, L. 28-35)

The vice president, Joel's supervisor, gave him a mandate which includes educational, political, and economic components: offer worthwhile programs, which are consistent with a small liberal arts college, to those who live in the downtown core area while ensuring
programs generate money to make the unit self sufficient and provide funds to support other parts of the university. Therefore, planners are expected to have and use knowledge of: worthwhile programs, the politics of a small liberal arts college, the downtown community, educational needs of learners in the downtown area, and budgeting for profit.

Joel explains that the mandate is established within the parameters of a five year plan. The plan is drawn in consultation with "...the vice president, the president, the board of regents, the finance committee, and the dean of the division". At the level of practice it is translated in a number of ways. Joel explains:

"...I decided that to serve the community and make money at the same time, it would be impossible unless we had students and we would not have students unless we offer significant courses and programs. Through that kind of indirect reasoning I decided it was necessary to offer diploma or certificates. I saw that students would come back to take another course, if they are working on a total program, some kind of diploma or certificate..."

(Inter I, p.5, L.21-29)

Joel's "indirect reasoning" is based on his knowledge of what constitutes significant courses and programs to attract learners. He suggests that it is a diploma or certificate which normally consists of a number of contact hours of instruction which is divided into required and optional courses, and attests to learners' successful completion of the program.

Joel argues that "To achieve the objectives of the mandate requires intelligent programming" which is assisted "...through a market survey". However, since his term of office is five years, he believes there is little time to conduct "...a formal market survey which takes at least a year to complete" to determine
learners' felt needs. He argues that he cannot "...sit back and wait for the market survey and analysis". He expands his repertoire of knowledge by gathering data from a number of sources such as holding discussions with planners and colleagues, and consulting with marketing people to collect, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate data which describe the situation (Inter I, p.5, L.14-20). Joel has knowledge of collecting and analyzing data from market surveys. Planners' knowledge of the mandate is oriented to economic, political, and educational objectives, certificate programs, a liberal arts college, community, learners' educational needs, budgeting for profit, and market surveys.

3.1.2 Knowledge of Deficit

Liz, Erna, and Anna discuss the impact of their knowledge of the deficit on planning and practice. These three planners agree that there was a deficit during each of the three years that Joel was dean of the unit. Liz reports that because of the deficit, they were required to "...decrease expenditures, increase enrolment, and generate a profit of 25-35% on every dollar" (Inter VII, p.11, L.2-6). This suggests that planners have knowledge of budgeting. In addition, Liz explains that planners are instructed by the dean:

...to put on an unique program...which will bring in a lot of money...to work together as a team, develop a program, bring in people who are willing to pay a lot of money...a money maker. They were organized, were put on, a little bit of money was made...Some were new, some were versions of what existed, some were in new formats...

(Inter VII, p.11, L.7-17).

One of the purposes of planning is to generate income to cover the deficit. However, to accomplish this, planners are expected to
have knowledge of: nature of programs, learners' ability to pay, team work, and design of programs in new formats. To this end, planners' knowledge is not only oriented to the deficit and the budget process, but also to programs, learners, content, and format of programs.

For instance, because of Erna's pedagogical knowledge related to the fit of content to new formats, she anticipated that a problem would arise from offering language courses in the new format because the time required to practice a language, in "...a non-pressured learning environment, is denied." Therefore, she made adjustments to the program. Further, Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planners' knowledge, and planning undertaken with respect to the deficit. Erna explains:

...we bought a mailing list of businesses with certain characteristics...we wanted to design...programs which could be marketed using this list. We knew the kind of businesses...we knew they were not able to provide professional development but could pay...we selected existing programs and modified them...we put them into one brochure and marketed them...

(Inter III, p.21, L.9-18).

Planners gather data from a number of sources including a market survey and a mailing list of businesses from which a profile of companies is developed and courses are designed. Based on this information, planners determine learners' characteristics, their educational needs, and the ability of companies to pay. Planners' knowledge of the deficit is oriented to team work, nature of programs, learners' characteristics, educational needs, and ability to pay, program formats, and marketing of programs.

3.1.3 Knowledge of Budget

Planners are required to have knowledge of budgeting as part
of planning. Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planners' knowledge. Erna reports that Joel:

...spent a couple of hours a week...for a total of six weeks...on numbers...how to do budget projections...the training he gave us is in essence his management style, which revolved around the concrete evidence of numbers and from that information he expects...us to take appropriate action...His idea was you make the best possible decision with the information you have...

(Inter II, p.4, L.24-34; p.5, L.1-3)

According to Erna, the only on-the-job training that is provided is budgeting. Based on this information, planners are expected to "make the best possible decision with the information" they have. Further, Liz explains her difficulty regarding her lack of knowledge of budgeting:

...I went to Erna and said, 'how should I go about doing this?' It is something I have never done before ...what do I charge?...on what basis would I be negotiating? She replied, 'there are possibilities, this is what we can do...' I said, 'I would not feel comfortable doing that...' Because it was my first experience, I wanted to go with something very concrete, as opposed to something that would make me think too much on my feet in a situation that I did not think I was going to feel comfortable with...So I wanted to go with very set cards...more in keeping with the way our programs run everyday...

(Inter II, p.16, L.4-23)

Liz suggests that knowledge of budgeting is oriented to negotiating and decision making which require the ability to be creative, flexible, and to think on one's feet because of the unknown possibilities. Liz's discussion suggests the emergent, intentional, and systematic nature of planning as well as the uniqueness, complexity, and uncertainty of practice situations. Also, this provides some insight into novice and experienced planners. She believes she will become comfortable with budgeting
as she gains more knowledge and experience.

Planners concur that the budget formula which Joel provided is a fair and important part of planning. Erna, Liz, and Anna agree that their knowledge of budgeting mediates and is mediated by their practice. Erna's discussion represents the nature of these planners' views:

...25-35% (profit) makes sense to me. I do not have any qualms with it in theory. I know that my salary has to be paid ...under the present mandate that the division be a self supporting branch of the main institution then we have to make 30%...we should be self supporting...I think the division is essential to any post secondary institution...we serve an adult clientele...

(Inter V, p.1, L.23-27; p.2, L.5-7)

Erna argues that the budget formula which is designed to meet the economic objectives of the mandate is a realistic expectation because planners should generate their salary. Further, she believes that while the unit is an important system within higher education, it should be a self supporting unit. Erna, Liz, and Anna agree that they often re-negotiate the budget, and are allowed to do so, as long as they are able to justify it. However, to justify the decision to budget for a smaller margin of profit, it is necessary to have knowledge of expenses and income related to programs. This allows one to gauge the overall profit margin.

In sum, planners' organizational knowledge is oriented to: the economic, political, and educational objectives of the mandate including programs of a small liberal arts college. As well, they must know educational needs of learners in the community, certificate programs, budgeting for profit, and market surveys. Further, consideration must be given to the deficit budget including team work, nature of programs, learners' ability to pay,
learners' characteristics and educational needs, format of programs, and marketing programs. The budgeting process must be known, including negotiation, decision making, creativity, flexibility, nature of programs, income and expense analysis, and criteria for successful programs.

4 Theoretical Knowledge

Planners hold and use theoretical knowledge which is oriented to research methods, program content, ideas, setting problems, and evaluation which inform planning. Joel, Anna, Erna, and Liz discuss activities related to knowledge of research methods. Joel's discussion represents the nature of planners' knowledge of research methods.

4.1 Knowledge of Research Methods

With respect to the Educational Assistants Program, Joel undertakes a survey of stakeholders who are responsible for hiring and providing educational programs for teachers' aides. The reasons for the survey are to: inform and gain support for the program, identify the nature of program, and serve as a political strategy. Joel states that by surveying stakeholders, an opportunity is provided for their input and they are unable to say that they have not been consulted. Also, he gains support from stakeholders by establishing collaborative arrangements with them. Joel reports:

...I said, 'let us now survey the community, that is, school principals, superintendents, school boards, to see what they think...We got 80% return, we mailed out 500...we did not go to teachers in the classroom, we felt there was just too much...We got good support for the concept ...they had reservations. Some said, 'if these people get trained they will want more money'...My response was, '...would you rather have low paid ignorant people dealing with your children or well paid educated people.
Joel uses his knowledge of survey research to collect data from the community, principals, superintendents, and school boards which describe the situation while establishing support for the concept of the program. However, reservations are expressed about the implications of offering the program. If teachers' aides are trained, they may be in a position to demand more money. Joel argues the value of the program to serve the needs of children far outweighs the economic arguments. Thus, in addition to knowledge of survey research, planners require knowledge of, and sensitivity to, the political and economic context of planning.

Joel is the only one who conducts a formal survey of learners to validate the program idea. He forms an advisory committee, comprising the dean, planners, an education consultant, and a teacher's aide, to research the idea to determine who provides educational programs to teachers' aides and the nature of these programs. Joel explains:

\[\text{\ldots we checked the history and background of what happened elsewhere and discovered there were two previous attempts made\ldots to establish teachers' aides programs. They were done by the government and the Teacher's Society, and\ldots never got beyond the program stage because of financial reasons\ldots}\]

The researchers collect, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate data which describe the history and background of programs for this group. Stakeholders, responsible for providing programs for teachers' aides, failed in their initiatives to provide educational programs because of financial reasons. Joel states: data related to learners, content, and the nature of the program, are collected
by means of a questionnaire which is designed and administered at a conference for teachers' aides. Joel states:

...we included questions about what are the types of things you think you should know and would like to see offered...We took all this information and put it in charts, graphs, and tables and said, 'we have enough data to justify going ahead with the program'...

(Inter I, p.8, L.28-33)

Joel constructs the problem through this information processing stage. Data are collected, analyzed, synthesized, and evaluated. That is, they are put "in charts, graphs, and tables" to describe the situation, and justify the decision to proceed.

In contrast, Anna's, Liz's, and Erna's discussion typifies the nature of their knowledge of research methods to collect data to identify program ideas. Anna explains that the idea for Writing for the Journal course originates from her informal environmental scanning:

...I was aware there was a great deal of interest...in journalistic writing. The trend has been noticed...that all of these writing courses...have consistently drawn large number of students, so it was clear there was a need for courses...the demand was evident and I thought it would be worth running a trial balloon...it was originally my idea...

(Inter I, p.1, L.27-30; p.2, L.1-8)

Anna gathers knowledge through informal observation of a trend: other providers offer courses related to the content, and enrolment is high in these courses. This informal scan and observation of the environment provide a description of the situation and some indication of what is feasible given a range of decisions and actions which may be undertaken. Similarly, Erna discusses her knowledge of research methods. She reports:

...there appears to be a need because we were getting
telephone inquiries. I could have proven that there was a need and a market...we have kept a list of interested parties. When it has grown, we offer the course. In some cases we go to associations and...the community...
(Inter III, p.28, L.16-19; p.35, L.5-6)

The idea originates from data which the planner informally collects through telephone inquiries for a particular topic. These inquiries are compiled and a list is generated. The number of names on the list is an indication that there may be a felt educational need in which case a course is developed. The planner collects information from external groups such as associations to determine educational needs. Moreover, planners utilize the information from the market strategy, which Joel commissioned, to identify learners' educational felt needs. Erna's discussion typifies this information processing stage:

...a market campaign...random telephone calls were made. They gave us data. It was the least reliable. They built a portrait of people who took continuing education courses, showed us where our market was, and where we should focus...They were defining someone other than the average language student. The questions were too broad...It was not specific enough to help market language courses...
(Inter III, p.30, L.14-21)

A market survey which is completed for the unit provides planners with data related to demographics of learners, and content areas that appear to be needed. Planners concur the market survey does not provide reliable data to be useful to planning because questions are broad and not specific enough to describe accurately language learners. However, Erna explains:

...to me research means a market survey that would give us hard facts...'250 students attended, 25% said they would be interested'...which is the kind of hard facts I can take to my dean and say, 'I think we should be going in this direction'. Whereas, if it is a major change or just to satisfy my own need to know, if it is something
that is within the language program I would make the
decision..., I...like to have some kind of hard facts to
back up the intuitive feelings I have which probably
guide me more than the hard facts...'I know it is the way
it is, but here is some evidence to back it up'...

(Inter IV, p.1, L.3-11)

The lack of "hard facts" is not a problem because planners'
intuitive-personal knowledge mediates theoretical knowledge.
Planners' knowledge of research methods is oriented to:
sensitivity to political and economic context of planning;
learners, content, and nature of programs; questionnaire design and
administration; data analysis of charts, graphs, and tables;
informal environmental scanning through observation and telephone
inquiries, and collaboration with associations; market survey of
learners and educational needs; and intuitive-personal knowledge.

4.2 Knowledge of Program Content

Joel, Liz, and Erna provide examples of planning with
external organizations related to their program area. Erna
discusses the nature of activities and decisions which characterize
the development and implementation of the Japanese Program.
Because of her lack of knowledge of heritage languages, it made
sense to establish contact with those in the community who are able
to provide expertise and knowledge about the content. Planning
involves collaboration and negotiation with the Japanese community.
Planners confront issues of power and control related to knowledge
of content. She reports:

...the only program I did right was Japanese and I got to
the right person...the correct contact in the
community...before the program started. I made it known
I was interested in setting up Japanese courses...I
received an application which seemed to be excellent and
agreed to set up the courses. The second person to
contact me...was a key figure in the Japanese community
who was able to steer me the right way...

(Inter IV, p.33, L.8-17)

Through word of mouth interest in developing Japanese courses is announced to stakeholders, and she identifies content specialists to develop the program. This is the only program which she began by first initiating contact with key players in the community. She insists that the "right" planning approach is to involve content specialists and stakeholders because this assures a network of support and learners' participation. She explains:

...this is one of the key things in developing the language programs, knowing the community, being in touch with them...the proof of that is our Japanese courses are running better than any other heritage courses...there is more information available to anyone who wants to take Japanese because of the internal communication network that exists in the Japanese community. So whoever wants to take these courses, they have only to telephone any number of Japanese people...

(Inter IV, p.33, L.19-25)

According to Erna, knowledge of the community is important to create a network which allows information about the program to filter into the community to potential learners. An instructor who is respected within the community is a benefit to the program. Success is defined by the ability to generate participants through a community network. Erna indicates learners state:

...I will go to the division because this individual is teaching the course there...this is the individual who guides us. He is the head of the Japanese church, he works closely with the consul...everyone in these organizations knows what he is doing, they will tell people to take his course...

(Inter IV, p.33, L.25-27; p.34, L.1-3)

Planners' knowledge of program content is oriented to negotiating and developing content, creating a network system, working with
community and stakeholders, and identifying human resources and learners. This process describes the situation.

In contrast, Erna and Liz delineate planning with departments within the university related to knowledge of content. Although, these planners have knowledge of the content, for political reasons, they collaborate with departments. In regard to the French Language Program, Erna reports:

...I began by consulting with the head of the French department to determine if we could collaborate...I spent time with her working out the actual content of the program...we needed the cooperation of the French department...the head of the department would be the best representative. The person who was initially contacted was someone who knew the background, and had a vested interest in seeing the continuation and development of the program...One was a political move and the other was someone from whom I was truly looking for support. If I had not been interested in the political angle I would have just gone to the first person and not the head...

(Inter II, p.9, L.19-23; V, p.28, L.3-21)

Erna's knowledge of the political context of planning, and issues of power and control related to the content of the program, lead her to consult with both the head and another member of the department to: determine if they will collaborate, establish the nature of the collaboration, and work with the content specialist to develop the program. Planners' knowledge of content is oriented to: negotiating and networking, power and control, politics of context, content specialists, learners, and community.

4.3 Knowledge of Program Ideas

In regard to planners' knowledge of program ideas, Joel discusses one approach of how program ideas originate. The idea for the Educational Assistants Program as well as many other ideas for programs originate from working with community members. By
contrast, Pete provides a broad perspective of how ideas for programs originate and in particular how the idea for the Futures Studies Program originated. Pete's discussion represents another approach:

...a number of sources shape program ideas which include the history of the institution...the university offers a number of programs which had been historically in place...the market analysis of the adult population within reasonable proximity of the institution...collaboration with faculty, and personal knowledge of content...

(Inter I, p.1, L. 7-26).

Planners' knowledge of program ideas is oriented to a number of sources: the history, norms, values, and philosophy of a small liberal arts college of which the unit is a part; types of programs which the institution provides; collaboration with members of the community and faculty; a market analysis of the adult population within reasonable proximity of the institution; and personal knowledge of content. Planners analyze, synthesize, and evaluate data to generate program ideas.

4.4 Knowledge of Setting Problems

Planners set problems in planning programs. Joel, Netta, and Pete discuss the nature of planners' knowledge of setting problems. Joel discusses the Native Students Program. Joel holds discussions with learners, and observes their academic performance which led to the conclusion that aboriginal students have a "...lack of academic background", knowledge, and understanding of their culture. This translates into other areas; they are "ashamed" of themselves, and have "no self confidence". To set the problem, Joel uses knowledge of learners, content, and context of the program, which incorporate his implicit values and assumptions about "what is the case" and
"what ought to be". A comparative need, which initiates the inquiry process, is a gap between a desirable standard and the standard which these students display (Griffith, 1978). This gap is assessed by a rough comparison of aboriginal students' academic performance with that of other students in the program.

A deliberative process around the act-knower-context identifies that aboriginal students' failure rate is higher and their completion rate is lower than other students. A rough comparison or eye-balling of students' performance indicates that there is a problem. Joel's knowledge of setting the problem, which is informed by his implicit values and beliefs of a desirable state of affairs, is oriented to the program's content and context, discussion, observation, and evaluation of learners' academic performance and lack of self confidence.

In like manner, Netta identifies a focus of concern which is that the system of administering evaluations does not offer confidentiality. Students do not provide "open and honest responses" to questions on the end of course evaluation forms regarding content, instructors, and instruction. Consequently, insufficient information is provided from which to make judgements about the worth of the program. Netta's knowledge of setting the problem is oriented to scrutinizing evaluation procedures, eye-balling learners' responses, holding discussions with learners, and evaluating the situation.

Similarly, in regard to the Gasper Program, Pete collects data related to a focus of concern from a variety of sources including learners, the on site program coordinator, instructors, and self to set the problem which is:
...a bad report about one instructor, who was insensitive to the cultural background of students who said he was racist...

(Inter I, p. 9 L.22-27)

Pete's knowledge of setting the problem is oriented to a focus of concern related to learners, content, instructors. Learners feel that the instructor is a "racist" because of his biased presentation of the history and culture of aboriginal peoples. The resident program coordinator experiences difficulty communicating with the instructor while learners and stakeholders are unhappy about the situation. As a result, Pete indicates:

...students were evaluated constantly, by instructors themselves...there was instructor evaluation done by students, by the coordinator who was in residence, and by ourselves. Each course was evaluated and the program was evaluated...

(Inter I, p.9, L.28-35)

Planners' knowledge of problem setting is oriented to implicit values and beliefs, self knowledge over a focus of concern related to learners, content, context, instructors; discussing and observing the situation; eye-balling, scrutinizing, and evaluating the situation. Dewey (1938) indicates that all knowledge begins in problems which emphasizes the dialectical relationship between theory-practice. Planners question whether to adapt and have learners adapt to the situation or whether to change the situation for learners and how this is to be done.

4.5 Knowledge of Evaluation

Erna, Liz, Anna, and Pete discuss evaluation. Erna initiates evaluation activities to describe the problem-need related to the mandate to "switch from a pass-fail system to a grading system and have some more formal system" in place, and in response to a
problem which instructors identify: "...there had to be a better way to evaluate" their courses to prevent the "...high degree of absenteeism on the last day of classes when they [the students] had the test". Erna improves the teaching learning transaction based on a notion of desirable practice. She explains:

...I spent a year working on different kinds of evaluations. I spent a tremendous amount of time stating objectives in each level, giving concrete examples, testing it out on students...There is more research available in French, that is our usual starting point...I took a course at the university on evaluation...

(Inter III, p.4, L.3-6; p.6, L.2-15)

Erna's knowledge of evaluation is oriented to researching the evaluation literature, testing evaluation methods with students, taking a course on evaluation, and talking to students.

Similarly, Liz and Anna undertake independent evaluation activities because of a problem-need. Liz conducts these activities because she feels "...it is one way of ensuring that we do in fact have good instructors, it is one way of keeping in touch with what instructors are doing". Anna states that, "...if there were some signs that the course was in trouble, then I might do an independent telephone survey". Anna gathers information in regard to the problem-need which relates to her "great concern" for the high drop out rate of 50% from one of the courses. She observes the unhappiness and frustration that the instructor and students experience as a result of the large class size. This inhibits a high level of interaction and interpersonal communication. Anna surveys learners:

...the survey [the information gathered] would be to ostensibly find out about various aspects of their dealings with the division...the course description, the presentation, the physical setting, were the rooms
acceptable?, how were they treated by the division staff, and the registration process?. How did they feel about the instructor? That way I would be able to get an overall view...

(Inter I, p.5, L.10-18)

Anna's knowledge of evaluation is oriented to a survey of learners which provides "...an overall view" of the situation. Anna stipulates that questions related to the commonplaces are asked: what are instructors' knowledge, abilities, and sensitivities? is the presentation of the content appropriate? is the learning environment supportive of learners?, and are the administrative arrangements, admission and registration procedures flexible?

Similarly, Pete discusses the Gasper Program. He states:

...the evaluation was not all pencil and paper test, some of the evaluation was ethnography. We talked to every student to find out what their experiences were, we looked at test scores, we looked at examination papers, we tried to prepare a pass score for the entry level or the level of the students' awareness in a certain area, and the exit results. There was a combination, but what students said they experienced with the instructors in the course was important...

(Inter I, p.9, L.16-22)

Because of a bad report of an instructor, Pete uses both quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods to gather data about the commonplaces. Although, Joel develops a policy to govern the evaluation procedure, at the level of practice, Pete modifies the evaluation policy. Pete undertakes a variety of evaluation methods to gather data about the situation. In short, Pete's knowledge of evaluation includes pencil and paper test, ethnography, and pre and post test to measure learning.

Planners' knowledge of evaluation is oriented to: identify problem-needs, research literature on evaluation, test methods of
evaluation, take a course on evaluation, talk to learners, survey learners about content, context of program, instruction, and instructors, administer pencil and paper tests, and pre and post tests, and conduct ethnography. These data describe "what is the case" and answer the question "what".

5 Knowledge of the Field of Adult Education

These planners have had no formal preparation in adult education which has been typical of those who work in the field. Before working with the unit, Netta and Pete held administrative/management positions, while Joel, Erna, Liz, and Anna were teachers by profession. However, since working with the unit, planners reported that they had taken courses related to the field. Erna completed a course on evaluation; Erna, Liz, and Anna participated in professional development programs for adult educators. While planners may be unable to articulate a coherent system of beliefs of adult education, their practice suggests a conceptual framework which renders their practice meaningful. Liz's and Erna's discussions describe planners' knowledge of the field of adult education. Liz reports:

...I had some ideas in terms of what adult education is, it is a very important part of education...I do not think I have ever had to articulate it. But I think that if this division is going to provide continuing education, it should be for everybody, not tied to the kinds of programs given at a small liberal arts college...It deals with basics such as the nature of learners, learning context, programs, teaching and learning, and instructors...

(Inter II, p. 5, L.1-19)

Although Liz's formal knowledge of adult education is limited, it is mediated by her knowledge of education. Also, Erna's knowledge gained as a teacher mediates her practice. She states:
...I trained as a French teacher...They gave me what I needed to function in the classroom...I think that all people learn best by doing, by practical experiences, by being in control of their learning experiences...I was given the principles of andragogy without knowing that was what I was receiving through the type of classroom activities...

(Inter I, p. 9, L. 7-25)

Planners' knowledge of the field of adult education is oriented to commonplaces of planning such as nature of learners and programs, context of learning, instructors, program design, and planning components. Planners' knowledge of planning components is addressed in Chapter Five.

5.1 Knowledge of Commonplaces of Planning

Planners' discussions describe the nature of their knowledge of the commonplaces of planning. In regard to the Futures Studies Program, Pete's planning is content focused. He states:

...we had a common interest, we checked with staff, I talked to people at the university, faculty people, people in government, business, and industry...who used future's research in forecasting. There were three and we expanded...I sold it to the dean. We went about developing the curriculum...and two instructors were selected...we marketed and advertised the courses...

(Inter I, p.16, L.3-7; p.17, L.1-2)

Pete identified a group of content specialists from the university, government, business, and industry, to form a committee to plan the courses. He presented a proposal to the dean, selected instructors, developed the curriculum, marketed, and advertised the program. Pete's knowledge of the commonplaces of planning is oriented to personal knowledge of content, content specialists, nature of instructors, and committee work to design the program.

In contrast, the Gasper Program which originates from the community is mediated by a problem-learner-situation. Pete
identifies instructors through an informal inquiry process. This is followed by meetings to negotiate the development of the program with instructors, stakeholders, representatives of the learners, and the planner. Pete reports:

...we sat down with instructors and talked with them about courses, purposes of courses, learners, learners' needs, and the community of the students...

(Inter I, p.7, L.31-32)

Pete's knowledge of commonplaces of planning is oriented to problem-learner-situation, negotiation, stakeholders, community, learners' educational needs, nature and content of program, purposes of the program, and nature of instructors.

Netta's knowledge of commonplaces of planning is oriented to rules and principles. She interviews potential instructors to identify the "right" type of instructor to teach in the university setting. She indicates:

...we looked for prior teaching experience, people who were not consultants, because they have no commitment to the division. That is not the people we want. We looked at the people who were successful, the best teachers...were largely people who were working and interested in their field, and wanted to share knowledge...loved what they were doing, seemed to have a way to explain difficult problems that was understandable to people...

(Inter I, p.31, L.2-18)

Netta's knowledge of the commonplaces of planning is oriented to rules related to content experts and practitioners, and principles related to teachers who love their field of study, have the ability to impart knowledge, and are committed to teaching, not consulting.

While the focal point of Netta's practice is mediated by rules and principles, Erna's, Liz's, and Anna's practice is mediated by a communicative philosophy to language teaching. Erna's discussion
represents the nature of these planners' knowledge of the commonplaces of planning. Erna states the interview to select instructors consists of:

...a lot of the usual questions about experience and educational background. Phase two is used to find out their degree of self knowledge...we ask a 'what if?' question to see if they can think on their feet, and a philosophy question related to the communicative approach. What I want to know is can they hand the ball over to students and let them go with it...personality and the ability not to be egocentric, so they can allow that learning process to take place without them being in complete control...

(Inter V, p.6, L.24-26; p.7, L.1-15)

Planners' knowledge of the commonplaces of planning is oriented to the communicative approach to language teaching, education, learners, instructors' characteristics, knowledge of content, and pedagogical knowledge and abilities.

In contrast, Joel's knowledge of the commonplaces of planning is mediated by his personal educational philosophy, instructors' personality, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of content. Joel explains that adult learners who participate in continuing education "...can learn on their own, but they prefer to learn in a more systematic" formal setting, and want formal recognition for their learning. Therefore, instructors must have knowledge of content, and be "people persons", referring to those who stimulate and facilitate learning. These instructors bring enthusiasm and excitement to the teaching learning transaction which are communicated to learners. (Inter I, p.15, L.5-21)
rules and principles of practice, problem-learner-situation. It also includes negotiation with stakeholders, learners, and instructors, purposes of program, the communicative approach, education, learners' educational needs, instructors' pedagogical knowledge and abilities to teach adult learners, and a personal educational philosophy.

5.2 Knowledge of Program Design

Planners' knowledge of program design is oriented to content, problem-learner-situation, and learner centred approaches to planning. Pete's, Anna's, and Netta's knowledge of program design is oriented to a content-focused view which represents an academic model of planning.

5.2.1 Content-Focused

Pete states that the idea for the Futures Studies Program originated from his personal interest in and knowledge of the content and of the inappropriate use of the research in the field. Pete explains:

...I...saw what was going on. It was an experiential thing. I have followed the research so I knew this field...there are conservative types who were using the research to put forth a very conservative agenda...I wanted to cultivate some people who understood the methodology and the learning tools to do something...

(Inter I, p.15, L.1-14)

His analysis of the research in the field leads to the conclusion that researchers were using the research to put forth a very conservative agenda. He wants to ensure that a balanced perspective is presented. The program originates from his focus of concern and his intimate knowledge of the content.

Similarly, Anna indicates that the idea for Writing for the
Journal originates from her analysis of programs which others provide. The idea for Refine Your Accent arises from analysis of a gap in knowledge in the oral and phonetic structure of the language of the existing offerings. In these cases, ideas originate from planners' focus of concern based on observation and analysis of content. In like manner, although Netta does not develop any programs, her discussion typifies an aspect of the content view of planning. She indicates:

...to analyze to see if this is appropriate, what are we trying to do?...the course outlines and courses had been taught before, there were lots of drop outs and we asked 'why'?...the questions were, are courses appropriate?, are they taught in the right order?, are they relevant to students' experience?...

(Inter I, p.26, L.4-14)

Netta states, "I did not develop courses. What I did was repair them". However, her focus of concern over a high drop out rate among learners, leads her to question the appropriateness, order, and relevance of content, and the ability of content to facilitate learners' self sufficiency. The focal point of her planning is a technical aspect: the efficiency and effectiveness of the program. These planners' knowledge of program design is oriented to a focus of concern over a gap in the level and structure of knowledge, an understanding of what constitutes a body of knowledge, and an appropriate use of that knowledge.

5.2.2 Problem-Learner-Situation

In regard to the Gasper Program, Pete's knowledge of program design is oriented to a problem-learner-situation view which typifies a social reconstruction/adaptation model of planning. Pete indicates the program idea originated from "...the community
itself", which is one of the:

...wealthier of the native communities. It is also one of the most politically active and progressive native communities. They approached the university and that led to the division...

(Inter I, p.5, L.30-35)

The community and learners define educational needs, and approach the university to develop a program to be delivered on the reserve. Pete believes one of the purposes of the program is to "...develop and offer a series of pre-university courses and programs in areas like study skills, writing, and speaking" (Inter I, p.5, L.23-27) which will allow students to enter the university. Pete states planning includes:

...a lot of front end work. There were special requirements, we had to hire our own staff, we had to vet our instructional staff through the appropriate departments...we had to make special arrangements for advisors and tutors...

(Inter I, p.6, L.31-35)

Because stakeholders are wealthy, politically active, and progressive, they are able to define the nature of the program to be developed and delivered. Financial supports for the design and delivery of the program are secured through the resources of the community. Pete's knowledge of program design is oriented to problem-learner-situation, awareness of political and economic context of planning, negotiation with key stakeholders in the community, learners' educational needs, instructors' abilities and knowledge, and nature and purpose of program.

5.2.3 Learner-Focused

Joel's, Liz's, and Erna's knowledge of program design is oriented to a learner-centred view which represents an experiential
model of planning. Planning is initiated by Liz's focus of concern with respect to learners. Liz explains that learners in the programs are quite different from what she had anticipated. Liz indicates:

...less than 50% are university students, they are people who work...and want to improve their English...

(Inter I, p.16, L.10-14)

Her focus of concern is that the program may have been designed with a different target audience in mind which suggests that it may not have met learners' felt educational needs. Liz's knowledge of program design is oriented to a learner-centred view regarding whether or not the program is meeting learners' educational felt needs. This shapes planning. Planners' knowledge of program design is oriented to a focus of concern over a body of knowledge; a problem-learner-situation view which is mediated by political and economic context, negotiation with stakeholders, learners' educational needs, instructors' knowledge and abilities, the nature and purpose of the program; and a learner-focused view to ensure that learners' educational felt needs are met.

5.3 Knowledge of Components of Planning

Planners' knowledge of components of planning include: planning context, collaborating with partners, assessing needs, evaluating programs, promoting, marketing, and budgeting programs, and developing the curriculum. These knowledge components will be addressed in Chapter Five.

6 Summary of Declarative Knowledge

Planners' declarative knowledge is oriented to organizational matters related to economic, political, and educational objectives
of the mandate, deficit budget, and budget process. Also, it is oriented to theoretical knowledge related to research methods, program content, program ideas, setting problems, and evaluation. As well, it is oriented to knowledge of the field of adult education as it relates to the commonplaces of planning such as self, content specialists, instructors, content, learners, context, communicative approach, a personal educational philosophy, and pedagogical knowledge. Further, it is oriented to program design as it relates to content, problem-learner-situation, and learners, and components of planning.

A declarative way of knowing is an information processing aspect which involves an act-knower-context, and requires that planners mediate knowledge from a number of sources to construct the problem related to planning. It does not tell planners what to do but describes "what is the case" and answers the question "what". Planners collect, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate declarative knowledge related to planning.

For instance, initially, a planner identifies a problem through a comparison of the current standard with a normative standard which is triggered by the planner's fundamental commitment to desirable practice. Further, the planner observes that there is a high drop out and failure rate among aboriginal students in the program. This knowledge does not tell the planner what should be done but provides a description of the situation.

Moreover, based on declarative knowledge, which planners gather to set and describe the problem related to planning, planners may undertake specific planning strategies related to the problem. For instance, because of the high failure and low
completion rate of aboriginal students in the program, planners may conduct needs assessment; devise evaluation strategies; and develop the curriculum. Developing the curriculum includes: identify and select content and instructors, and revise the goals and purposes of the program. That is, planners use procedural knowledge in planning. The next chapter discusses planners' procedural knowledge.
CHAPTER FIVE

Procedural Knowledge

This chapter begins with a brief description of planners' procedural knowledge. Then, it identifies the six major components of planning. And finally, it explores planners' procedural knowledge through these six planning components.

Procedural knowledge is knowledge of rules and routines of planning which deals with the necessary steps to accomplish planning tasks and answers the question "how to". In short, planners have a number of interpersonal communication strategies which inform planning practice. These strategies are related to the planning context, collaborating with partners, assessing needs, evaluating, promoting and marketing programs, and developing the curriculum.

1 Planning context

The planning context is informed by the organizational conditions in which planning occurs. These conditions give meaning and understanding to planners' actions and decision. For instance, planners discuss the nature of their planning strategies vis a vis the mandate. Joel conceptualizes planning: develop as many certificates as possible; be recognized as the inner city university by offering programs to the core area population who includes business people who can afford to pay, and disadvantaged groups who cannot afford to pay; and make a profit.

Joel initiates an informal rather than a formal market survey and he discusses with "marketing people the concept of how to develop continuing education programs" for the downtown core area. He holds discussions with planners, colleagues, the vice president,
and external community members to communicate, and gain an understanding of learners' felt and ascribed educational needs.

Netta's and Erna's discussions represent the planners' perspective of the mandate and the nature of their actions and behaviours with respect to the mandate. Netta explains:

...the dean was to make the division self sufficient, it was a directive from the university...however, there has to be an action plan, if we are here and we want to get there which means good quality programs, active development, good recruitment, training for staff...we have to decide which are the most important priorities. Is it programming?, is it administrative?, our relationship with the university and community groups? ...we never collectively decided...

(Inter I, p.41, L.2-10)

The dean's directive is that the unit must generate money to be self sufficient and make a profit. However, Netta reports the unit lacks a strategy for fulfilling the mandate. There is no consensus regarding whether the mandate is to be fulfilled through quality programs, active program development, or recruitment of staff, and no priorities are established as to how to achieve the objectives of the mandate. She argues an action plan, which includes intentional planning and consensus of how to achieve the plan, is important to reach the objectives of the mandate or there may be resistance to the mandate. She explains:

...you have to decide if you develop new programs, how long you want to carry a program before it has to prove itself...you have an action plan, and you say this program will never make money, this program will always make money or costs us...you have to have a plan but there is no plan...

(Inter I, p.44, L.19-25)

If the unit is to make money it is necessary to have an action plan which guides decisions about the conditions under which programs
are offered. This strategy takes into consideration program areas and learners, what programs are generating money, and which ones are not. In the case of new and low revenue bearing programs, a decision is then made to support them for a period of time if other program areas are generating money to offset the cost of these programs.

Similarly, Erna and Liz explore a number of alternate strategies with respect to achieving the objectives of the mandate. Erna indicates that "I thought of collaborating" with another university while exploring the possibility of a "...generic heritage oral language proficiency certificate". Liz indicates that planners undertake strategies which include developing new courses, and offering existing courses in new formats. Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planning:

...the use of brainstorming techniques among planners to identify themes...a unifying characteristic to tie it all together...this led to graphic design...we came up with something which staff agreed with...from a financial point of view it just got us through the deficit, it was not successful...

(Inter III, p.21, L.18-23).

However, Liz reports that the outcome of this activity is that a little bit of money is made. Therefore, to alleviate the disastrous situation, she implements additional strategies to assure learners' participation in and increase awareness of the program. She explains:

...I reduced the offerings, and increased the advertising...and kept an up-to-date mailing list...as well as sent out press releases and wrote articles for the local newspaper...

(Inter IV, p.31, L.13-17)
To achieve the objectives of the mandate, planners undertake strategies which include: review, revise, and modify existing courses; develop courses in a new format; acquire a mailing list from which to derive a description of learners, companies, and their educational policies; use brainstorming techniques to generate ideas; develop a unifying theme to market courses; and increase promotion. These strategies revolve around planners' procedural knowledge which deals with the necessary steps to accomplish the planning tasks. This is an interpersonal communication aspect of planning practice.

2 Collaborating with Partners

Joel, Netta, Liz, and Erna are the only planners who discuss collaborating with partners as part of planning. Joel discusses the Educational Assistants Program which represents an aspect of collaborating with external partners. Joel explains:

...from the results of the survey we concluded there was enough support for it in the school system. We developed the curriculum...we had enormous registrations...

(Inter I, p.9, L.12-16).

Joel surveys stakeholders to: identify support for the program, identify learners' ascribed needs, provide an opportunity for stakeholders' input into planning, and create awareness of the program. The results of the survey support the concept of the program. Therefore, he concludes that this is a good basis for developing the program. Further, based on knowledge of the "history and background" of stakeholders' failed attempts to establish teachers' aides programs, Joel vigorously and cautiously undertakes additional strategies. The documentation process is extended. Instead of ending the data collection phase after
learners are surveyed at the conference, he branches out and broadens the scope of the documentation process.

Joel indicates the interest groups, who are unable to develop a program, are not included on the planning committee because they may undermine the process. However, they are given an opportunity to provide feedback through the questionnaire. He states: "I did not consult with them officially, as a body, because we did not want to leave the impression that we needed their approval..." He justifies this action on the basis that he is able to maintain control and power. He explains:

...I refuse to have representatives from the teachers' society or superintendents because they have been unable to produce certificates before and I did not want them...this is one reason we got so much flak...

(Inter I,11, L.32-35; p.12, L.1-5)

Joel's knowledge of the background and historical facts suggest that it may be risky to include stakeholders on the committee. This knowledge leads to the undemocratic decision to exclude representatives from these groups. Also, it leads to the failure to consider alternative planning strategies such as including these representatives in order to educate them. Consequently, he receives "flak" about the program in general, and more specifically about the "planning instruction" course.

Stakeholders carefully observe every planning move; therefore, defensible decisions in planning are required. However, the role of the community in planning is tangential. Joel does not form formal collaborative partnerships with these groups because he believes they may sabotage the process. He believes that, by excluding them from the committee but consulting them through the
questionnaire, he is able to develop and gain support for the program while maintaining control and power.

Netta, Liz and Erna discuss the nature of collaborating with external groups. Liz's discussion represents an aspect of this activity. Liz states:

...the institution approached me and said, 'would you be interested in running the program in our regional centres?'...we [the division] do the budget, hire, and pay instructors...they advertise through their flyers, and regional centres for us...the courses filled...they are doing very well...

(Inter IV, p.32, L.20-23; p.34, L.15-19)

Liz is approached by a member of another educational institution to collaborate in delivering, through its regional centres, the Educational Assistants Program to teachers' aides who live in rural parts of the province. The unit maintains control over the content, the program, the budget, and the selection and payment of instructors while the educational institution promotes the program through its regional centres. The unit relinquishes little control and gains economic benefits from this arrangement. Courses are filled with a maximum number of students. Further, when possible, instructors are drawn from rural areas. Liz insists that the collaborating institution:

...had some suggestions about instructors, they sent people, I interviewed, and hired them...

(Inter IV, p.34, L.7-9)

Inter-institutional collaboration is used in response to demands of the financial objectives of the mandate. This type of collaboration is a cosponsorship whereby the unit jointly offers the program with another agency for economic gains.
With respect to collaborating with internal partners, Erna discusses the French Language Program which represents the nature of strategies in which planners engage. Erna explains:

...I met the head of the department first officially...we met fairly formally on a limited number of occasions...I did a fair amount of research regarding admission regulations...I wrote a draft...the essence was the course requirements, core courses and elective courses...they recommended some minor changes...there was some negotiation...they insisted on certain criteria which I felt students would not be ready for...we negotiated until it was satisfactory...

(Inter V, p.28, L.13-16 II,p.10,L.30-34;p.11, L.6-8)

In this case, collaboration over the identification and justification of the content in the program includes a fair amount of research, risk taking, negotiating, and sharing of autonomy to arrive at a mutual agreement. Collaboration is a political and economic strategy to gain benefits.

3 Assessing Needs

With regard to assessing needs all planners except Netta discuss how ideas originate and the informal and formal needs assessment they use to validate them. Joel discusses the Educational Assistants Program which represents one approach. He explains that one method of originating ideas is to send clear messages to the community that the unit is open to suggestions. Based on this method, Joel agrees with the description of the situation which a consultant provides because of his knowledge of and experience in the system. He uses a number of strategies to investigate and validate this idea including: forming an advisory committee "...which consisted of a variety of people, planners, myself, a number of people from the community, and a teacher's aide" (Inter I, p.7, L.15-18); inviting input from the community;
consulting about the educational needs for a program; and concurring with the consultant's data analysis of the situation.

Further, Pete discusses the market analysis which Joel commissions. It is a formal strategy which identifies needs of the adult population. Since the university is located in the heart of the downtown core area, the market strategy analyzes businesses, educational providers, and the population in close proximity to the university. Knowledge is gathered from these sources to determine the nature of the job market and policy decisions related to education. Pete explains that the market analysis identifies learners' preferences for:

...schedule of programs, that is, weekends, weekday programs, general interest programs...and potential population of learners such as seniors, natives and immigrants...

(Inter I, p.2, L.1-4)

However, at the level of practice, programs which are provided are not aimed at seniors, aboriginals, and immigrants because these groups are unable to pay for programs. Based on deliberation in the situation over the economic objectives of the mandate, planners shape planning. Pete does not identify any programs for the core area groups. Rather, the Futures Studies Program is geared to individuals in business and industry who live outside the core area. Although he discusses a program for which the main recipients are aboriginals, these learners live outside the city, and the idea originates from the community which he describes as politically active and economically capable of paying for the program.

Planners use a variety of informal strategies to identify
learners' educational needs. Pete's discussion typifies the nature of these strategies. Pete collaborates with associations and organizations whose mandate is to certify the credentials and competence of their members. Pete stipulates:

...we are in touch with associations and organizations that license people, sanction their credentials and competence or otherwise certify persons in various professions, for example, nurses...We identify these, and develop training programs for these particular constituencies...

(Inter I, p.2, L.8-12)

Associations and organizations often provide educational programs for their members. Through collaboration with these groups, ideas are generated and programs are developed to meet members' educational needs. The strategy includes "...meeting with community based groups and individuals who were...leaders" (Inter I, p.2, L.5-7). Collaboration with stakeholders and leaders in the community is not intended as a virtue or social good but rather as an important strategy for generating ideas, assessing needs, and gaining benefits from the environment.

Further, Pete reports, "...the faculty, is yet another source...there is expertise and knowledge, we would often pull from..." (Inter I, p.2, L.13-15). Planners scrutinize faculty resources to originate ideas. Similarly, in regard to the Futures Studies Program, Pete presents a proposal to the dean. The idea is validated through an internal administrative mechanism but is not formally tested with the potential clientele before it is offered.

Pete, Erna, Liz, and Anna use informal needs assessment to validate the need. Erna's discussion of the Learning Strategies course represents these strategies. Erna states:
...there was no research done whatsoever, and I do not feel that it was necessary. It was not a big risk to take. I did not need any statistics to back it up because I could guarantee a minimum number...

(Inter I, p.14, L.31-34)

Erna believes that a formal needs assessment is not required in every situation. She recognizes the importance of the financial need of the unit but argues "...it was not a big risk to take" because she "...could guarantee a minimum number" without a formal needs assessment. She rationalizes that the purpose of research or statistics, that is, the needs assessment process, is to back up what she already knows, not necessarily to indicate what she ought to do. She explains:

...based on the needs of seven or eight...I put together a course, and that was enough justification for me. If anyone else attends it will prove there is a widespread appeal...I proved that there was widespread appeal and have offered it a couple of times...

(Inter IV, p.1, L.21-26)

Erna's deliberation in the situation over the commonplaces, suggests the need for a course on Learning Strategies. When the course is offered, more students enrol than is anticipated. The course is a validation of learners' felt need, and a trial balloon or needs assessment instrument to confirm a need. The offering of the course continues to be its own self justification upon which the decision is based. The fact that students enrol each time it is offered justifies the offering.

Moreover, these planners conduct ongoing informal needs assessment strategies to validate needs. They compile a list of inquiries from learners regarding the content, consult and establish linkages with associations and community groups which
appears to be the "key" to "successful" offerings, and use the market survey. These sources of information along with personal and or intuitive knowledge provide reliable knowledge which supports the hard data. However, Erna states that hard data are used merely as a formality to satisfy the administrative need of the system, the dean, of the educational need for a program or to substantiate what is already known.

This intuitive knowledge is intimate, personal knowledge which is gathered through experience gained from contact with learners, the context, the content, and self. Further, it is knowledge gained from informal strategies in planning programs: that is, through indirect and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self, and it is used to facilitate the decision making process. Erna explains:

...in terms of intuitive information, it is...based on personal encounters with students who say, 'this is what we need' or...I can see that from experience...

(Inter IV, p.1 L.12-15)

It is the active relationship which exists between the planner and the context whereby genuine knowledge and understanding are achieved through the support of experience and practice (Dewey, 1916). It speaks to the dialectical relationship of theory-practice which informs practice and facilitates the decision making process and "justification" for action.

In contrast, Joel is the only one who undertakes formal strategies to test ideas. In regard to the Educational Assistant Program, Joel forms a committee, conducts research of the area, offers a conference, and constructs and administers a questionnaire to survey potential learners. He states:
...we know that teachers' aides are going to be interested in this...let us run a conference for them. The response was overwhelming...the conference was designed specifically to get input from teachers' aides...We got 700 people. We did have a fairly detailed questionnaire to get their feedback on the conference itself, on whether they wanted more of these or not, whether they were interested in a certificate program. The feedback was very positive...

(Inter I, p.7, L.25-35; p.8, L.5-12)

The idea is validated through a survey of potential learners who attend the conference. Therefore, the conference is used to: solicit, by means of a questionnaire, learners' input regarding the nature of the program; provide professional development for teachers' aides; and determine the level of interest in a certificate program and an annual conference. Based on deliberation in the situation, Joel conducts a formal needs assessment to collect data to make decisions and justify actions. Joel indicates that teachers' aides express a positive interest in a program because, "...95% were in favour, and said, yes if you offer it, I will certainly go" (Inter I, p.8, L. 17-18).

There is an underlying synergism among contextual factors and planning which contributes to the generation and validation of ideas. Planners mediate data sources from the external and internal environment which include the market analysis, survey of learners, collaboration with associations and organizations, the history and mandate of the institution, the faculty's expertise and knowledge, and content of programs to identify and validate program ideas. Planners use procedural knowledge related to the rules and routines of planning for interpersonal communication.

4 Evaluating Programs

Evaluation is seen by all planners as a task which is integral
to planning. In this respect, it is a routine aspect which is done on a regular basis or is enacted based on a rule of practice or a policy. However, further probing of the task reveals that each planner initiates informal, non-routinized evaluation strategies, quite independent from the formal, summative, routinized end of course evaluation procedure. These are in response to a focus of concern in the situation. Joel's discussion typifies the nature of the formal and summative evaluation strategies. All courses and instructors are formally and routinely evaluated at the end of the program. Planners use a questionnaire to conduct the evaluation. However, because there is a rapid expansion of courses, this leads to increased numbers of instructors and students, decision making by planners, and workload on the office support system.

Further, on scrutinizing the evaluation procedure, Joel identifies a focus of concern which is that the questionnaire is far too extensive to be useful to practice because data are collected and filed without use. Therefore, the simple application of a procedure —to evaluate all courses under every circumstance—based on a rule of practice, is inappropriate given the particular situation. The routinization of a procedure contributes to mindless practice and is one way in which planners make their workload manageable. Because planners are inundated with data and have little time, they simply do not use the data. However, deliberation —mindful action and interaction— indicates that the evaluation procedure ought to be changed.

Joel undertakes strategies which include reviewing, revising, and repairing the existing questionnaire to make it useful and relevant to practice. Also, he institutes, as a guide to practice,
a new policy which states only new courses and instructors are to be evaluated. Joel says:

...the existing courses and instructors were evaluated only if we got negative feedback from students. That was our decision, if someone was upset about the course, they will let us know. That is when we did evaluations during the course. We would talk to the instructor, to find out what the problem was...

(Inter I, p.14, L.2-10)

Joel develops a very simple evaluation form to replace the existing extensive one. Although the policy decision is made in the interest of time and practicality and not necessarily in the interest of a notion of sound pedagogical practice, it is not applied indiscriminately. The policy mediates and is mediated by planning practice. Joel indicates that alternative evaluation strategies are implemented immediately in those cases in which there is negative feedback from students. Joel evaluates the teaching learning transaction during the delivery of the course, and discusses the results with instructors. Joel states:

...more courses were offered, more evaluations were done...You had to trust the judgement of your programmers to read, evaluate, and make a decision...

(Inter I, p.13, L.30-35)

Planners use their judgement as to why, when, and how to undertake alternative evaluation strategies, because the practice situation is complex, uncertain, and unique.

Moreover, planners' actions and decisions are based on a notion of a desirable state of affairs, and an appropriate level of practice related to the commonplaces which lead to the initiation of a variety of evaluation strategies. Thus, a focus of concern which may be a "...bad report about one instructor, who was
insensitive to the cultural background of students who said he was racist" (InterI, p.9, L.22-35), leads to extensive, informal, formative, non-routinized/eclectic strategies. Pete conducts pencil and paper tests, pre and post test methods, and an ethnographic study to gain access to learners' experiences in the course. Also, he uses students' evaluations of instructors, a review of students' tests scores and examination papers, and problem solving meetings with instructors, learners, and the coordinator.

Similarly, Netta undertakes formative evaluation strategies in regard to the foci of concern to have "...something on which to base an evaluation", and to ensure that learners provide "open and honest responses" on the evaluation forms. Netta reports:

...we did not feel they were open and honest responses, so we made them confidential...like the university, we had the instructor ask for a student volunteer. The instructor left...and students returned them in an envelope and placed them in a box assigned for that purpose. We had all kinds of things on the evaluation...

(Inter I, p.29, L.16-20).

The system of administering evaluation does not offer confidentiality; thus, the information on the evaluation is limited in usefulness about the teaching learning transaction. Netta gathers this understanding by scrutinizing the evaluation procedures, "eyeballing" the types of responses learners provide, and holding informal discussions with learners. Further, she uses her knowledge of procedures and policies which govern the academic environment of the university to revise and modify the evaluation procedure.

This knowledge is gained through her extensive experience from
working in other departments at the university. She develops and implements a new procedure, which parallels one used in the university, to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of learners' responses. Based on these strategies, Netta ensures that students provide "open and honest responses" to questions on the end of course evaluation which they complete regarding the commonplaces. She ensures data from the evaluation are sufficient information upon which to make judgements about the worth of the program.

In addition, Netta conducts classroom observation of instructors. Her discussion represents the nature of the activities in which planners engage:

...the first thing to do is...to talk to them about how they are presenting this in the classroom. 'How do you break up a six week class?', when?, why do you do that?'...Then go to the class and find out how they are teaching the content and discuss with them on an individual basis how they teach. Whether they do any group work...simply flip overheads, or bring in guest speakers. Some of them heavily rely on guest speakers and do little themselves...that we discourage...The next step, because that has heightened their awareness of what you are concerned about...when they are forced to talk about how they are presenting the entire course, is an important step...before you [observe]...

(Inter I, p.32, L.20-27; p.33, L.2-22)

Formal written evaluation strategy, informal discussions with instructors followed by formal classroom observations of instructors and more discussions form part of the evaluation strategies. Before the actual observation of the instructor's classroom teaching, Netta undertakes evaluation activities which include informal discussions with instructors about how the content is presented, and methods used to deliver it.

Discussions with instructors about how they plan to deliver a
course, before the actual delivery of the course, is an important component of evaluation. This encourages instructors to think about "why" and "when" regarding the delivery of the content. Observation of instructors' classroom teaching is a confirmation of instructors' plan of action for teaching the course. Moreover, the observation strategy confirms that instructors implement their plan of action, and the planner observes that the plan is enacted. Evaluation strategies provide data before, during, and after the teaching of the course, and from instructors', learners', and planners' view about the commonplaces. These views enable planners to gain understanding and make defensible decisions.

Similarly, Erna initiates activities to describe the problem-need related to the mandate to "...switch from a pass-fail system to a grading system and have some more formal system" in place. Erna improves the situation based on a notion of desirable practice. Erna states:

I spent a year working on different kinds of evaluations. I spent a tremendous amount of time stating objectives in each level, giving concrete examples, testing it out on students...There is more research available in French, that is our usual starting point...I took a course at the university on evaluation...

(Inter III, p.4, L.3-6; p.6, L.2-15)

Evaluation strategies related to planning include: research the evaluation literature; test various methods of evaluation such as student self evaluation, pass-fail, and interactive testing which is the completion of an assignment by a group of students and the evaluation of each student in the group by the instructor and students in the group; offer professional development on the topic of evaluation to instructors; complete a course on evaluation; and
talk to students.

In addition, Liz and Anna undertake independent evaluation activities because of a problem-need. On the one hand, Liz identifies the focus of concern. On the other hand, Anna responds to the focus of concern. Liz undertakes these activities because she feels "...it is one way of ensuring that we do in fact have good instructors, it is one way of keeping in touch with what the instructors are doing". While Anna states that, "...if there were some signs that the course was in trouble, then I might do an independent telephone survey".

Anna's discussion represents the nature of activities related to procedural knowledge which planners hold and use in planning. Anna undertakes strategies in regard to her "great concern" for the high drop out rate of 50% from a course. She observes the unhappiness and frustration that the instructor and students experience which she believes are a result of the large class size which inhibits communication. She explains:

...the survey [the information gathered] would be to ostensibly find out about various aspects of their dealings with the division...the course description, the presentation, the physical setting, were the rooms acceptable?, how were they treated by the division staff, and the registration process? How did they feel about the instructor? That way I would be able to get an overall view...

(Inter I, p.5, L.10-16)

Anna conducts a survey that involves questions related to the commonplaces such as: what are instructors' knowledge, abilities, and sensitivities? is the presentation of the content appropriate? is the learning environment supportive of learners? and are the administrative arrangements, admission and registration procedures
flexible? Regarding the purposes of evaluation Joel indicates "...before we rehired an instructor we would look at the evaluation results and if there was a significant number of 'no, I will not recommend the instructor', we would not hire them" (Inter I, p.14, L.1-6). The purposes of evaluation strategies are to gather data which are useful and relevant, to improve practice, and to facilitate decisions.

5 Promoting and Marketing Programs

Promoting and marketing programs include activities and decisions related to budgeting, developing a directory, and alternative strategies to increase awareness of and participation in programs. Netta explains that all planners are responsible for these activities; as well as for initiating separate promotional strategies. Netta's and Liz's discussions typify the nature of these activities. Netta states:

...part of what officers and directors have to do is write what goes into the directory...This was the first opportunity we had to re-vamp everything. The officer and I re-examined the entire marketing budget which was around $100,000...including newspaper, t.v., and the directory which we mailed out three times a year...

(Inter I, p.12, L.13-21)

Before undertaking these tasks, she reviews all promotional and marketing strategies, and the budget in light of costs and benefits which lead to re-vamping the promotion and marketing strategy. Netta explains:

...we produced one calendar. This provides more flexibility, if you are trying to plan an annual budget, how can you do that if you are changing courses all the time...we said there must be one budget for the year and one calendar, if you want to add a course, do targeted mailings...We did one mailing and told people ...they have to keep this academic calendar. Then we went to a timetable, so when anyone telephoned we sent a timetable.
It was less expensive, it is just sound decision making...

(Inter I, p.12, L.22-35; p.13, L.1-18)

Netta argues that an efficient and cost effective means to promote and market programs is to produce one directory rather than three and find other creative and inexpensive strategies. Thus, the directory is supplemented by a less expensive one sheet timetable which is mailed to students upon request, and learners are advised to retain the directory for future use.

Liz develops separate promotion and marketing strategies for the English as a Second Language Program. Liz states:

...where students do not read...I had to look at alternative ways of advertising. I advertised in some ethnic newspapers...cultural associations and organizations who deal with people who speak English as a second language. I compiled a list...based on calls. I started sending to larger institutions, training and development departments, because feedback supports what I did. The programs have grown...so I think that has been worthwhile...

(Inter III, p.19, L.8-25)

Liz suggests that the traditional print based methods (the directory and the newspaper advertisements) used to promote and market the programs, were not reaching her clientele. To assure participation, it was necessary to implement alternative, creative strategies which include: compiling a mailing list of associations and organizations in the ethnic community; initiating telephone inquiries to relevant groups; mailing directly to specific training and development departments; and supplementing direct mailing by personal contacts to various groups. Liz indicates:

...I perceived I could approach my job, by making contact with people in the ethnic community and dealing with them directly and saying what are your needs?...
Because of the mandate for cost recovery, the nature of content, learners, and context, planners develop alternative strategies to market and promote programs. Thus, planners develop knowledge of and a working relationship with the learners' community as a means to market and promote programs.

6 Developing the Curriculum

Planners undertake activities and decisions related to developing the curriculum. They identify and select instructors, content, and objectives; conduct interviews; hold orientation sessions; and nurture instructors through professional development and classroom observation.

6.1 Identify and Select Instructors

The tasks to identify and select instructors and content are interrelated. However, for purposes of analysis, these tasks are dealt with separately. Joel discusses the nature of activities associated with this task. Two strategies are used. Advertisements are placed in newspapers to invite instructors to apply to teach, and those who apply are interviewed. However, although these strategies are routinized parts of planning, they are often mediated by planners' knowledge of the planning context, educational philosophy, values, and beliefs which suggest the non routinized nature of planning, and the dialectic nature of planners' knowledge.

Joel describes specific strategies he undertakes in regard to the Educational Assistant Program. He does not advertise because a list of instructors is generated by "word of mouth" and from a list of speakers at a conference held for teachers' aides.
Further, a short list of instructors is created based on interviews. The hiring process is shortened. The advertising phase is deleted, and the interviewing phase commences based on a list of "highly qualified educators" and those who apply directly because of word of mouth. This strategy suggests that planners use an adaptive intelligence in planning. Planners modify the routinized planning strategy because practice situations are unique, uncertain, and complex.

Similarly, Pete does not use routinized strategies of advertising and interviewing to identify and select instructors. In regard to the Futures Studies Program, Pete uses a formal committee structure to accomplish the planning tasks. Pete reported that he undertook a directive planning role which includes a number of simultaneous informal and formal strategies. Because of his intimate knowledge of the content and a vision of the expansion of the program, he initiates the development of the program and defines the nature of the working relationship.

He discusses the content with faculty, meets with people in government, business, and industry who use futures research, justifies the program to the dean, and identifies a group of people, who are knowledgeable and committed, to work on a committee to plan the program. A committee of content experts identifies appropriate faculty to teach, identifies and selects the content, and markets and advertises the program. However, with respect to the Gasper Program, Pete holds meetings with community members to ensure there is consensual understanding regarding instructors' knowledge, abilities, and sensitivities, the content and purposes of the program, the nature of the program, the community
leadership's purposes for the program, and learners' educational felt needs.

Netta and Erna discuss the task of identifying and selecting instructors in terms of the criteria they use in a formal interview process. Netta interviews and holds an orientation for instructors. The orientation strategy supports the notion that the focal point of Netta's practice is rules and routines of planning. Netta explains that planning includes:

...an orientation to tell them what were the policies and procedures and what to do and not to do. Some training about what the university is all about...give some general information on what programs we offer, what we are trying to do with our certificates, if their course is a part of that...

(Inter I, p.32, L. 1-9)

The orientation is a strategy to familiarize instructors with: policies, procedures, and goals which govern the unit; information on programs, the course to be taught and how it fits within the program; and learners' characteristics, and motivation for participation. Netta states:

...the only way you are going to get a commitment to your institution is if instructors feel that they are important. They are like your other staff. If they...understand how their courses fit into a curriculum or program and if they understand what the university is trying to do...have a sense of what the student body is...why they are coming...

(Inter I, p.32, L.12-20)

The orientation strategy ensures that instructors are committed to rules and routines of the institution, feel part of the staff and are team players. Further, they must have an understanding of the nature of learners, and the mission of the unit.

Erna, Liz, and Anna use interviews, classroom observation, and
nurture instructors through regular meetings, and professional development programs which support the view that their practice is shaped by a communicative philosophy, a learner-centered approach to planning. Erna discusses the nature of these activities. Erna explains that the interview is a two stage process. Stage one gathers the "usual" information which pertains to instructors' knowledge, abilities, and their experience with teaching adults. Stage two evaluates instructors on their personality, educational values and beliefs, pedagogical knowledge, and abilities.

Erna undertakes "less formal" short term strategies. She contacts "...heritage organizations and associations" to locate potential instructors, "...checks references", and requires instructors to observe language classes. Instructors are asked to submit proposals, and when instructors are known, they are given a contract to teach because "...they were people who had taught before and I felt very happy with their...competence".

Moreover, Erna, Liz, and Anna indicated they provide professional development and classroom observation to nurture the beliefs and values of the communicative approach. These strategies were discussed as part of the agenda items during the two participant observation meetings. Policy issues related to the provision of the professional development workshops, and an exchange of ideas related to the process of conducting classroom observation informed these discussions. Erna's discussion during the interviews represents the nature of these strategies:

...regular meetings in small groups and individual meetings of all language instructors are held...at least once a session...we have regular professional development meetings...we bring in guest lecturers or have a workshop on a new teaching technique...
The long term strategies which are formalized as part of planning are: nurture instructors through ongoing regular group and individual meetings, and hold regular professional development workshops on new teaching techniques. Classroom observations are also an integral part of the interview process because Erna, Liz, and Anna are concerned with the communicative philosophy as it relates to instructors' pedagogical knowledge and abilities. Erna discusses the observation strategy:

...three-hour classes are used...so they can...be on some familiar base with students...help the teacher in the small group work...we had an instructor who had an excellent rapport with students but was missing planning skills, that was obvious in the teaching demonstration...

One of the purposes of the classroom observation is to identify whether instructors have the necessary pedagogical knowledge, skills, and abilities. She stipulates:

...I have asked the instructor to do lesson planning, to observe classes of teachers who are very good at organization...and then to do a half course...where the instructor will team teach...the instructor was versed in the communicative approach...had appropriate skills for dealing with people in the classroom...and knowledge, but not the methods...

Erna argues that instructors may be versed in the communicative approach which informs language teaching, have a good rapport with students, have content knowledge, but may not have good pedagogical knowledge, skills, and abilities. The planner may recognize this through classroom observation, and recommend classroom observation of other teachers, and team teaching. A multiple rather than a single solution approach to planning is used. However, formal
interviews and full scale classroom observations are not used on every occasion. Erna explains:

...I have had people walk into my office and I thought this is a great teacher, I would hire them, lessen the observation time or observe them during the process...everyone is observed, they are aware of that from the start...

(Inter II, p.8, L.16-24)

Planners modify the formal interview and classroom observation strategy. They hire instructors based on informal discussions and their tacit knowledge. If an instructor is required immediately and there is little time to interview or observe, the instructor is hired and observed during classroom teaching.

Joel uses a formal interview process to identify instructors' personal and pedagogical qualities which include: "outgoing, understanding personality", and applicants' values and beliefs about education, teaching and learning, knowledge, and learners. The interview is mediated by his personal educational philosophy which includes "personality mostly" and knowledge of the content. Although knowledge of the content is the first criterion, personality, which he characterizes as "people person", is as important a criterion, and refers to one who stimulates and facilitates learning. (Inter I, p.15, L.5-21)

6.2 Identify and Select Content

With regard to identifying and selecting content, planners undertake a number of strategies. Pete's, Anna's, and Netta's discussions draw conceptually on the content approach to this task, while Erna's, Liz's and Joel's discussions represent the learner perspective to the task. Pete's discussion typifies the problem-situation approach to the task.
6.2.1 Content Approach

Pete develops the Futures Studies Program because of his belief in the importance of the body of knowledge to be passed on, and his desire to ensure that it is presented in an unbiased manner. Pete forms a working committee to identify and select the content. The committee consists of the content specialists from the university faculty and practitioners in the field. Planning does not include a role for learners, rather the planner "...worked with both instructors to develop the syllabus".

Further, because of his knowledge of and involvement in the whole area of futures studies, Pete has "...ideas about the nature of a good reading list". As "a member of the futures society", he receives "books and periodicals" which contribute to "his library on the topic". He collects "syllabuses from universities" which offer programs in futures studies. Pete is a resource to instructors and the committee in identifying and selecting the content. However, Pete indicates that "... ultimately instructors made the decision about the content" (Inter I. p.17, L.4-19). This view of knowledge is that of a body which is to be delivered to learners, and is consistent with a fixed view of knowledge in the content model of planning.

Similarly, Anna is concerned with the gap in the oral and phonetic structure of the language and the need to pass on a complete body of knowledge. She explains that based on discussions with instructors about the content and learners, specific requirements are established for courses. In the Writing for a Journal course, learners are expected to have a good grasp of English because of the level and nature of the course. Therefore,
a prerequisite is specified so that learners are aware of the requirement. She indicates:

...this was an area, especially with the background and experience that the instructor had, where he would be the best judge of the course outline...my decision was to wait and see what the evaluation showed...

(Inter I, p.4, L.24-27)

The instructor has the necessary knowledge and abilities to make decisions about what ought to be included in the content. Anna decides to wait for data from course evaluations. Planning is content focused. She relies on the content specialist to identify and select the content, and define the nature of the course. In regard to the course, Refine Your Accent, she states:

...there is no course outline, it is based on a book that helps people recognize the relationship between written French and oral pronunciation of the language. That is in lieu of an outline...I chose the text, there were excellent materials available, the rest was up to the instructor to deliver...

(Inter I, p.21, L.13-21)

Anna, like Pete, assumes a directive role to identify and select the content of the course because she is knowledgeable about the content. She develops a course outline based on a text which delineates the oral and phonetic structure of the language. However, once the outline is developed, it is the instructors' responsibility to select and deliver the content. Planning is content focused.

In like manner, Netta undertakes strategies related to the content which include: "to repair" with the aim of improving the existing programs. She reports:

...to repair a course you have to say, 'does it fit into the program? Is there a gap?'...it [repairing] was a combination of many things...talking with instructors I
said, 'what should be covered if someone were to walk away from this program, what should they know?'...We listed topics...instructors, people from the organizations, and myself. We itemized them and said what is appropriate to go into these courses?...

(Inter I, p.23, L.26-35)

Although her planning is content focused as it relates to the commonplaces, the impetus for planning is her concern over the efficiency and effectiveness of programs. Thus, Netta's planning is technically focused. Moreover, there are consequences to these decisions and actions. Netta states:

...because we changed the curriculum, we had to tell students if you took this you have to have supplementary readings or grandfather some students... we had a body of knowledge that we felt was appropriate and yet it was not in the program...We had to say are we going to have a course, a seminar, a workshop, or a project, to acquire this knowledge...

(Inter I, p.24, L.1-35)

Netta explains that in the repair of existing programs, questions are re-defined within the context of current learners, their work situation, changing needs in the job market, and instructors.

Planners conduct strategies or "...a combination of many things" over the body of knowledge. Formal and informal meetings, regarding the content, are held with content specialists, instructors, organizational representatives, and practitioners in the field. The purposes of these meetings are to determine: the nature of the program, the knowledge and abilities of learners, the prerequisite of the course, the repair of the program, the appropriateness of the content for learners in the context, the current and future desirable level of knowledge, an itemized list of important topics, and a course outline to cover the missing critical "body of knowledge".
6.2.2 Problem-Situation Approach

In regard to the Gasper Program, Pete implements strategies which suggest a problem-focused view of planning. Pete holds meetings with community stakeholders to define the nature of the program, hire and screen instructors, hire advisors and tutors as instructional supports, arrange to deliver the program on the reserve, and ensure the program addresses learners' felt needs. These needs are negotiated with learners in conjunction with the leadership. Pete explains:

...the discussion was how do we get our folks into the university and get solid training?...community colleges and institutions that offer technological and vocational training had programs in place for a long time that were aimed mainly at aboriginals. Or there were programs at the university which were narrowly focused such as social work or education. Folks on this reserve were interested in a university education first of all, with the opportunity to go into a variety of other areas...they wanted...a classical liberal education...the initiative was very much their own. We had to bend, manipulate, and cajole the bureaucracy...

(Inter I, p.6, L.1-12)

Pete suggests that technological and vocational programs, which community colleges offer mainly for aboriginal students, do not meet their educational needs. They narrow their educational options and reduce their economic opportunities. Even the university programs do not meet the needs of these students, because programs are too narrowly focused. Pete explains the process over which the content is identified and selected:

...this reserve is a very active, engaged aboriginal community and the hierarchy wanted to see certain things in these courses...They wanted specific outcomes ...They had specific objectives. The instructors, the coordinator, not the chief himself, would negotiate the curriculum...

(Inter I, p.8, L.8-15)
A formal process of negotiation with the leadership, instructors, representatives of the learners, and the planner occurs concerning the content and delivery of content. Stakeholders know what they want to include in the curriculum. Their hidden political agenda is not only to foster a sense of pride in their people but also to gain access to knowledge and power which they believe will enable them to be in control of their destiny. The overriding goal of the program is social change within the parameters of the existing social structures. Pete reports:

"...the leadership and our people spent large amounts of time with each prospective student, so they knew what students were interested in, what their background was. The students were counselled, there was an assessment of their reading abilities to take a university course. The people who were making decisions about the curriculum knew what they were getting into...knew what the students needed, they had a list of objectives..."

(Inter I, p.8, L.16-25)

Learners are counselled, and their level of knowledge and abilities are identified in collaboration with the leadership and the planner. Based on this analysis, a list of topics is developed which is negotiated with instructors. Planning involves negotiating with the community including learners and instructors to identify educational needs and to ensure that instructors understand what these are. The nature of planning has implications for a view of knowledge which is socially constructed rather than a body of knowledge to be passed on.

The program is held on the reserve which is not only supportive, but also provides a support system. This entails hiring other supports, such as a resident coordinator, to coordinate and schedule the work of instructors and students, and
providing tutorial and counselling to learners. Pete indicates, "...all this had to go through the typical university bureaucracy".
The on-site coordinator assumes responsibility for the management of the program once decisions are made regarding: courses to be offered, the sequence in which they are offered, and the appropriate class size. Pete states:

...this reserve has an infrastructure in place and there were different people in the community who also had certain skills and they could be called upon...The whole community supported it...

(Inter I, p.9, L.1-5)

One reason for holding the program on the reserve is to provide a supportive and comfortable learning environment, where learners receive personal, emotional, and educational supports. Learners are not up-rooted from their families and community but receive the support of the community and an on-site tutor-counsellor. Planning includes negotiating and collaborating with the leadership, learners, and instructors to define the program whose central foci are learners' felt and ascribed needs, and the community's long term educational, economic and political goals.

6.2.3 Learner Approach

Joel, Liz, and Erna use a learner-centered approach to planning. Joel discusses the nature of this approach with respect to identifying and selecting the content. Joel identifies a problem-need among aboriginal students in a program; therefore, he initiates the design and development of the Native Students Program and carries it out to its fruition. He states:

...aboriginal students were...unsuccessful and many never finished the year...we identified their need. The concept
of the program was to address the basic problems of aboriginal students who lived in the inner city and attended the school. One was lack of self confidence, academic background, and culture base. I discovered by talking to aboriginal students they lacked knowledge and understanding of their own culture, were ashamed of being aboriginals, they thought everyone looked down on them...

(Inter I, p.1, L.23-27; p.2, L.18-23)

Joel develops the program to address the needs of aboriginal students because he discovers a number of problems by talking with them, and by observing their poor academic performance. Students are unsuccessful and many never finished the year because they are new to the city, are not used to academic studies, and are learning the white man's culture and values. These do not give them pride in their own culture, of which they appear to have little knowledge. To provide an enriched program of studies in a supportive learning environment, Joel states:

...the program I designed, was a Native Students Program, with Cree, Saultaux... Native Studies, and Native Law. We hired a program coordinator-counsellor and teacher who was an aboriginal lady...

(Inter I, p.1, L.27-30)

Joel identifies, selects, and develops courses related to native studies, and hires an aboriginal instructor because of the nature of learners, content to be delivered, and context of the program. Further, since a rule stipulates that learners are required to take the core content to meet the academic requirements of the university, the core content is maintained.

In regard to the English as a Second Language Program, Liz analyzes the client system and the environmental context from data sources including others, the task, and self (her "experience" based on personal knowledge of the field), and she surveys learners
in the program to get a sense of:

...who are my students, are they studying at another institution?, are they working?...what is their background in English?...

(Inter I, p.20, L.4-20)

She had had no experience with needs assessment and through trial and error "...realized that questionnaires require a lot of time". She determines needs by developing a profile of learners (Inter I, p.20, L.20-28). From contextual analysis, Liz states:

...these programs do not address this issue, this need...I focused on what was lacking...it is English that is not provided by the government that is free of charge...they provided basic to intermediate programs and some advanced but not as advanced as ours...which have a specific focus...

(Inter I, p.14, L.11-16; p.15, L.25-30; p.16, L.15-18)

Because of the economic mandate it makes sense to offer a program to fill this gap. This intention also reflects Liz's values and beliefs to provide relevant and useful programs that meet learners' felt and ascribed educational needs. In addition to surveying learners, she also compiles a list of "calls" she receives from learners. These data sources provide a good sense of programs which are offered, so that she is able to determine the knowledge gap in programs and concurrently learners' felt educational needs. These data are transformed into knowledge to understand the situation. Liz reports:

...all these things combine, they were just ideas...I could see that because students would finish the programs by the government, were in special training programs, started work, and were having problems because their English was not good enough...

(Inter I, p.14, L.19-32)

Based on this analysis, Liz believes that she knows learners, the
programs they have taken, and the gaps in the system and their knowledge. Learners participate because they want relevant and useful programs. She determines this from observing: problems learners experience in the classroom; the nature of inquiries she receives about specific courses; the community and what others provide; and the survey she conducts.

Further, because there is a gap in existing programs, it makes good economic sense to offer a program to fill the gap. However, Liz surveys learners because of her concern to know who they are, and to ensure programs are relevant and useful to them. Liz's "growth" metaphor that the program and hence learners "blossomed" is consistent with her learner-centered approach to planning, and her educational philosophy.

6.2.4 Identify and Select Objectives

Pete, Joel, Liz, and Erna discuss the role of objectives in planning. Pete's approach in regard to the Futures Studies Program is consistent with a content-centered focus; Joel's and Liz's approach draws on a learner-centered view of planning; and Erna's approach draws conceptually on both a learner and content-centered view. Pete states that a detailed description of the Futures Studies Program includes what students are expected to accomplish:

...the students know what they were taking. We [the committee] produced a very comprehensive statement of what the courses were, a set of course descriptions, and a sampling of what students would study...

(Inter I, p.18, L.7-9)

Pete indicates that the committee produces a comprehensive statement of what is to be covered which includes goals of the
courses, an outline of topics, and descriptions of the content. Although there are no behavioural objectives, the overall goals of the program serve as objectives. Pete views objectives as an expansion of course outlines which guide what students study, rather than criteria to measure whether objectives have been achieved. He recognizes them as an inherent part of planning which draws conceptually on the role of objectives in the academic model. This approach is consistent with Pete's content-centered planning in regard to the Futures Studies Program.

Joel's and Liz's discussions of this task represent a learner-centered approach to planning. In regard to the Native Studies Program, Joel indicates that based on discussion with learners and observation of their academic performance, he conducts non-routinized strategies such as reviewing, revising, changing, and expanding the existing "objectives" of the program to accommodate learners' educational needs. Objectives are defined as program goals rather than criteria to measure behaviour. Planning includes:

...objectives which were to develop a sense of confidence, self worth, and to place students in a position where they did not have to take exclusively the white man's subjects. They would have options... which allowed them to meet the curriculum requirements, but these were options that would do something for them. If they wanted to take a course in Cree it was available...

(Inter I, p.2, L.23-29)

Joel develops a strategy to change the situation for aboriginal students in the program which includes tasks that ensure that they successfully complete the program, and gain a sense of confidence and self worth. The core content of the existing program is maintained to ensure that learners meet the requirements of the
curriculum which allow them to compete on the same terms as other students. Learners have to take the required core courses which provide the academic background they require to gain entry into the university. To this end, the goals of the program are to: address learners' ascribed and felt educational needs to acquire the academic knowledge to be successful, and develop their "confidence" and "self worth". Therefore, the objectives of the program are expanded to include courses in "Cree", "Saultaux", "Native Studies", and "Native Law".

Similarly, Liz uses a learner-centered approach in regard to the English as a Second Language Program. She explains:

...there may be objectives but most of them are not written. Courses all have the same objectives, to improve students' English language skills...

(Inter V, p.31, L.32)

There are no written objectives, but objectives are implicitly understood by instructors, learners, and planner. Perhaps because of the nature of the content, objectives are implicit within the program itself. Liz believes that the lack of written objectives is not a problem:

...there were no specific objectives, but objectives are there, obviously you cannot work within a void, but I...am assuming that objectives that instructors have are the same that I and the students have...

(Inter V, p.32, L. 13-17)

Further, she believes that although objectives are not explicitly stated they are implicitly understood. She assumes that instructors and learners hold the same objective as she, which is "...to improve students' English language skills". She argues as long as learners improve, which is the goal of the program,
instructors and students have achieved the objectives. For her, objectives are not ends in and of themselves but rather they are means, "a process" by which learners "improved". She states:

...So for me that is a response that the objectives are being met, in terms of goals, it is like the goal is a process. The goal is for them to talk...to write. So just by the very fact that they do, we are reaching the goals, very general, and they are that broad, so really and truly, in my mind, if students are speaking the goal is being met...

(Inter V, p.33, L.1-12)

Objectives are broad goals which are part of the program. Liz argues that there are checks and balances in the learning environment to ensure that these broad goals are met. Upon entering the program "...the teacher assesses students and they are put in the introductory", a level which is deemed appropriate for them. Upon completion of the program, "...there is a very informal assessment" to determine if they have gained the required knowledge and abilities (Inter V, p.32, L.18-24).

Liz "formally" speaks to instructors to determine if students have completed the requirements of the program. She states that students' evaluations of programs indicate whether they have achieved the goals of the program. Liz believes that although objectives are implicitly interwoven into the design of the program, and are "process" rather than product-oriented, they are achieved. Moreover, Liz argues that objectives are undesirably restricting:

...I wanted to leave it open so instructors are not restricted by particular objectives...if we restrict ourselves too much the very beauty of the program will be lost...the ability to provide students with an opportunity...under the guidance of an instructor, to write, talk, correct, and guide discussion...
Liz suggests that behavioural objectives are not explicitly written because of the nature of learners, the content of the program, and instructors. Learners "...vary so much in their background, level of education, first language, and reason for participating". Mostly, they participate to speak the language, so programs are conversational in nature. The "process" of speaking and improving in the classroom is in and of itself an objective. As such neither instructors nor learners are restricted by objectives and criteria to measure if objectives are achieved.

Liz argues that the important factors are: learners are learning and improving; instructors are able to assess this is the case; and the planner confirms that this is the case based on discussion with instructors and scan of students' evaluation forms. Moreover, Liz suggests:

...objectives are just meaningless words that people want to get written down...'we cannot do that because that is not one of the objectives'...if learners want to learn about X because it is not on the curriculum, why not teach X...so not having them written down is not a problem...

She believes formal written objectives may inhibit the natural learning process which occurs because of the synergism in the learning environment. Objectives may be used in a negative way to prevent learning in other related areas. The important factor is that learning and teaching occur. Liz indicates:

...in terms of the Educational Assistants Program the goals and objectives are on the first page of the brochure. I do not remember the last time I looked at them...all I know is that students are taught...they are saying this is what we need...and I am telling instructors, listen to your students...
The written formal goals and objectives are included in the brochure for promotional and administrative purposes. They do not provide direction to planning; rather, deliberations over the commonplaces determines whether the broad or general goals are met. Further, the goals and objectives are so "all inclusive" that they provide little guidance to instructors. In her view, objectives are part of the process of learning.

In contrast, Erna places more emphasis on objectives as a guide to practice. She states:

...when the programs were much smaller there were no objectives set down...a group of people would get together with an instructor and between them they would define what they wanted to learn...that was a very informal agreement and it was based on a pass-fail system...

Erna believes that the size of program has determined the role of objectives. When there was a small number of offerings, there was an informal process. There were no written objectives, because instructor and learners define objectives at an informal level, that is, what is to be learned, and how it is to be learned and evaluated.

Erna feels that the flexibility and informality, are lost with the expansion of the program. In a small program, instructors have "...complete freedom to respond to the needs of the students". However, the expansion and the nature of programs necessitate the formalization of objectives in planning. The purpose of objectives is to ensure that "...students meet certain requirements before they proceed to the next level and function easily", and that
instructors are accountable and responsible for ensuring that learners have mastered the content. "It has become essential to have objectives written down". They are a necessary part of Erna's planning (Inter V, p.13, L.22-27).

Erna maintains that in smaller programs the informal approach is maintained. However, in larger programs, in which there is a need to assess if learners have mastered the content before moving on to the next level, a more formal process is used whereby objectives are institutionalized within planning. Objectives serve the function of assessment and control from one level to next. Erna states:

...I see another planner does not have objectives but runs 10 courses versus 40-50 that I run...the planner might have a little more flexibility built into that program...It is an important part of the process...there must be objectives for the sake of students. I am thinking of concrete functional and linguistic objectives which are written into the curriculum. There are unspoken objectives as well. The communicative philosophy is an objective which is not written down...it is an attitude towards language learning and towards learners...

(Inter V, p.14, L.2-16)

Erna thinks that objectives are an important part of teaching and learning. Besides written objectives, she says there are "unspoken" objectives which are inherent in the communicative philosophy. This is a learner-centered approach to language teaching. However, there appears to be a subtle shift from a learner to a content-centered approach: it is important to master the content at one level before proceeding to the next level. This takes precedence over meeting learners' needs and holding them as central to teaching and learning.

Objectives are an integral part of the language
program. She states, "...functional objectives are those students handle upon conclusion of courses; while linguistic objectives... students are required to master. For example, the present tense... instructors are free to add to these." Thus, functional and linguistic objectives are an inherent component of language courses. There are unwritten suggested objectives within the communicative philosophy. Instructors are free to revise these. To facilitate this process, she holds "...a series of meetings with instructors" to review and revise objectives with a view to assessing their appropriateness for each level (Inter III, p.4, L.26-34).

6.2.5 Role of Learners

Planners discuss learners' role in planning. Joel's discussion, related to the Educational Assistants Program, typifies an aspect of this role. Joel explains that learners' involvement in planning is accomplished as follows:

...most of the input we got from teachers' aides on the committee...one person cannot speak for all teachers' aides, the entire group. We had their input through the questionnaires. We...made it clear that anyone who registered for the program and had problems to let us know so that we can make adjustments...

(Inter I, p.10, L.16-23)

Learners' input in decisions is acquired in at least three ways. At the beginning of planning, questionnaires are used to seek learners' input about what should be included in the program. Although Joel recognizes that "...one person cannot speak for all teachers' aides" a student, whose role is to represent students' perspective, is included on the committee. At the end of each course, learners complete the evaluation forms about classroom
instruction. Further, learners are encouraged to provide feedback if there is a problem. Joel states:

...most of the students took advantage of this opportunity...students in rural areas wanted credits for what they had taken through their school divisions, so we made that possible. We had some transfer credit regulations that were asinine...there was one that said, 'if you had taken a program elsewhere and it was approved by the program officer in charge, it could be credited to the program'...the rules did not allow people to get credit...once they were in the program. There were little kinks that you would get in any program when it is designed, we adjusted...

(Inter I, p.10, L.25-35)

Some problems occur as a result of regulations regarding the program. Thus, the planner is required to adjust the rules to accommodate students' needs. Joel suggests that this is not an uncommon occurrence because whenever a new program is designed there are always some "kinks" to be worked out. For instance, a course which is completed at another institution is granted "transfer credit" if the course is equivalent in contact hours and content to a course in the program. However, there was a "kink" in the regulation which prevented students from receiving the "transfer credit" for eligible work completed at another institution after they were in the program. Procedural knowledge which governs planning, that is, rules about what content may be transferred into the program and under what conditions, is adjusted to meet learners' needs.

Based on deliberation, Joel modifies planning. He revises and reverses the particular transfer credit goal to allow students, who have completed the course outside the institution but with the planner's prior approval, to receive the transfer credit. The planner has to "adjust" the transfer credit regulation. Learners'
role in developing the Educational Assistants Program is formal, integrated, and ongoing. At the beginning of planning, a questionnaire gathers learners' input. A student sits on the advisory committee which is formed to develop the program. As well, students' input, through evaluation forms, is sought during and at the end of courses.

Erna, Liz and Anna describe the students' role within the context of the communicative approach, a system of values and beliefs regarding language teaching which informs their practice and teaching language programs. These planners, who are all members of the language team, agree that their approach to planning revolves around learners. It is a learner-centered approach. Erna reports:

…it all revolves around learners…my attitude is that we serve, we would be nowhere without learners. All other factors are planned to best serve learners…when we changed from de-viv-voix to archipel, the communicative approach, one of the major complaints was from students. They did not like the constant repeating by rote without any creative re-use of material. The impetus for change was…from students...

(Inter V, p.9, L.2-11)

Erna argues that a consideration of learners' felt needs is central to planning. The method which informs the approach to language teaching is changed from de-viv-voix to archipel on the basis of input from learners in the program. Learners indicate that the de-viv-voix method which uses rote learning without any creative re-use of the material is not acceptable. The method uses outdated principles of teaching and learning the spoken language. It does not encourage learners to think, create, and participate. Instead, it encourages their memorization and regurgitation of knowledge.
Learners and instructors identify a problem which results in a change. Learners' complaints are supported by instructors who agree that the de-viv-voix method, which informs the language program, is outdated. Erna explains:

...people enrol at the beginning, complain at the intermediate, and drop out at the advanced...the enrolment at our advanced levels IIIA and IIIB were extremely poor...

(Inter V, p.9, L.20-23)

The focus of concern is discussed with instructors to find a solution. Based on interaction over the commonplaces, the planners modify planning. To this end, Erna states:

...I have followed what comes out of the institute from France...that is where de-viv-voix originates, and where the latest research is done...I gave archipel to a few instructors...and ask one of them to pilot it... one used de-viv-voix and the other archipel...

(Inter II, p.12, L.28-33)

Erna explains that she follows the research on language teaching which is conducted by a leading institute in France. It is through this strategy she learns about the archipel method. Erna decides to field test the two methods before a decision is made. The results support the switch from de-viv-voix to archipel. There are "...quantitative differences in that students' marks were a little bit higher" in the archipel method. Students "...were much less frustrated, and their written assessment was in favour of archipel". Further, the "...instructor supported the archipel method." Quantitative and qualitative results support the use of the archipel method (Inter II, p.13, L.2-7).

Planners investigate other methods of language teaching because evidence suggests that there is a problem. Planners
investigate the validity of students' complaints; research other methods of language teaching; and institute the archipel method which is based on the communicative approach. Erna indicates:

...we are running six to eight sections a year versus one or two...that is substantial proof that we are at least in the right direction...De-viv-voix dictates to students when and how they should learn...archipel empowers students...students are free to make suggestions...teachers will make selections...it is a freer, open ended approach...which includes the idea of responsibility of students...Instead of instructors being responsible for the structure of the delivery of the program, instructors are compelled to make choices as well...so continual assessment of students' needs must go on...Instructors have to assess where students are...instructors have to make that jump from a prescriptive method to this...instructors determine in collaboration with students...

(Inter V, P.10, L.7-10; II, p.13, L.13-34)

The archipel method ensures the content is relevant and useful to learners through a collaborative approach to teaching and learning. Learners share the responsibility for the content covered. Instructors assess learners' readiness to proceed. Together decisions are made based on learners' abilities to move to the next content.

7 Summary of Procedural Knowledge

Planners do not justify their planning moves, which are responsible actions and decisions, only on the basis of declarative knowledge. Planners undertake formal and informal strategies related to planning which provide additional knowledge upon which to base defensible decisions and actions. These strategies are informed by procedural knowledge, "how to", useful, and relevant knowledge of the rules and routines of planning which deals with the necessary steps to accomplish the planning tasks and answers the question "how". This knowledge is fundamental for
interpersonal communication strategies which inform planning practice.

Procedural knowledge deals with strategies planners undertake related to planning: how to change the program? how to identify why learners are unsuccessful? how to ensure that learners' needs are met? how to change the goals of the program? and how to identify and select appropriate content and instructors? This knowledge answers the question "how to" and deals with "what should be done" based on the rules and routines of planning. It suggests what steps should be taken and in what order to accomplish planning tasks. Planners undertake useful and relevant strategies as part of planning, and in the process re-shape planning.

In the planning process, more data are added to existing knowledge from direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self and are included in planners' repertoire of knowledge. For example, more knowledge is gained as planning is deliberated through informal and formal strategies related to planning: through discussions with learners, through observation of learners' lack of progress in the program, through experience of learners' reasons for failure, and through intimate knowledge of the content and the context of learning.

Further, planners' procedural knowledge is directly related to rules and routines of planning. For example, the rule which mediates actions is that the core curriculum must be taken by all learners. Thus, the core content takes precedence over other forms of knowledge. To this end, the planner undertakes a strategy which includes identifying and selecting optional courses specific to aboriginal students in the program. These strategies are informed
by conditional knowledge. The next chapter deals with planners' conditional knowledge.
CHAPTER SIX

Conditional Knowledge

This chapter commences with a brief description of conditional knowledge which informs planning practice. This is followed by a list of the categories of planners' conditional knowledge. And finally, it explores these categories in relation to components of planning including the context of planning, team concept, collaboration, assessment of needs, evaluation, promotion and marketing, and development of the curriculum.

Planning practice is informed by conditional knowledge. Conditional knowledge deals with condition-action-sequences which implement actions when certain pre-conditions are met and is essential for critical decision making. It answers questions "why" and "when" and suggests "what ought to be done". It consists of planners' understanding of contextual values such as economic, educational, political, and social values as well as personal principles of practice including efficiency and effectiveness, educational philosophy, and guiding metaphors. These contextual and personal values are not exhaustive of all possible values, nor are they mutually exclusive.

1 Planning Context

The following analysis provides some understanding of how the planning context, including the mandate, the mission, and the deficit, is oriented to conditional knowledge which includes contextual values and planners' values and beliefs. Planners discuss the objectives of the mandate which are: offer significant programs, consistent with a small liberal arts college, to the downtown population; be recognized as the inner city university;
and generate a profit. Economic, social, educational, and political contextual values mediate planning.

1.1 Contextual Value: Economic

Planners discuss the economic objectives of the mandate on planning. Joel's and Netta's discussion represents the nature of the economic value of the mandate which mediates planning. Joel argues that based on "intelligent programming" (intentional planning which includes second guessing), "indirect reasoning" (intuiting and anticipating what the market bears), he gave directives to planners to generate profit by offering as many certificates to meet as many educational needs as possible. His informal analysis leads to a cafeteria style program wherein a number of courses and certificates are offered so that students can select what appeals to them.

At the level of practice, Joel encourages planners to develop as many certificates as possible instead of stand-alone short courses, because certificates generate a reliable continuing student body. Joel reasons that to "...serve the community and make money" it is necessary to have participants who are committed on a long term basis. It seems appropriate to offer certificates because these programs are normally comprehensive and consist of required and optional courses which sometimes take two or three years of part-time study to complete. Thus, the economic value of the mandate, and planner's interpretation of it, mediate the types of programs and formats developed, and clientele served.

Further, the types of programs suggest the clientele to be served. Those in the downtown core area are mostly business people and others, who can afford to pay for programs. Few programs are
geared toward residents of the inner city who are often the
disadvantaged -- women, visible minorities, and immigrants.
Moreover, the offering of certificates is based on the assumption
that students who take these programs are committed to the concept
of the program and will complete the entire program. They become
regular participants who return to take "...another course if they
are working on a total program". The impetus to develop
certificates, and consequently "certify" that learners have
achieved knowledge in a particular field, is mediated by the
economic rather than the pedagogical value of the certificate.
Students are needed in courses to generate money. Joel's practice
is driven by the goal to have "significant" numbers of courses and
students to reduce the uncertainty of registration and to meet the
economic objectives of the mandate. Therefore, economic values
mediate other values of the mandate, including planner's values and
beliefs which inform planning.

Similarly, to achieve the objectives of the mandate, Netta
proposes the need for intentional decision making based on the
economic value of the mandate as a model of planning. Her
proactive strategy to planning is mediated by the economic value of
the mandate. Netta argues that the unit not only has an economic
mandate to fulfil but it functions also as a mechanism which helps
the university to maintain the status quo in the system - continue
to do research and teach.

The unit responds to educational needs of a variety of
learners, including those whose needs are not met by the
university. Netta argues that the unit's role is "...to bridge the
gap" between the community and the university. "It provides an
opportunity" to learners who "...see the university as a possible option...whether it is as access programs, non credit, or degree access." Moreover, the unit ought to be financially viable. These roles are not incompatible because financial independence provides autonomy to offer a variety of programs, even those which are not cost effective, to a wide range of learners (Inter I, p.44, L.27-35).

Based on experience gained from different positions within the university, Netta "knows" how the institution functions. She indicates "I had partly formulated a vision," which is that the unit is a part of an integrated higher education system consisting of the university and colleges. Programs fit, build on each other, are financially viable, and learners move with ease from one system to another. This vision is to provide "meaningful" programs while having "...a greater degree of autonomy". The value position of the vision is the ability to act autonomously within the existing structures of the institution and provide meaningful programs. However, to act with any degree of autonomy requires financial independence (Inter I, p.45, L.18-31).

Therefore, one of her goals is to offer "meaningful" programs within the structure of the institution. On one level of analysis, meaningful programs suggest the principle of economy of content (the ability of the content to facilitate learners' self sufficiency). Finally, her goal of autonomy is based on an economic value of the unit's self sufficiency (autonomy is gained through financial independence from the university). The mandate of the unit is consistent with Netta's goals to offer financially viable, meaningful programs while having the ability to act in an
autonomous manner.

Netta's planning is re-defined within the context of the economic objectives of the mandate: the unit is a system within a larger system which provides a wide range of economically viable programs to a variety of learners who have the ability to pay. To accomplish its mandate, a strategy is required which sets priorities and directions for the unit while providing the basis for intentional decision making based on the economic realities of the situation. The strategy is framed within an economically viable framework as the basis for action, and includes meaningful programs, active program development, instructional recruitment, and staff training. The focal point of Netta's practice is a procedural strategy based on an economic value.

1.2 Contextual Value: Educational

Although Erna's, Liz's and Anna's practice is mediated by the economic value of the mandate, the focal point of their practice mediates the mandate and represents the perspective of members of the language team. Erna reports:

...I have felt a certain amount of pressure to get certificates passed by senate quickly...In the case of the French Language Proficiency Program, senate got what they wanted...so they said, 'do that again...do that for Spanish, Italian, Russian...'This was from the dean under direct pressure from the vice president to get more certificates through senate as quickly as possible...to build the reputation of the division and make money, making more money being the final goal...

(Inter V,p.10, L.23-25; p.11, L.3-8)

Pressure to make money, to be self sufficient, and build a reputable unit comes from the vice president through the dean. Further, the development of certificates is a means to achieve the final goal of making more money which is dictated by the economic
value of the mandate. Erna's reason for developing certificates is consistent with Joel's. She explains:

...the reason being that a student who will make a commitment to a certificate will take more courses and pay more money...but it acts as motivation for students. It might also stimulate them to broaden their horizons, by looking into literature which they might not necessarily do by taking an isolated course...

(Inter V, p.12, L.20-23; p.13, L.3-6)

Planning is modified by economic values rather than educational concerns, such as learners' felt educational needs. However, Erna argues that certificates are motivational because they are based on the curriculum premise of concentration which is that only large and connected units of subject matter, that is, a number of core and elective courses, can motivate and maintain learners' interest (Herbart, 1904). Therefore, learners may be encouraged to learn and explore other concepts if they take a certificate program rather than an isolated course because they become engrossed in the particular content. She believes that there is an educational value to developing certificates.

At the policy level, the educational value of certificates is legitimized as part of the institution's mandate through the formal approval of certificates by senate (the governing body of the institution). At the level of practice, planners have to justify on some grounds, the identification and selection of content to meet learners' educational needs, and the development and delivery of such programs. A dilemma is presented because the need to develop as many certificates, in as many languages as possible, is not established. She resists the economic mandate. She refuses to develop programs if there is no identifiable need.
1.3 Contextual Value: Political

In his third year as dean, Joel received a "...directive from the vice president" to stop developing new programs. As a result, the unit went into a "maintenance phase". The reasons for the directive are economic, practical, and political. The unit shows a deficit in spite of the expansion of programs and increased student enrolment, and it seemed reasonable to stop developing programs because the "...internal operational systems and staff members were over-burdened." Also, the directive suggests an attempt to sanction the form of knowledge which the unit offers.

Joel argues that by succumbing to the pressure "...orchestrated by the academic community" and allowing others to dictate the actions and behaviours of the unit he "lost control" and power over the unit. In "hindsight" he has concluded that the correct response was to reject the directive (Inter I, p.18, L.1-21). In addition to the pressure on staff and the inadequacy of the internal system to handle the expansion, Joel states:

...we never had time to anticipate these growths, and as a result our systems could not handle them...we had many problems...from the academic community we got tremendous opposition to all our certificates...'well, the university does not do that type of thing, we are a liberal arts college'...It is very frustrating because the institution is not sold on continuing education...

(Inter I, p.18, L.24-35; p.19, L.1-14)

There was pressure from members of the academic community who felt that it was inappropriate for a small liberal arts college to offer the types of programs the unit offered. Other constraints contributed to the frustrating work environment. Because this is "...a one faculty institution, all the power... was in the collective hands of one person". The "...real power, the behind
the scene power", is in the dean of the faculty of arts and science. He sees the unit as a drain on the financial resources of the university (Inter I, p.19, L.15-24).

The dean of arts and science controls the financial resources of the unit. Therefore, the "real power" or locus of control rests outside the unit. Joel feels powerless because he is given a mandate which is incompatible and inconsistent. He lacks the support of the academic community. Moreover, the unit must generate money to cover not only its own expenses but also to produce a profit for other parts of the institution while offering content consistent with a small liberal arts college of which it is a part.

At the level of practice these constraints are dilemmas because they are inconsistent and incompatible. The economically disadvantaged groups are usually not in a position to pay, therefore, one cannot expect to generate income from programs for these groups. Further, these groups may not want liberal arts programs but "skill building and how to" programs to gain employment and earn a living. Thus, economic and educational values create a dilemma because they are incompatible. Planners are required to work within these dilemmas and, at the same time, plan "worthwhile" programs which not only recover costs but also generate profit.

Planning under these contextual values: the institution's goals to be economically viable, its political mission to be recognized as the "...core inner city university", and its educational philosophy to maintain its liberal arts values, create uncertain and unique practice situations. Planners are required to
"adjust", "anticipate", and "make changes" in planning. Thus, given these conflicting and competing values, Joel indicates, "I decided by the third year that I should really get out of this because I am not going to win this" (Inter I, p.21, L.16-17). Joel elects to change his work environment because of the untenable situation.

1.4 Contextual Value: Social

Pete's discussion of the mission of the university represents the nature of his conditional knowledge which mediates his planning practice. Pete noted that the "...1986 mission statement by the president", stated that the university's mission is to be "the inner city university". It is to meet the educational needs of aboriginals, immigrants, and working people who live and work in the inner city. Further, "...the university is very much a part of the vibrancy and changes occurring in the inner city". It is the catalyst for social change, or "...a vehicle and resource linkage in the political and economic process in helping people to qualify for employment" (Inter I, p.3, L.21-25).

This mission describes a role for the unit which is to create individual change and consequently social change. The unit is a means to an end, a vehicle by which individuals acquire knowledge and abilities to gain access to the economic and political wealth of society. Pete argues, as a result of this mission, the university:

...for the last 8-10 years has become more cognizant of its neighbours downtown, businesses...it has tried to serve a diversified audience of natives, immigrants, working people. The division was one major expression of the university's commitment to the inner city....

(Inter I, p.3, L.23-35)

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At the policy level, the creation of the unit is an expression of the university's commitment to this mission. The university's access committee also defines a role for the unit which is consistent with the university's mission. In this sense the role and mission of the unit are defined by the institution of which it is a part. The unit is the vehicle and the resource linkage with the inner city, and the means by which the university achieves its mission of social change and responsibility.

However, Pete explains that how this policy is supported by the university, and consequently how it is translated at the level of practice, is an indication of the university's commitment to its mission. From an analysis of the objectives of the mandate, it is accurate to say that the institution provides no financial support but expects the unit to be self sufficient and to generate a profit to support other parts of the institution. This incompatibility and inconsistency with policy and practice contribute to Joel's resignation, after three years and before the end of his five year term. Pete states:

...things are unified to the extent that the leadership does demonstrable things to make them happen and that the power brokers in the university do...there are faculty...who feel very uncomfortable with... admitting under some aegis a great unwashed mass of persons who are not prepared for the university...who need assistance with reading, mathematics, developing study habits...It comes to the leadership...the funders. If the government feels the university ought to move in that direction, there are ways to bring that about...

(Inter I, p.4, L.6-20)

Pete suggests that the mission of the university is realized only to the extent to which there is support for it from all levels within the institution. Financial support must come from the top
to ensure the mission becomes a reality. This support is not there, neither is there widespread support from the academic community for the unit's programs and clientele. Indeed, some faculty feel that the university ought not to admit "...a great unwashed mass of persons" who are not academically prepared to undertake university study.

The implications are that these persons will require supports such as reading, mathematics, and study skills, and concomitantly the financial supports for these programs will have to be provided by the university. Providing this support would drain funds earmarked for research. Pete stipulates, "...the staff at the unit are committed" to the mission; however, because there is no financial support from the leadership this mission is only partially implemented at the level of practice.

The unit offers courses for a wide range of persons with very specialized interests and needs. These courses are not free. Therefore, the felt needs of only those who can afford to pay for courses are met. Tuition is a barrier to participation for learners who are economically disadvantaged while those who can afford to pay, who in most cases have a higher level of education and better job opportunities, gain more access to the economic and political systems. Thus, systemic discrimination and structural barriers are supported and reinforced at the policy and practice level. Pete explains:

...the division received a very small amount of funding from the university, so it finds itself in the position of having to charge for all its courses. What it would take...when one begins to work with...non traditional audiences is an university to subsidize to a very high degree...but the division is supposed to be cost recovery, and profit generating...
Pete believes that to meet the educational needs of non traditional groups requires a financial commitment. These groups not only require academic supports but also they, in most cases, lack the ability to pay. Further, to provide programs for non traditional groups, the unit cannot accomplish this task alone. It has to "...work with some of the existing agencies, community groups, and organizations, who already work and support these people".

The overriding assumption of planning is that learners' needs are considered from a holistic perspective. Pete re-defines planning as a process of "...re-educating, educating, nourishing, cultivating, and developing the whole person" (Inter I, p.5, L.13-22). It is located within the individual's economic, political, and social contexts. Planning for "non traditional" groups requires a range of courses, supports from other agencies, and working relationships.

Pete identifies the Gasper Program as an example of a program which is designed to meet the educational needs of a non traditional group. However, the initiative for this program came from the community which is described as economically advantaged and politically active and progressive. Pete describes the working relationship with the community and the university:

...all along we had to manipulate the university administration. We had to convince the university that this was worth the time and resources we were allocating it...The relationship was a contractual one, the money flowed through the aboriginal band to the university, it was a profit making venture...

(Inter I, p.6, L.23-29)

Pete suggests that part of planning involves manipulating the
administration, and convincing stakeholders of the worth and value of developing the program. In short, there is resistance to developing a program for aboriginal students which is to be delivered on the reserve. The resistance appears to be based on ideological rather than educational grounds. There is an attempt to control not only the form of knowledge, but also the learners to be served and the venue of the offering.

Moreover, the unit signs a contract with the band to deliver the program for a particular sum of money. This contractual arrangement brings economic gains to the university. Pete's discussion suggests that an economic goal takes precedence over a social goal: an economic argument persuades the unit of the value of the program. Pete indicates that, "...the money flowed through the aboriginal band to the university, it was a profit making venture". Planners problematize and contextualize planning, because it is situated within specific contextual and personal values.

2 Team Concept

Planners' personal values, beliefs, and ethical and moral principles mediate planning. Joel states that the decision to structure the unit on a team concept is based on his "policy" of equality of opportunity to participate in decision making and policy decisions. Joel and Liz discuss the nature of planners' personal values and beliefs with respect to the team concept.

2.1 Equality of Opportunity to Participate

Joel believes that a flat organizational structure and a participatory management style facilitate this policy and are conducive to the role of "real programmers", which is "decision
making programmers". Accordingly, at the level of practice, real programmers are those who are responsible and accountable for making decisions about planning. They generate ideas, develop, and improve existing programs to meet learners' educational needs. However, at the policy level, these planners have little or no input in decision making. Liz discusses the team concept:

...the office was structured so that there are teams. The team is headed by program directors who supposedly do program development, and there are program officers who do program administration, and there is clerical support. That is the ideal make-up of the team... initially there were supposed to be three teams; then they fell apart, there is only one functioning team...

(Inter I, p.3, L.21-26; p.25, L.3-5)

The language team is the only functioning team because the "team leader" and members of the team share a common focus, a learner-centered approach based on a communicative philosophy. By contrast, the other teams do not function because they do not have a "...common interest...direction, or a clearly identified leader", to keep the team together. Further, members of the team offer programs in a diverse range of content areas, to a variety of learners (Inter VI, p.15, L.15-25; p.16, L.17-21).

Liz believes that because the unit lacks leadership, a mission, and goals, a team concept, which allows members to participate in decisions and policy making, is only partly functional. However, program ideas are sometimes shaped and developed through the team; therefore, the team is a problem solving and decision making mechanism. Liz indicates:

...if I ask a question and the director is not sure, she will say go to the dean or the associate dean... They would say, you should ask the director because of her experience, she has probably tried it before, she could probably tell you if it is not going to work...
Members, on the team, consult with the dean or associate only if they are unable to find a solution to a problem. Liz reports:

I like the opportunity to interact with my colleagues and discuss possibilities...if I had to develop programs in isolation I would not like...my job...

On one level of analysis, a functioning team provides an opportunity for interaction, discussion, and sharing of ideas with colleagues. This is an important component of the personal context of planning and is in keeping with the view that planners act in an intentional and discriminating manner to bring about learning for adults. Deliberation through the team suggests that learning through discussing, coaching, and mentoring are important components of a team concept. Since planners are not provided any systematic on the job training, the team allows planners to learn from others and self about planning.

2.2 Ethical and Moral Principles

Erna's and Liz's discussion, with respect to developing certificates to achieve the mandate, covering the deficit, and budgeting, typifies the nature of their conditional knowledge, that is, their ethical and moral principles. Erna explains that to combine existing language courses into certificates does not necessarily produce "solid enough programs" in which learners "would be fluent". Therefore, "I had a little bit of trouble" with certifying that learners are fluent in a language upon completion of the certificate. Time is required to develop solid programs (Inter V,p.11,L.9-16). Consequently, she states:
...I stalled, but the dean was saying, 'look, it is good enough as it is, let's just take it to senate' ...but morally and ethically I could not go with it. I just did not feel that was the right thing to do and that goes back to what I think about learners. They are the people who would know...

(Inter V, p.11, L.17-25)

It is against her better judgement to certify that learners are fluent upon completion of the certificate when she knows that they may not be. This situation presents a moral and ethical dilemma because of her commitment to provide learners with a program which achieves its professed outcome: learners' proficiency in the language upon completion of a certificate.

Her learner-centered practice, guided by moral and ethical principles, shapes the economic value of the mandate: learners' rights to solid educational programs and the planner's responsibility to ensure that those rights are respected. Learners will know; they will bear the consequences of these inappropriate decisions and actions. She resists the pressures of the dean: the economic objectives of the mandate to generate money at all cost. She does not put forward another certificate for approval by senate on the basis of her principle to do the "right thing" or provide solid programs.

2.3 Educational Values and Beliefs

Liz's and Erna's discussion represents the nature of their conditional knowledge with respect to the deficit. Liz indicates that the economic principle, the idea to put on programs just to make money, which overrides all planning decisions, presents a dilemma. It is not consistent with her educational values and
Planning requires time for careful analysis and decision making. Economic value ought not to be the focal point for right and appropriate action and decision making in planning. Consequently, she contributes little to planning. She states:

...none of the English as a second language programs fit that intensive weekend immersion mode...you cannot do English as a Second Language in a day...That was another reason I found it very frustrating...certain content lends itself to that...

(Inter VI, p.11, L.19-23)

She resists developing language courses into new formats because she believes it does not make good pedagogical sense to design English as a Second Language into weekend or short term intensive immersion type courses. The limited time constraint mitigates against designing good programs. Also, a pedagogic, rather than economic value, is a focal point of her planning. She responds in a manner which is consistent with the values and beliefs which mediate her practice. Liz states "I devoted my energy to programs that existed...making them better" (Inter VI, p.12, L.4-7). She believes that she makes more money from this activity than by converting old courses into new formats or creating something new in a short time.

Erna responds differently to the deficit and Joel's strategy for dealing with it. Erna explains the dean holds regular staff meetings to apprise planners of the budget situation and to
generate solutions. She believes this approach is consistent with a team concept to provide planners with the opportunity to participate in decisions and share responsibility. The dean's "...approach of openness...and a willingness to share the burden" (Inter V, p.3, L.8-12) with planners has a positive effect because she develops personally and professionally. She argues:

...personally, it has been a contributing factor to the amount of work that I have done and the different and creative solutions that I have looked for...I have gotten into my personal reading...creative problem solving...and I have become more open to understand another point of view...

(Inter V, p.4, L.5-10)

She indicates that professionally, she engages in readings related to problem solving and:

...packaged courses in a new format...French and Spanish...crack of dawn classes for people who work downtown...management and computer courses as well as language courses...

(Inter V, p.4, L.12-27; p.5, L.1-2)

Planners' practice mediates and is mediated by the deficit. Although Erna recognizes the pedagogical problem in offering the content in short intensive formats, she concedes to the economic exigencies of the situation: the deficit and the need to develop programs to reduce it.

Erna, Liz, and Anna discuss the budgeting process. Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planning. The budget formula, which is designed to meet the economic objectives of the mandate, is a realistic expectation because planners should generate their salaries. Further, while the unit is an important system within higher education, it should be a self supporting unit. Thus, framing budgeting within the economic objectives of the mandate, is
the right approach to take: 25-35% profit margin makes sense, it is right and appropriate.

Erna argues, she must earn her salary, and "...the division is essential to any post secondary system...we serve an adult clientele". In the case of her salary, the argument is based on fairness, that is, planners ought to earn their living. And, the work of the division is important because it is that part of higher education which serves adults. At the policy level, the budget is defined within the context of the objectives of the mandate, at the level of practice, planners re-define it.

Erna reports "I have argued for less and have been told that I can accept less if I can justify it in the long run" (Inter V, p.1, L.13-14). The budget formula, 25-35% profit on every dollar, means that programs are required to cover their direct and indirect cost while generating the required 25-35% profit. The direct costs include instructional costs, travel, marketing, space. The indirect costs are program development, coordination, and support. The three planners agree that learners' ability to pay, and the requirement that learners complete the program within a specific time frame are factors which are considered in negotiating with the dean for a reduced profit. Liz states:

...because of the...clients, visible minorities and immigrants, different programs have...the fact that teachers' aides make $5.00 per hour and people who take our computer and management courses make three or four times as much, and very often they are sent by their employers, we cannot charge 25-35% on every program...

(Inter VII, p.14, L.17-22)

The 25-35% budget formula is defined according to educational values and beliefs related to program and learners. Each program
cannot generate the same amount of profit. Therefore, to assess all programs on the same basis is to apply a simple formula across the board on all programs which is based on the tacit assumption that all things are equal. Since all things are not equal, the formula or rule cannot be applied indiscriminately across all programs and learners. In deliberating profits, planners re-define the budget formula. Planners use values and judgement, not simply follow rules.

Liz explains in the event that the desired 25-35% profit is not achieved because of insufficient enrolment, there are three options to consider: "I can cancel the course...ask the teacher to teach for less so that we can still make the 25-35%...or run it at a loss." However, she justifies offering the course at no profit on two conditions. It is a "...required course in a particular program or...too many sections of a course were cancelled" based on the incorrect analysis that there is a large market for the program (Inter IV, p.29, L.9-17). The second reason is the assumption that the institution's reputation is at stake because too many courses are cancelled.

Further, Liz states, "...it was the dean's decision to run as many courses as possible, it went very badly in terms of how many courses were cancelled." This was based on miscalculating the size of the population for the program. However, because there were many cancellations, "...it was worth breaking even...rather than cancel another course...because of the image we were establishing" (Inter IV, p.30, L.10-20; p.31,L.1-3).

Liz argues that there is a risk of destroying the credibility and reputation of the unit. Therefore, a decision to offer a
course, in spite of the fact that the course does not generate the required profit, is mediated by educational values and beliefs including the requirements of the program, learners' needs and ability to pay, the negative consequences to the unit, and the context of planning.

3 Collaborating with Partners

Planners collaborate with external and internal partners in planning programs. Joel's, Liz's and Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planners' conditional knowledge in collaborating with external groups. Erna's and Liz's discussion represents conditional knowledge in collaborating with internal departments.

3.1 Personal Value: Political

In regard to the Educational Assistants Program, Joel indicates that for political reasons he seeks the support of stakeholders because findings suggest that they are responsible for providing education to teachers' aides, and they have been unsuccessful in doing so. However, although it is important to have their support to avoid opposition to the program, he does not formalize it because he wants to maintain control and power.

Joel creates awareness of the program on the part of those who are in positions of power to hire teachers' aides. He seeks support for the program because if there is support, then teachers' aides may be encouraged to participate through time off, time off with pay, or tuition reimbursement. Therefore, he collaborates with decision makers because it makes sense from an economic and political point of view. In addition, Joel identifies a role stakeholders play in planning:

...we had complaints from the teachers' society,
Superintendents, and others because they thought what we were doing was not right...one group objected to the course description and we changed the course description. We were not looking for enemies...

(Inter I, p.11, L.2-5)

Superintendents are concerned about the program because they are responsible for hiring and ensuring that teachers' aides have the required knowledge. The professional society monitors the program for political reasons. Their role is to provide professional development for teachers, therefore, they want to ensure that what is provided is consistent with their view. Further, they believe that educating teachers' aides may lead to requests for more income to correspond with the level of education. As well, they are concerned about one of the required courses entitled "planning instruction" because it suggests that teachers' aides plan and teach courses. Since they are legally not allowed to teach, the course is seen as inappropriate. They are concerned with the economic as well as the legal implication of the program. Joel indicates, "...teachers' aides were not allowed to teach and we included in the curriculum a compulsory course on planning instruction." However, he argues that the course is included because if teachers' aides help the teacher they ought to "...understand what the teacher is doing in the classroom" (Inter I, p.11, L.7-14).

Erna's discussion, in regard to the French Language Program, represents the nature of conditional knowledge with respect to internal collaboration. She formalizes the collaborative arrangement which she describes as a "win-win situation" because:

...the department was going to get students out of this. So there was no way...they would disapprove of the
principle. It was a rubber stamping to get approval...so everyone was delighted...The institution got what it wanted, the division received recognition for moving in the right direction. The department was happy...

(Inter V, p.28, L.20-25; p.11, L.2-4)

Collaboration is based on the principle of utility, whereby partners stand to gain from the arrangement. The French department gains students, hence financial resources, and the unit gains students, income, credibility, and recognition from the institution. The unit stands to achieve the financial and educational objectives of the mandate: to generate income to be self-sufficient and support the institution, and to offer worthwhile programs. However, the thrust of the collaborative effort is political. As Erna states:

...one was a political move and the other was someone from whom I was truly looking for support. If I had not been interested in the political angle I would have just gone to the first person and not the head...

(Inter V, p.28, L.16-21)

3.2 Personal Value: Economic

Joel's decision to offer the Educational Assistants Program is mediated by an economic value. The economic motivation becomes apparent when he suggests that the program is provided because "...no one is doing it." His data confirm that programs are not offered for teachers' aides; therefore, a program may be economically viable. This factor suggests that a decision to proceed is a sound economic one which ties closely with Joel's mandate to offer financially viable worthwhile programs.

To collaborate with the community is defined as a strategy which is mediated by contextual values and planners' values and beliefs. Planners collaborate for political reasons because
support is important from stakeholders who are responsible for professional development and employment of the target audience. Planners collaborate for economic reasons because if stakeholders support the program, it is likely that they will provide support to learners. Planners pursue collaboration to gain recognition, money, learners, and instructors from the environment.

Similarly, in regard to the Educational Assistants Program, Liz indicates that she collaborates with an external group, who initiates the contact on behalf of its members who want a program delivered in the rural area, because the opportunity presents little or no risk and many benefits. She believes that collaboration is not a virtue or social good, but a strategy based on the principle of utility and self interest: to gain financial resources, that is, more students and income.

However, in the collaborative arrangement there are benefits and costs. The institution gains status and recognition from collaborating with the unit to provide a program to those who live in rural areas. Students do not have to travel to the city for the program which is delivered in their community, and taught by instructors from their community who may be accessible to them. The unit maintains its autonomy and control of the program as well as gaining students, information, instructors, income, status, and domain. The costs are time and energy that partners expend in the process of collaboration, loss of autonomy by collaborating partners, and negative consequences in the event of an unhappy termination of the partnership. Moreover, Liz believes that collaboration helps to achieve the economic objectives of the mandate.
3.3 Educational Principles

Collaboration is mediated by planners' educational principles. Joel's and Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planners' conditional knowledge with respect to these principles. According to Joel, the selection and justification of knowledge in the Educational Assistants Program is based on the principle of economy of content. The content ought to facilitate learners' self sufficiency, that is, it ought to enable learners to make defensible personal and moral decisions (considered weighing of factors and their relationship as a guide to choice and action). Further, the content ought to be economical of teaching efforts and resources, that is, teachers' aides may be helpful if they understand what teachers do. They may work as a team. In Joel's view, this principle justifies the decision to include the course in the program.

However, Joel argues that "...we were not looking for enemies". It made sense to change a "couple of words", and "insert others", and modify the description rather than antagonize these groups because some are powerful. The political context mediates Joel's educational principle. Joel states:

...some wrote, others called...some were angry...'who were you to try to teach teachers' aides, that should be done by us'...this came from the teachers' society, superintendents, and principals...

(Inter I, p.11, L.11-19)

He revises and changes the course description in response to political pressure from stakeholders. Joel's deliberation in the situation suggests that planning requires knowledge of and sensitivity to the political context -contextual values- which
includes the mandate of stakeholders, other than the unit, to provide education to teachers' aides. As well, planners must proceed cautiously and exercise judgement in planning.

Erna's discussion of the Japanese Program highlights a different approach to the task. She indicates that personal contacts are beneficial because she gains tangible resources such as students, income, and advertising, and intangible benefits such as a high profile for the program. Erna explains:

...I found the community contacts were really the key to it, the more people I got to know the more boards I sit on, the more successful my programs are somehow...

(Inter III, p.31, L.1-4)

Erna believes that the key to a successful program is the partnership with community groups which results in recognition and support for the program. However, she collaborates with the community to gain benefits such as a network system, and also a solid program. Erna explains:

...I sit on the provincial association of continuing education [board] and the multicultural resource centre [board]. The other planners also sit on one or two boards and we feel that we represent each other...as a department...

(Inter III, p.31, L.6-8)

Erna suggests that because she lacks knowledge of the Japanese culture, community, content, and instructors, the "right" thing to do is to work with the community to develop a solid program, which meets learners' educational needs, and gain benefits from the environment. Thus, she formalizes the collaborative arrangement through a committee structure.

Further, she believes that experts who reside in the community ought to be involved in planning because they can identify content,
learners' educational needs, and provide high visibility and credibility for the program. She states that, "...our Japanese courses are running better than any other heritage courses". Thus, the Japanese community gains status from the arrangement, while the unit gains a solid program, students, income, and instructors. However, her educational principle to develop a solid program to meet learners' needs mediates the economic mandate.

3.4 Abstract Principles

With respect to the charge that the university ought not to provide education to teachers' aides, Joel's discussion represents his conditional knowledge - his abstract principles of rights, obligation, and responsibility. Joel suggests one quality of a university is academic freedom to offer educational programs to a wide variety of learners. He reports:

...I developed a standard response which was approved by the president... we were saying that we have the right as an university to offer certificate and degrees. Nobody in the community can tell us what we can or cannot offer... our prerogative is to offer certificates to help society, to offer certificates to teachers' aides because no one is doing it...

(Inter I, p.11, L.17-30)

The university is an educational institution with the expertise and knowledge to perform certain tasks. One of these tasks is to provide programs and certify that learners have achieved specific knowledge and abilities. The university is performing its legal, moral, and social rights and responsibility to meet learners' needs and help society. The community cannot dictate its mandate. Joel justifies his decision on abstract principles of rights, obligation, and responsibility, to society, where the good of the whole is served through the good of individuals.

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Collaboration is based on the principle of utility for the purpose of gaining benefits from the environment. However, planners re-define collaboration which is oriented to their conditional knowledge including contextual values, and their political and economic values, educational and abstract principles. Collaboration, which varies on a continuum from formal to informal, suggests that planners' practice is intentional, systematic, and emergent, and practice situations are often unique, uncertain, and complex.

4 Asssessing Needs

Pete's and Erna's discussion represents the nature of planners' conditional knowledge in assessing needs for programs. With respect to the Futures Studies Program, Pete's personal interest in and knowledge of the content originate the idea for the program. Erna's principle of practice mediates planning. Planners' principles, values, and beliefs related to planning mediate the task.

4.1 Educational Principles, Values and Beliefs

Pete's belief in the intrinsic value of the content mediate his practice. Learners do not identify the need, rather Pete identifies the ascribed need, based on intuitive analysis of the importance of the content, and subsequently prepares a proposal which he justifies to the dean.

Erna indicates that the idea for the Learning Strategies course originates from learners in the course. Erna's psychological principle of practice mediates planning. In the classroom learners are allowed to speak only the language they are learning. Since the content has to be taught in English, it
necessitates offering a separate course. She explains:

...many learners have tremendous numbers of strategies that...they can share...Teaching or learning those are interchangeable words...either helping people learn or learning...we are all continuous learners, there is time in this course for sharing strategies, memorize ...reproduce, re-apply it using these strategies...

(Inter I, p.13, L.26-34; p.14, L.1-4)

Erna designs a course on the basis of a number of principles. Learners are a rich resource of knowledge which is recognized and utilized in the teaching learning transaction. The course design allows learners to share their teaching strategy with other learners and the instructor who is also a learner in the process. These principles have implications for her educational philosophy. Knowledge is constructed in the teaching learning process, and the relationship between the teacher and learners is based on respect for learners' knowledge and sharing of knowledge. A planner's knowledge of the content and knowledge in the intrinsic worth of the content, and a planner's educational principles, values, and beliefs shape planning.

5 Evaluating Programs

Planners conduct evaluation in regard to their programs. A focus of concern, related to planners' notion of a desirable state of affairs, is the impetus for a number of evaluation strategies. These foci of concerns centre on the issue of improving practice. Joel's, Pete's, Netta's, and Erna's discussion typifies the nature of planners' conditional knowledge which is oriented to planners' values and beliefs related to "good" educational practice.

5.1 Abstract Values

Planners use the end of course evaluation which learners
complete to make informed and appropriate decisions about planning. Joel holds an informal meeting with an instructor, who has received negative evaluations, to discuss the results to determine the decision to "rehire". Although the feedback is negative, a decision not to rehire is not made automatically. Deliberation with the instructor about his pedagogical knowledge, and Joel's sense of fair play mediate the decision. Joel rehires the instructor because it is the first time he has taught and he showed a willingness to improve. Joel states that the decision to rehire appeared to be well founded because the second evaluation results "were not bad".

With respect to the Gasper Program, Pete makes decisions related to a bad report of an instructor who appears to be insensitive to learners' cultural background and history:

...there was no way to replace the students, the instructor, or to reschedule because the students were scheduled to move into another class. We expressed with students our awareness and concern. We had a number of conflict resolution meetings with the instructor and the coordinator...We have not used him since...

(Inter I, p.10, L.7-12)

Pete indicates that replacing the instructor is not practical because the program design requires that the course be completed within a specified time, and that learners successfully complete the course to advance to the next course. Therefore, the "best" decision is to work out a solution with the instructor and the coordinator, resolve the problem with the instructor and students, and have students complete the course on schedule.

Planning is informed by the program design, learners' needs, and planner's commitment to improve the program and ensure that the
goals of the program are met. The instructor is not replaced, nor is he rehired. The evaluation policy is not used indiscriminately but with critical reflection and action. That is, it is shaped by planners' values and beliefs in fair play to arrive at defensible decisions and actions.

5.2 Pedagogical Knowledge

Netta's discussions with and classroom observation of instructors regarding the delivery of content provide insight to her use of pedagogical knowledge to facilitate adult learning and to ensure solid programs. Netta asks instructors to make conscious "why" and "when" they use the method, technique, or device to deliver the content, and whether the method, technique, or device is appropriate for content, and learners. Netta's purposeful classroom observation shapes her planning.

Similarly, Erna discusses evaluation methods which describe the nature of her pedagogical knowledge which informs planning:

...self-evaluation worked well at higher levels in the program rather than at entry level, because students at a higher level knew what they need to improve. Further, the discrepancy between students' and instructors' analysis was sometimes vast...some instructors did not have a firm enough grasp of the goals of the program. So I decided until we could improve the quality of instruction we would really be going out on a limb to use self evaluation...

(Inter III, p.4, L.4-6; p.6, L.15-22)

Erna concludes from her experimentation with self-evaluation that it is inappropriate to recommend the use of this method of evaluation. To be effective, students have to be at a more advanced level in the program. Some instructors must be clear about the goals of the program. There cannot be discrepancies between learners' and instructors' evaluation. As well, the
quality of instruction needs to be high. Erna's principle of "quality instruction" mediates the decision to recommend against the use of self-evaluation.

In regard to the pass-fail system of evaluation, Erna indicates that it cannot be used with certificate programs because letter grades are required by Senate regulation. However, Erna opposes letter grades because,

...it creates undue stress, most people want to do their best...I do not think it is the best way to encourage learning...

(Inter III, p.7, L.18-24)

Erna believes that the grading system creates a stressful learning environment which inhibits rather than encourages learning. She argues that there are alternate ways to facilitate and encourage learning, which include interactive testing.

However, the planner's values and beliefs mediate her planning decisions. Although she believes that interactive testing is a desirable method of evaluation because it is compatible with the principles of the communicative approach, she does not recommend it because she believes instructors are not conversant enough with it. The communicative approach is a learner-centered approach to language teaching which recognizes learners as rich resources in the teaching learning transaction. She does not impose any of the evaluation methods with which she experiments; rather, Erna indicates:

...whatever method of evaluation they want to use, we will help any instructor...the only guideline we offer is that 75% of the marks must be oral and 25% must be on written...the emphasis must be on the spoken language, not the written language...

(Inter III, p.8, L.9-11)
The choice of method of evaluation is left to the instructor. However, she provides general guidelines and assistance about evaluation. These guidelines are based on the principles of the communicative approach which inform language teaching.

Erna argues that language programs are conversational in nature, and learners register because they want to learn to speak another language. The unit has a moral obligation to maintain the integrity of the program by ensuring that courses are conversational. The guideline of basing 75% of the mark on oral work, and 25% on written work ensures that the emphasis is placed on the spoken rather than on the written language. Erna explains her view of the evaluation process:

...in the past I have been able to develop and maintain the programs without evaluation, now I have the luxury of evaluating programs, taking appropriate action and improving their quality. It is no longer just maintaining a program, it is growth and to me that is very important...

(Inter II, p.19, L.31-34)

Erna stipulates that purposeful evaluation is a process which accounts for qualitative differences between program maintenance on the one hand, and program development, growth, and quality on the other, and leads to appropriate action. She states:

...I am filling in that extra step but the result is a very high quality program that I knew inside out, that I continue to change and develop...

(Inter II, p.7, L.22-24)

Purposeful evaluation leads to changes, development, and high quality programs. However, programs have to fit within the framework of the institution's rules and regulations, and some flexibility and control are lost. For example, the informal pass-
fail system which seems more conducive to learning than the university letter grade system is no longer appropriate for courses which are part of certificates. Planners are compelled to switch to formal evaluation, which fits the institutional goals. The planner embarks on a process of problem setting and experimentation before recommending a particular method.

Planners' pedagogical knowledge including educational principles, values and beliefs, a sense of fair play, quality programs and instruction, moral obligation to students, the communicative approach, which are essential for critical reflection and action, shape planning. Planners hold problem solving meetings and classroom observation to deliberate and make the best decisions based on principles, the nature of programs, the institutional context, needs of learners, and instructors. Planners believe that certain methods of evaluation enhance students' learning, while others inhibit it, that purposeful evaluation contributes to high quality programs, and that the integrity of programs ought to be maintained.

6 Developing the Curriculum

Planners' discussion, related to developing the curriculum including identifying and selecting instructors, content, and objectives, holding orientation sessions, and nurturing instructors through professional development and classroom observation, typifies the nature of their conditional knowledge.

6.1 Principles of Practice: Content-Focused

With respect to identifying and selecting instructors, Pete's discussion in regard to the Futures Studies Program represents a content focused principle to planning:
...I envisioned a time when a course in futures research could be offered...at the university in political science departments...[because the]... information that is generated teaches research which is significantly important to every aspect of our lives...[The content includes]...a body of knowledge, a rich literature and scholars in the field...

(Inter I, p.19, L.19-26)

Pete's planning is content-centered. It is guided by his personal knowledge of the content, his belief in the importance of the body of knowledge, and a commitment to pass it on to learners. He argues that the body of knowledge is important enough to be incorporated into the university curriculum because the knowledge which it embodies is useful and relevant to learners. He relies on content specialists who are identified and selected through a committee structure on the basis of recommendations from experts in the field. Learners have little or no input in the process.

6.1.1 Efficiency and Effectiveness

To identify and select instructors, Netta uses a formal interview which is mediated by a number of criteria: instructors' teaching experience, their success as teachers and practitioners, their enthusiasm for teaching and sharing their knowledge. These instructors have content knowledge, and pedagogical skills to facilitate the teaching learning process. However, Netta redefines the task by her principle of practice which is not to hire consultants because they are not committed to the values and beliefs of continuing education, and facilitating adult learning.

Netta believes that it is her responsibility to ensure that instructors understand and are committed to these values and beliefs. It is not sufficient to simply hire instructors. A necessary condition of the hiring process is an orientation session
to inform them of policies, procedures, and values which are used to guide teaching in a university setting. This stance has implications for Netta's own values and beliefs about continuing education, adult learners, and the characteristics of a good teacher. The selection task is a complex process which is mediated by Netta's principles, procedures, and maxims for efficient and effective practice.

6.2 Educational Philosophy: A Communicative Approach

Erna, Anna, and Liz conduct formal interviews which are mediated by contextual values and their educational philosophy. Because of the financial objectives of the mandate, programs are developed which require hiring instructors on short notice. Erna argues that unwritten objectives of the communicative philosophy mediate practice:

...it is made clear...that the relationship to the student is the basis for why we are here...meeting students' needs...People are not hired unless...they can work with the communicative approach...It is an attitude to language learning, the role of the teacher, and the role of students...If there is a major philosophical difference then they probably do not get through the interview, observation, or demonstration phase...there is a kind of homogeneous atmosphere we all agree to...

(Inter V, p.14,L.15-29; p.15,L.14-17)

According to Erna, unwritten objectives represent an attitude towards learners, and the teaching learning process. It is an understanding, a tacit knowledge, a "homogeneous atmosphere" which those who work on the language team hold and share. This attitude is discussed with prospective instructors. It is also used as a criterion of hiring, in making classroom observation, and in monitoring the demonstration phase. In addition, there are functional and linguistic objectives which are integral to Language
Programs, and are used to determine if learners may advance to the next level. Erna suggests objectives and content are revised to facilitate learners' self-sufficiency. Thus, the principle of economy of content also mediates planning.

A step-by-step mechanistic process is not used but through deliberation planners shape planning. Integral written objectives—a system of checks and balances—represent a strategy to ensure that learners have achieved the knowledge and abilities to proceed to the next level. However, there is a tacit shared understanding that students are there to learn what the course outlines. Instructors use the framework of the course outline to teach. The planner ensures that the goals of the program are met through discussions, classroom observation, and students' evaluations of instructors.

Their planning is informed by a communicative approach to language teaching which is a system of beliefs and values about teaching and learning and working with adults. This includes the recognition that learners bring a wealth of knowledge to the classroom based on their experiences. The instructor is not the sole possessor of knowledge. Knowledge is constructed by the instructor and learners. The learning teaching transaction is a shared responsibility. As well, the instructor is not "in complete control". This suggests that learners share the responsibility for the teaching learning transaction and the evaluation process.

Erna uses a metaphor of a "ball" which embodies her personal philosophy that education is a collaborative learning teaching process whereby instructors facilitate adult learning. These planners' planning is learner-centered. However, Erna uses the
interview process to determine if instructors support the communicative approach to language teaching. She states:

...I was assured there was some agreement in principle with the philosophy and methodology of the communicative approach...

(Inter III, p.29, L.1)

Further, these planners undertake additional strategies which suggest their commitment to the communicative approach. They nurture instructors through professional development and classroom observation to ensure adherence to the communicative approach. Erna states:

...we wanted to find out what new materials they may be integrating...exchange ideas, ensure the communicative philosophy is adhered to because it is so different from the traditional teacher training they might have received...and to problem solve. People need a boost and I need to be reassured they are in fact not lecturing to their students, so I know the quality of programs is being upheld...

(Inter II, p.17, L.12-19)

Instructors are nurtured to ensure the quality of the program which is defined in terms of instructors' adherence to the communicative philosophy. These planners believe that regular meetings and professional development workshops are mechanisms to ensure that instructors integrate the principles of the communicative approach into their teaching as well as improve the quality of programs. Thus, procedure and policy issues related to scheduling meetings and professional development workshops are part of the agenda items at participant observation meetings. These planners shape planning through the communicative approach which draws conceptually upon the learner view of planning which is a whole system of beliefs and values related to the teaching-learning transaction, a role of
learners, a view of knowledge, and a view of the evaluation of students' learning.

6.3 Personal Intuitive Knowledge

While Erna, Liz, and Anna concur that as a general rule of thumb instructors are selected on the basis of an interview, mediated by a communicative approach to language teaching, they mediate the communicative approach which guides their practice. Anna discusses the nature of this activity. She states:

...in the French language program all instructors were hired because of their interest in and adherence to the philosophy of the communicative approach...

(Inter I, p.35, L.5-7)

However, Anna indicates that an instructor's teaching style is accommodated if the instructor is uncomfortable with the communicative approach and prefers a traditional lecture style. For instance, an instructor may have knowledge and abilities to teach but if the style is not suited to a conversational course which requires the use of the communicative approach, then the instructor's style is matched with an appropriate content.

Anna reports that because an instructor uses a traditional approach to teach, this does not indicate that the instructor is not qualified to teach for the unit. This approach may be quite appropriate for certain courses which the unit offers. What is important is that the approach be clearly specified so as not to mislead instructors and learners. On another level of analysis, the blind application of a policy, which is to hire only those who are interested in and committed to the communicative approach, is inappropriate. Anna believes there are various approaches to teaching and learning, and some are appropriate to certain content.
Anna's personal intuitive knowledge mediates the communicative approach. She explains:

...instructors cannot be satisfied they are excellent and have no more to learn. What constitutes excellence?...at least a good body of knowledge...it is no guarantee. I will not, if there were two people applying for a position and one had a Ph.D and the other a home fanatic... necessarily take the Ph.D...

(Inter I, p.16, L.15-22)

Anna believes that instructors ought to be continuous learners. This view of learning suggests a tentative and open disposition to knowledge. Thus, knowledge is viewed as socially constructed and not a body of facts to be passed on. Instructors ought to have a good command of the content, which is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for hiring. The fact that an instructor has a Ph.D is not an indicator that the instructor will be automatically selected to teach.

Knowledge of content is but one factor in the selection process. Other factors include: "...the ability to impart knowledge in a logical way" and at the same time motivate learners; "...the ability to respect students' rate of learning, students' style, sensitivity to the need to change pace", and learners' felt needs in the teaching learning transaction; and the ability to use appropriate methods, techniques, and devices in the delivery of content. Instructors who are selected have both content and pedagogical knowledge (Inter I, p.16, L.23-31). Instructors' personal qualities include respect and enjoyment of others, organizational skills, humour, enthusiasm for the content, and the ability to motivate learners. Anna does not rely only on instructor's supporting documentation. She states, "...those qualities and paper qualities also, but that is a very intuitive
thing, assessing these qualities." She seeks recommendations from those whose judgement she trusts and respects by making personal contacts in the community to gain information about potential instructors (Inter I, p.17, L.19-25). Instructors are judged on content, pedagogical knowledge, personal qualities, and on recommendations she receives. However, these factors are shaped by her intuitive knowledge - knowing a good instructor because of her experience.

Education is a social interactive process in which instructors facilitate learning in a supportive learning environment, learners contribute to a body of knowledge, and share the management and evaluation of knowledge. Moreover, learning is enhanced by learners' motivation to learn. This is stimulated by instructors' enthusiasm and humour in the teaching-learning transaction. In this view, a planner's intuitive knowledge mediates the communicative philosophy.

6.4 Personal Educational Philosophy

Joel's personal educational philosophy mediates the interview process. Joel indicates the interviews:

...were open ended with three or four knowledge questions and the philosophy base...their philosophy of education...I am a laid back, wide open person, I am a people person and believe we should deal with people we teach not as some one inferior...but as people who are good in their field and happen to be not as good in my field as I am not as good in theirs. Learning is a two way street. English is the only language...that has two separate verbs for the concepts of teaching and learning. But it is a two way street, you do not teach without learning and you do not learn without teaching...

(Inter I, p.16, L.1-24)

The analysis of interviewees' qualities, values, and beliefs is based on their response to three or four open-ended questions.
Moreover, it is planners' responsibility to ensure that instructors are knowledgeable in their field, are able to facilitate the learning process, and provide quality instruction. It is the students' right to have high quality instruction.

Joel considers himself a "people person", one who is fairly open to others, who believes in the equality of human beings, and who believes in people's unique knowledge and abilities. This uniqueness ought to be acknowledged, recognized, and affirmed. Uniqueness does not make one individual inferior to another. He believes there is no distinction between teaching and learning because these concepts are inseparable since one does not teach without learning and vice versa. He uses a metaphor of a "two-way street" which has implications for his educational philosophy.

6.4.1 A Metaphor

Joel's metaphor suggests that there is a fundamental unity between teaching-learning which is often neglected and denied in education and consequently in the approach to teaching and learning. If the fundamental unity is recognized, there may not exist an hierarchical relationship whereby the teacher is seen as the fountain of all knowledge, the "know it all", while learners are viewed as vessels or "dummies" into whom knowledge is poured.

A view of knowledge which suggests that knowledge is a body to be passed on to others negates the view that knowledge is socially constructed between and among teachers and learners, and that learners' knowledge and abilities are to be capitalized upon in the learning environment. To view knowledge as socially constructed is to see knowledge as a "perspective" which converts a "habit", a way of thinking of a concept, into new possibilities and ways of
knowing and being in the world (Schwab, 1969).

Further, the relationship between the teacher and learners is horizontal. The teacher and learners share the responsibility for what is included or excluded in the curriculum, and how knowledge is to be delivered and evaluated. Joel argues:

...in the English language there is that distinction. It imparts a know it all philosophy about teachers...they tend to think they know it all, and they have to pass this knowledge on to these dummies, and the concept that they can learn from their students is beyond them...

(Inter I, p.16, L.24-29)

Joel's metaphor conceptualizes his educational philosophy which shapes planning, and parallels the communicative approach which informs language teaching. His metaphor has implications for categories of his beliefs. The selection and justification of content includes learners' knowledge and abilities which are recognized as part of the resources of instruction out of which further knowledge is constructed. The process of managing the presentation of knowledge includes learners and teacher who share the responsibility not only for what is included and excluded, but also for managing the pedagogical components. This view of learners' role suggests that active participation through a number of techniques is part of the teaching learning environment. Evaluation of learners is the shared responsibility of the teacher and learners. As well, it is important to recognize and value learners' diversity in teaching and learning. Joel argues that learners who "...do not want to learn" may not share "our values" about education. The instructor's role is to "...help them find values that help them" learn. A large component in teaching and learning concerns "values" learners place on education and hence
their own motivation to "...want to learn". If learners view education as valuable to their personal and professional development, their motivation to learn may be enhanced. Instructors must have the ability to help learners find their motivators to learn since instructors cannot make learners learn. It is learners' motivation to learn which makes learning possible, not "...saying this is the curriculum and you are going to have to learn..." (Inter I, p.17, L.14-25).

The role the teacher plays in stimulating these values is critical, therefore the qualities of the teacher -a "people person"- are critical to successful teaching and learning. Teachers must have the insight to recognize that learners may not immediately understand the content covered, therefore teachers must help learners understand so that they can interpret, apply, and make the content their own, that is, make it relevant and useful. This suggests that the teacher facilitates the principle of the economy of content to ensure learners' self sufficiency through transfer of knowledge to other content. Joel explains:

...I tend to compare people in the interviews with answers they give which compare with my own thinking on how we should do teaching. If I felt comfortable with the answers then I felt we had a people person...we look for people who have the ability and insight to say just because I know does not mean they should understand the first time I tell them. That is what teaching is about...

(Inter I, p.16, L.29-35; p.17, L.1-12)

A personal educational philosophy which is embedded in the metaphor shapes a planner's practice. Planners' conditional knowledge including contextual values, and personal educational philosophy, values and beliefs, principles, and metaphors mediate planning.
6.5 Technical Focused Principle

Planners undertake activities related to identifying and selecting content. Planners' discussions represent the nature of conditional knowledge which informs this planning task.

Netta's discussion indicates that because of changes to an existing program, there are consequences related to students and content. As a result, she meets with students to discuss changes, rationale for changes, and the most appropriate course of action. In the case of the content, she indicates that it is important to identify the appropriate format for the content. In this regard, she asks questions which include: is it appropriate to offer the thirty hours as a seminar, workshop or a project? and what is the appropriate format given learners' and organization's requirement? Netta's planning is shaped by her values of efficiency, effectiveness, and pedagogical knowledge regarding the appropriateness of the content and format to meet learners' needs. Netta explains the difference between developing a new program and repairing an existing one:

...if you start something cold, you ask all the right questions before you put it in place, but if you are going to re-evaluate something, you do not think is appropriate, you have to be diplomatic...there is just so much more work...

(Inter I, p.26, L.16-23)

Netta believes that planning includes a process of critical analysis which may lead to repair of existing programs. Planning requires asking all the right questions or doing all the right things the planner does at the inception of planning. This suggests that Netta mediates planning through technical values.
6.6 Problem-Learner-Situation Focused Principle

Pete's discussion, in regard to the Gasper Program, typifies the nature of planning related to the problem-learner-situation. The leadership wants to ensure that students meet the university entrance requirements, and gain access to a classical liberal education which will create a range of educational opportunities for students. The leadership attempts to gain access to knowledge, power, and control for its community. In doing so, the leadership specifies the nature of programs and learners' educational needs, and it has the economic power to ensure that the system provides the required program.

The overriding aim of the program is to bring about social change by using the existing educational structures. This approach draws conceptually on the "residual" view of the problem-situation view which differs significantly from the content view which Pete uses to develop the Futures Studies Program. This approach is problem-learner-situation focused, and views knowledge as socially constructed, not a body of facts to be delivered to learners.

Further, it is not an "armchair" method to planning whereby the planner works independently from learners and the community to identify learners' needs. It is one in which the planner works in collaboration with learners, instructors, and the community to develop a program which is defined by the community to bring about social change. Pete indicates that because programs are planned within the framework of a small liberal arts institution, he is required to "...bend, manipulate and cajole" the system to meet the requirements of the community. Planning mediates and is mediated by internal and external contextual values.
6.7 Learner-Focused Principle

Joel's, Erna's, Liz's, and Anna's planning draws conceptually on a learner-focused view. Joel discusses the Native Students Program which typifies the nature of planning. Joel discovers a problem from discussions with learners and observation of their academic performance. Joel observes that aboriginal students in the program have a higher failure and a lower completion rate than other students, and they lack self confidence and self worth. He reconstructs the existing program. He maintains the program's goal which is to prepare learners for university by providing the core curriculum. He includes optional courses related to aboriginal culture, language, and law to provide learners with a sense of pride and self confidence. Also, he hires an aboriginal instructor to teach in the program.

These conditions-action-sequence are shaped by planner's learner-focused view and the principles of the program. Joel's principle of economy of content is to ensure learners' self sufficiency by providing a program which is useful and which they perceive as relevant. The program's principles are: learners are required to take a core program to meet the requirements of the university; and the institution is obliged to provide a program to facilitate learners' self sufficiency. Planners' learner-centered view and sense of responsibility mediate planning. Erna, Liz, and Anna discuss learners' role in planning. Liz's discussion represents the nature of learners' role:

...learners are allowed to give input into what they want to learn...so it is not necessarily instructors who establish a set curriculum but students will say, 'I would like to learn...' It is real language, it is not just, 'today we are going to learn this...' Unless it is
something learners want to learn because they need it, it is not going to be meaningful. It values learners...who have something to contribute. It is not just instructors coming and giving all this knowledge. It is sharing...and instructors facilitating...

(Inter III, p.24, L.16-20; p.25, L.1-23)

The content is focused on learners' felt needs. It is relevant and useful to learners. It is not necessarily a set curriculum which instructors deliver but what learners need to learn is included in the materials to be covered. Learners' input is central to teaching and learning. Liz develops strategies to increase awareness of and participation in programs based on a learner-centered approach:

...it is the way to go because it benefits students...I want to do what is best for students...My personal beliefs, what students' needs are, and what adult education should be...how those needs should be met...I look to students first, then build on what their needs are. If the program is not meeting the needs I will change the program...programs have constantly, slowly been evolving...It is not easy, it is...complicated because of money, time, and other issues...

(Inter V, p.17, L.7-22; p.19, L.2-lO)

Her fundamental commitment to a learner-centered approach informs her practice. To be responsive to learners' educational needs requires a process of adjusting, repairing, and changing programs. It is not a simple process but rather a complicated one because of money, time, and other issues. However, identifying learners' felt needs is a principle which guides her practice. Programs which are designed around these needs are built on a learner-centered principle, and the economy of content, which means that content ought to ensure learners' self sufficiency.

7 Summary of Conditional Knowledge

Conditional knowledge deals with conditions-action-sequence
which implement actions when certain pre-conditions are met. It answers the questions "why" and "when". For instance, a planner questions why the drop out rate of aboriginal students is higher than other students? when does this occur? The response to these questions leads to the conclusion that something "ought to be done" based on the contextual values and planners' values and beliefs. A planner's educational values and beliefs suggest that the program ought to facilitate learners' self sufficiency, while contextual values -the goals and expectation of the institution- suggest that learners are required to take the core content to meet the requirement of the university.

The response is made on the basis of planners' principles and contextual values. For instance, a planner makes an ethical and moral decision because it is the right thing to do. A planner changes the situation because of rights, obligations, and responsibilities derived from contextual values and principles derived from self. This knowledge modifies planning and is essential for critical reflection and action. This does not suggest a hierarchy of levels of knowledge but rather represents a different response to the situation.

The planning process suggests that more data are added based on deliberation -reciprocity- that is, interaction, reaction, and action, as decisions are made and actions are carried out at each level of knowledge. These data are gathered through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self. Planners transform these data into knowledge to understand the situation, and gain insight and understanding, meaning making and judgement, and arrive at defensible decision making and action.
Planners use an adaptive intelligence to identify, weigh, and select educational alternatives and choices in planning. Planners make the "best" decision in deciding "what ought to be done" in the situation. These processes result in the reformulation of planning.

Planners' conditional knowledge includes contextual values, such as economic, political, social, educational; and planners' educational philosophy, principles, metaphors, values, and beliefs which shape planning. The principle of economy of content which informs planning means that content ought to facilitate learners' self-sufficiency. There are three ways in which content is economical: teaching effort and use of resources, learners' efforts, and generalizability. The principle fails in one critical way because the content does not facilitate learners' self-sufficiency because it is not generalizable. Therefore, a planner changes the program.

Abstract values of responsibility and obligation to ensure that learners receive a program that is useful, relevant, and facilitates their self-sufficiency inform planning. The principle of learners' freedom to choose from a list of options informs planning; therefore, optional courses are included. Planners' values and beliefs about educational purposes, experiential knowledge of aboriginal students, a sense of an appropriate instructor, and pedagogical knowledge of the learning teaching environment inform planning. The next chapter develops the deliberative practical planning framework which emerges from the data.
CHAPTER SEVEN
Towards A Deliberative Practical Planning Framework

Practical knowledge is an important component of planners' knowledge of planning. However, little research has been done in adult education to develop the concept of practical knowledge. Therefore, the study builds on research in education including Elbaz's (1983) study on teachers' practical knowledge. Moreover, the data highlight an important discrepancy between the teachers' practical knowledge literature and planning practice, and provide a framework for describing, categorizing, and organizing practical knowledge. This chapter describes the relationship of planners' practical knowledge and components of planning. Then, it summarizes planners' practical knowledge. This is followed by a summary of planners' components of planning. And finally, it proposes a deliberative conceptual framework of practice.

1 Summary and Discussion of Planners' Practical Knowledge

In comparing the practical knowledge which planners' use in practice with that described in the literature, the gaps which emerge relate to declarative, procedural, and particularly conditional knowledge. These aspects of practical knowledge have remained unexplored in the adult education literature.

1.1 Declarative Knowledge

Declarative knowledge sought by these planners includes: knowledge of organizational context including the mandate, deficit, and budget process; knowledge of research methods, program content, program ideas, problem setting, and evaluation; and knowledge of the field of adult education including the commonplaces of program design and the components of planning. Declarative knowledge
consists of concepts, conceptual structures, and methodologies related to a discipline or field of study. Further, planners' decisions and actions suggest a number of concepts and processes which describe their conceptions of practical knowledge and planning.

For instance, through deliberation in the specific situation, a planner identifies a focus of concern among aboriginal students. The planner collects, analyzes, synthesizes, and evaluates declarative knowledge related to the commonplaces which describes "what is the case" and answers the question "what". This information does not tell planners what to do, but sets the problem or feeds into the re-definition of the problem, and is informed by an act-knower-context sequence of planning. Based on these data, the planner identifies that there is a high drop out and failure rate among aboriginal learners in the program. These students lack academic knowledge, skills, abilities, and self confidence. The city environment places constraints on aboriginal learners who are from rural areas. The curriculum does not include relevant and useful courses.

Declarative knowledge is a fundamental component of planners' practical knowledge. It is an information aspect which describes the situation. The planner makes a decision to investigate the problem further. However, this knowledge is limited because it does not provide the "how" to proceed related to the planning process which is required for follow-up investigation of the focus of concern. Planners undertake specific strategies, directly related to planning, which are informed by procedural knowledge, but which build on declarative knowledge. Thus, these components
of knowledge are dialectically interrelated.

1.2 Procedural Knowledge

Planners use procedural knowledge which is knowledge of rules and routines of planning. This knowledge includes the planning context; collaborating with internal and external partners; assessing needs such as originating ideas and validating them through formal and informal strategies; evaluating programs through formal, summative, and routine strategies, and informal, formative, and eclectic strategies; promoting, marketing, and budgeting programs; and developing the curriculum. Developing the curriculum also includes identifying and selecting content, instructors, and objectives, offering orientation sessions, observing classroom instruction, and nurturing instructors through professional development.

The planner pursues formal and informal strategies which include: discussing the situation with learners to define the problem; comparing and contrasting the performances of aboriginal students with other students in the program; eyeballing and observing the progress of aboriginal students; examining the content in the curriculum; and analyzing the context of the program and environmental factors as they relate to these learners. The planner conducts formal and informal needs assessment and evaluation strategies related to the aboriginal students in the program, the fit of the program to meet learners' educational needs, and the instructors' knowledge, skills and abilities to teach aboriginal students. These strategies lead to the identification of learners' educational needs, the development and addition of new objectives and courses to the existing program to
meet learners' educational needs, and the selection of an aboriginal instructor.

Procedural knowledge deals with the necessary strategies to accomplish the planning tasks and answers the question "how to". This knowledge provides an interpersonal communication aspect which informs planning. Procedural knowledge is a fundamental component of planners' practical knowledge which is dialectically interrelated with declarative knowledge. Moreover, procedural knowledge is informed by conditional knowledge.

1.3 Conditional Knowledge

Planners use conditional knowledge, that is, knowledge used to justify their decisions. It consists of their understanding of contextual values such as educational, political, economic, and social values as well as principles of practice, educational philosophy, and guiding metaphors. For instance, it comprises planners' beliefs in a learner-centered view and a principle of economy of content to educational planning, learners' rights for solid, quality educational programs, and planners' responsibility to protect these rights. Further, it consists of planners' ethical and moral values and beliefs in fair play, justice, and equality of opportunity to participate in decision making.

Conditional knowledge entails an interpretation of contextual values, and planners' principles, values, and beliefs in planning. Planners identify, weigh, and select educational alternatives based on a consideration of policy and practice issues which are often incompatible and inconsistent and present moral and ethical dilemmas. Conditional knowledge answers the questions "why" and "when" and suggests "what ought to be done". This knowledge deals
with the conditions-action-sequence which implements action when certain pre-conditions are met, and is essential for critical decision making.

Planners collect data through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the tasks, others, and self to act appropriately in the situation. For instance, the team approach, the formal structure of the organization, fosters a personal and informal planning process which facilitates direct, indirect, and tacit learning through coaching, mentoring, researching, problem solving, interacting, discussing, and sharing with others in the decision making process.

Further, in planning programs for various groups, including non-traditional groups, planners manipulate administrative structures and negotiate the views, interest, values and beliefs of stakeholders. Planning is situated in a context, with specific learners, instructors, and content. Planners anticipate, adjust, and make changes in planning based on contextual values and their values and beliefs. This view of planning is consistent with a view that planners act intentionally and discriminately to make defensible decisions. Based on deliberation over the commonplaces of planning, which is informed by practical knowledge, planners shape planning. For instance, because of the objectives of the mandate, Joel and Netta reconstruct the nature of programs, learners, content, and the budgeting process within an economic context. Joel does not document the need for certificate programs nor does he ensure the soundness of the program. Rather, he gathers data from a number of sources including self and gives directives to planners to develop as many certificates as quickly
as possible. In contrast, Netta proposes consensual understanding of an action plan, a procedural strategy, based on a financially viable framework for action and decision making. Netta's principle of economy of content, that is, content which facilitates learners' self-sufficiency, and her vision of an autonomous but integrated unit, shape her planning.

In like manner, Liz, Erna, and Anna shape the deficit and the budget process. Based on a consideration of the objectives of the mandate and a learner-centered perspective, the budget formula is applied discriminately. Liz offers the course in spite of the loss of income because learners require the course to complete their program, specific learners cannot pay a higher tuition fee, or the reputation and credibility of the institution seem to be at risk. In another case, based on data which describe the situation, Liz reduces the offerings because low enrolment indicates a lack of need for the offering, and the market is saturated. In contrast, she increases the promotion to create awareness of offerings and increase enrolment. Similarly, Erna shapes planning. She grows personally and professionally because of the need to reduce the deficit and work within the budget formula. She engages in research and readings related to planning, she develops strategies to evaluate programs, and she resists, on ethical and moral grounds, the pressure to put forward certificates which are not solid.

Planners shape the budget process. The simple application of a formula, to generate 25-35% profit across the board, proves to be inappropriate behaviour and leads to negative consequences. Deliberation leads to insight and understanding, meaning-making and
judgement, and defensible decision making and action among conflicting and competing demands of the particular case at hand. Planners agree that they negotiate a reduced profit on the basis of the requirements of the program vis-a-vis learners' requirement to complete the program.

Although the budget formula is determined at the policy level by an income to expense formula, at the level of practice, it is re-defined through dialectic mediation. It is not applied indiscriminately but is mediated by a number of factors including the context, learners, content, and instructors. Planners negotiate the budget based upon not only economic objectives of the mandate but also a range of factors which includes contextual values and planners' values and beliefs about practice.

Conditional knowledge, which is an integral component of planners' practical knowledge, has remained underdeveloped in the teacher thinking literature. This component of practical knowledge speaks to contextual values, planners' educational principles, values, beliefs, metaphors, the ideological character of knowledge, and the ethical and moral dilemmas of practice. It is knowledge which is essential for a critical reflection aspect. Further, it is dialectically interrelated with declarative and procedural knowledge which inform planning.

Practical knowledge consists of the interrelationship of declarative knowledge which is essential for an information aspect of planning; procedural knowledge of rules and routines of planning which is essential for an interpersonal communication aspect of planning; and conditional knowledge of contextual values, and planner's educational principles, metaphors, values and beliefs.
which is essential for a critical reflection aspect. Based on deliberation over the commonplaces, planners gather data through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self and transform these into knowledge to understand the situation. Planners use an adaptive intelligence to identify, weigh, and select educational alternatives and choices in planning. The purpose of planners' practical knowledge is to make the "best" decision, that is, act appropriately in planning.

2 Summary and Discussion of Planners' Knowledge of Planning

Planners pay attention to a number of components of planning which include a focus of concern, planning context, collaborating with partners, assessing needs, evaluating programs, promoting, marketing, and budgeting programs, and developing curriculum. These components are consistent with those identified in the generic model of planning (Sork and Buskey, 1986). However, the components identified in this research as "a focus of concern", "planning context", "collaborating with partners", and "nurturing instructors" (which is included under the component "developing curriculum") are rarely described in the adult education planning literature. In addition, each component includes a number of interrelated activities and decisions which form a cluster (Pennington and Green, 1976).

The commonplaces of planning including learners, context, instructors, content, and planners are central aspects which inform planning (Schwab, 1969). Planners "know" the essential components of planning which may be framed in terms of the academic or generic model of planning. In practice this model is a springboard to planning: the model provides the theoretical underpinnings which
inform practice. However, in the process of deliberation planners reformulate these given components of planning through dialectic mediation (the interrelationship of the three kinds of knowledge which inform practical knowledge).

2.1 Planning Context

The planning context includes a cluster of interrelated activities and decisions which planners identified during the interviews. These include the mandate of the unit, operational policies and practices, team concept, mission of the institution, deficit, and budget process. The planning context gives meaning and understanding to planners' actions and decisions. Planners discuss these tasks because they permeate planning activities.

Further, this aspect of planning highlights an important discrepancy between planning models found in the literature and practice. With a few noted exceptions, for example Boyle (1981), and Kowalski (1988), little attention is given to the nature of the planning context in the literature. However, it is an integral part of planning which influences planning practice. It influences to some degree the nature of planning by providing the direction for action and decisions.

The planning context reveals the uniqueness, uncertainty, and complexity of the planning situation and contributes to the intentional, systematic, and emergent nature of planning practice. Planners work within incompatible and inconsistent demands which often present ethical and moral dilemmas which require deliberation to arrive at appropriate decisions and actions. These values are rarely addressed in the planning literature.

For example, one of the planner's goals is to provide a solid
program which meets learners' needs while achieving the outcomes specified by the program. This goal is based on a planner's learner-centered approach guided by moral and ethical principles. However, the directives to offer as many certificates as possible, within strict time constraints, to achieve the objectives of the mandate mitigate well designed programs aimed at meeting learners' educational needs.

Further, with a few noted exceptions, for example Houle (1972), the practice situation is presented as routine, logical, and linear while practice is seen as mechanistic. Consequently, the underlying synergistic nature, and the complexity of the interacting elements of planning are under-determined. For instance, the mission that the unit be the resource link for learners to gain access to the economic and political systems, and the objectives of the mandate that the unit offer worthwhile, income generating programs for the downtown core area learners, while being recognized as the inner city university are incompatible and inconsistent. The economic objective of the mandate dictates the nature and number of programs offered, content identified, and clientele served.

At the level of practice, planners have to justify their decisions and actions to meet the directives to offer as many certificates as possible, even if a felt or ascribed educational need for a program has not been demonstrated, even if the time constraints mitigate developing solid, well designed programs, and even if a program is designed to meet the needs of those who can afford to pay. Systemic discrimination and structural barriers are perpetuated because the mission and mandate are not supported at
the policy level.

On the one hand, the planner engages in "intelligent programming". This includes intentional, emergent planning, such as discussing, second guessing, indirect reasoning, intuiting, negotiating, and anticipating to arrive at appropriate decisions and actions about planning programs. On the other hand, planners are required to plan programs without a systematic plan of action and consensus about how to achieve the mandate. Consequently, planners may engage in uncritical practice because the economic objective of the mandate overrides other planning considerations. However, planners may elect to resign because of incompatible and inconsistent policy and practice issues, or planners may choose to resist plans to achieve the mandate on the terms specified by the directives.

Similarly, the operational policies and practices influence planning practice. To achieve the mandate, there is an expansion of programs offered and numbers of learners served. However, there is no adjustment to the internal systems, staffing arrangements, and planners' work load which lead to poor utilization of planners' time and job dissatisfaction. On the one hand, the unit is restructured on the team concept to give planners responsibility and an opportunity to participate in decisions vis a vis the development and growth of programs. On the other hand, the structure is designed to facilitate the achievement of the mandate. Planners are expected to take responsibility and make decisions. They negotiate the views, behaviours, values, and beliefs of a variety of interest groups because planning is situated within a context, with specific
learners, content, instructors, and stakeholders. The data are consistent with Houle's (1972) statement that the design of a program is in a constant state of reformulation (p.39).

However, the team approach provides an opportunity for planners to interact, share and discuss ideas, problem solve, and learn from each other. Informal sharing and learning are substitutes for systematic on the job training. In short, coaching and mentoring are part of the function of the team structure. The team becomes the sounding board and support system for developing and confirming planning activities and decisions. The team approach facilitates planning practice.

Also, the deficit budget and related budget process mediate planning. Because of the deficit, planners are required to decrease expenses, increase offerings and enrolment, and generate 25-35% profit, while the budget formula is determined by the criterion to cover the deficit. The purpose of planning is to generate income to remove the deficit. Consequently, some planners grow personally and professionally. Planners develop new programs, while existing programs are modified and offered in new formats regardless of the appropriateness of the fit of the content to the new format. Planners use brainstorming techniques to develop themes, update and manipulate mailing lists to market programs, and increase the promotion of programs. Planners explore other sources of data including reading material related to planning.

Planners do not indiscriminately apply the budget formula but justify any deviation from the formula on consideration of learners' ability to pay, the nature of the program, the requirements of learners, the reputation of the division, the
context of planning, and instructors. Planning involves deliberation about a number of educational alternatives to arrive at appropriate decisions. However, the time for careful analysis, critical reflection, and defensible decision making is reduced because planning is not only driven by the mission and the mandate, but also by the deficit and the budget formula. In the planning literature, because there is so little attention given to the planning context, these practice issues are often un-addressed.

2.2 Collaborating with Partners

Collaborating with partners and related activities and decisions highlight yet another important discrepancy between planning models found in the literature and practice. Collaboration has received little attention in the body of literature on planning models. Further, although not all planners identify this component of planning, these discussions suggest that the series "collaborating with partners" overlaps with the series labelled planning context, assessing needs, and developing the curriculum.

Using strategies, these planners collaborate with external and internal partners to: provide and gain information related to a program; gain support from key groups and potential learners for a program; create awareness of and increase participation in a program; identify and work with experts in the community; define learners' educational needs; create a network of support for a program; allow information to filter through the community; reduce opposition from key groups and individuals to a program; and achieve the economic, educational, and political objectives of the mandate. However, the overriding reason for collaborating appears
to be the principle of utility and self interest. Collaboration is not a virtue or social good in and of itself but a political strategy to gain benefits from the environment to achieve the mandate.

The nature of the collaboration in which these planners engage is tangential or a form of co-sponsorship which allows planners to take little risk while maintaining control and power. This form of collaboration is defined within the framework of the economic objectives of the mandate. While there may be other models of collaboration which may efficiently and effectively achieve these objectives, these planners do not explore any models nor the nature of collaboration. However, because of economic constraints which currently confront most university continuing education units, the nature and models of collaboration may become important to the planning process.

These planners identify benefits and costs from collaborating. The tangible benefits to the unit include: gaining learners and income; gaining knowledge to develop a solid program; gaining instructors and instructional support; and most of all achieving the economic, educational, and political objectives of the mandate. The intangible benefits to the unit are: to gain status, domain, and recognition in the community and in the university. Partners may gain a reputable program, learners, income, status, and recognition. Learners may gain a well designed program which may be offered in their community, and instructors who may be accessible to them. The costs involve: loss of some autonomy over the program; loss of time and energy in the process of working with partners; and negative consequences in the event of termination of
The series "collaborating with partners" suggests that planning requires knowledge of and sensitivity to the political and economic context. In other words, who are the stakeholders? and what are their roles and responsibilities vis a vis the client group for whom a program is designed? This knowledge influences planning practice. It suggests that planners are required to proceed cautiously while exercising judgement in planning. It also guides the nature and scope of the data collection phase, and suggests whom to involve in planning. Collaborating suggests that the linear representation of planning found in much of the planning literature, (that is, objectives are determined, content is developed, and criteria are identified to achieve these objectives) does not match practice, but contributes to the decontextualization of practice.

For instance, while little attention is given in the program planning literature to contextual conditions related to planning context, (Pennington and Green, 1976) even less attention is given to "collaborating with partners". Important issues related to the nature, benefits and costs, and models of collaboration are rarely found in the planning literature. Neither is there widespread discussion related to contextual values and planners' values and beliefs which influence the nature of activities and decisions related to these components.

The linear representation of planning presented in much of the literature and its associated mode of knowing are limited in facilitating appropriate actions and decisions, that is, defensible decision making, which is the considered weighing of educational
alternatives as a guide to choice and action. Further, it fails to account for conditional knowledge - contextual values and planners' values and beliefs - and the activities and decisions related to the series labelled "collaborating with partners". This mode of knowing answers the questions "why" and "when" and suggests "what ought to be done". It deals with conditions-action-sequences that implement actions when certain pre-conditions are met, and is essential for critical decision making.

2.3 Assessing Needs

Assessing needs and related activities and decisions include originating the idea, and validating it through formal and informal needs assessment. Not all planners engage in all these activities and decisions; rather, the majority of planners conduct informal needs assessment. Only one planner conducts a formal needs assessment. Further, a focus of concern triggers the needs assessment process. Dewey (1938) states all knowledge begins in problems which emphasizes the dialectic relation of theory-practice. Moreover, Griffith (1978) states "...the process of educational needs assessment requires a normative standard, a factual description of the current situation of a group of potential learners, a comparison of the two, and a commitment to the goal of reducing the discrepancy" (p.393).

From the analysis, a focus of concern is associated with the problem setting stage that consists of discussions with students, observation and comparison of their academic performance against a normative standard. This information aspect leads to description of their educational needs. Through strategies such as discussing, observing, or eyeballing and comparing the situation, and problem
solving, the planner gains insight into the situation, and sets the problem through collecting, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating data.

"Assessing needs" has been well documented in the body of literature on planning (Houle, 1972; Boyle, 1981; Boone, 1985; and Sork and Buskey, 1986). Formal comprehensive needs assessment is prescribed as an important planning procedure. In comparing this prescribed procedure and practice, the data suggest that planners conduct informal rather than formal comprehensive strategies because of time constraints, the exigencies of the situation, and lack of expertise. This is consistent with Pennington and Green's (1976) study. However, these planners reformulate the needs assessment process.

The nature of needs assessment is determined by factors including originating and validating the idea. Ideas originate from a number of sources which include: clear messages which the unit sends to the community; an analysis of the history, resources, and nature of the small liberal arts college of which the unit is a part; the market analysis which the unit commissions; observing and scanning the environment to determine trends, job market requirements, and policy issues related to education; documenting needs that learners identify; compiling a list of learners' requests; collaborating with associations, community, and organizations; and personal interest in and knowledge of a content area.

Further, since planners are unable to develop all ideas which originate from all sources they must decide which of the competing educational needs are worth pursuing. This requires a value
judgement, not a reliance on hard data. Thus, validating the idea further influences the nature of the needs assessment strategy. Most of these planners validate the idea by using informal strategies. A planner defends a personal idea by presenting a written proposal to the dean. The decision to present the idea is based on the planner's personal values and beliefs about the intrinsic value of the content. Three planners suggest that because needs are identified by learners themselves, they are justified in offering a program. Therefore, a program which is developed in response to learners' felt needs becomes the needs assessment instrument which validates the idea.

These planners support the use of informal strategies to validate the needs for programs. One planner argues that a formal needs assessment is not necessary if learners identify the needs, and if the course is filled when it is offered. Research is not necessary in this case. Planners suggest that the purpose of research or statistics is to confirm or support their knowledge of the situation. Research describes the situation; it does not tell planners what to do. Planners make decisions about what ought to be done on the basis of conditional knowledge which includes contextual values and their values and beliefs.

These planners indicate that, although the market survey provides information about learners' needs, location and schedule for programs, and demographic data, this information is not reliable unless planners bring their knowledge to bear on the data. They use their personal knowledge of community, learners' characteristics and abilities, and needs to inform decisions. The needs assessment strategy provides communicative understanding and
interaction but does not tell "what ought to be done". This way of knowing is based on conditional knowledge, contextual values and planners' values and beliefs, which stresses the inherent value position of needs assessment which is underdetermined in the literature on planning (Monette, 1977).

Planners use hard data to satisfy the administrative system or to substantiate what they already know intuitively or from experience. That is, intimate, personal knowledge is gained by experience over time through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to tasks, others and self which suggests the active relationship between planners and their environment. According to Dewey (1938) genuine knowledge and understanding are achieved through the support of experience and practice, that is, the dialectic relation between theory and practice.

Moreover, there is a synergistic relationship which informs contextual values, planners' values and beliefs, and planning which gives meaning and direction to planners' activities and decisions. There is also an overlapping relationship among these series. For instance, while planners collaborate with associations, community, and organizations to identify program ideas, they also collaborate to gain benefits from these environments to achieve the mandate. Assessing needs overlaps with collaborating with partners and the planning context.

In the literature, needs assessment is seen as an important formal comprehensive strategy of planning (for example, Houle, 1972; Boone, 1985; and Sork and Buskey, 1986). However, the evidence supports Pennington and Green's (1976) findings that in practice, planners generally do not conduct formal comprehensive
needs assessment. Moreover, time constraints, exigencies of the situation, and lack of expertise may be barriers to conducting comprehensive needs assessment. However, contrary to Pennington and Green's findings, these planners do not give lip service to the importance of needs assessment. These planners suggest that valid and reliable data are available from other sources including informal and formal needs assessment strategies which together with their knowledge of the situation provide sufficient data to make defensible decisions. The importance of informal sources of data is stressed as well as the interrelation of formal and informal data.

2.4 Evaluating Programs

Evaluating programs and related activities and decisions, include: conducting formal and summative evaluation, identifying a focus of concern, and holding informal and formative evaluation. In the planning literature, evaluation is identified as an important part of planning which is defined as formal, comprehensive, and integral (Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1980; Boyle, 1981; Boone, 1985). While the data are consistent with these claims they also suggest a reformulating (Houle, 1972) of the concept of evaluation to include a focus of concern, informal, and non-routinized or eclectic processes.

All of the planners who were interviewed in this research undertake formal and summative evaluation which is an integral routinized aspect of planning enacted on the basis of a policy or a rule of practice which stipulates that at the end of every course an evaluation is to be conducted. In this regard, declarative knowledge is collected, analyzed, synthesized, and evaluated
without any attention given to "why" and "when" to use the data. Planners claim lack of time, heavy workloads, and the sheer quantity of the data have led to inappropriate practice - data are filed without use. In this case, evaluation is not useful and meaningful to practice but is only a routinized procedure which contributes to mindless practice.

In contrast, planners' sense of desirable practice, which is guided by interest in and attention to practice, is a trigger in planning. Planners' deliberation, mindful action and interaction about the commonplaces, leads to identifying foci of concerns and conducting informal formative strategies. Deliberation is informed by planners' notion of a desirable state of affairs which is a humanizing factor of practice. This provides the glue to the elements of planning. Deliberation facilitates the problem setting stage which consists of the act-knower-context sequence. Planners identify foci of concerns related to the practice situation. A planner scrutinizes the evaluation procedure used to collect data related to the commonplaces, eyeballs the situation, and holds informal discussions with learners. The planner recognizes that the procedure does not guarantee confidentiality; therefore, learners may be unwilling to provide open and honest responses to questions. Further, planners in this study were required to switch from a pass-fail to the university letter grade system to be consistent with the university policy. Therefore, a planner, who is charged with changing the system, engages in research and study of the evaluation literature before making decisions about an appropriate method. Planners may lack formal knowledge of evaluation which is commonly regarded as essential to planning.
Moreover, a focus of concern is identified because learners claim that an instructor is a racist, or because there is a 50% drop out rate in a course. These foci of concerns related to the commonplaces, lead planners to initiate informal, formative, non-routinized/eclectic evaluation strategies to improve practice.

A planner institutes a new policy as a guide to practice: only new courses and instructors will be evaluated; and if there is a problem the course will be evaluated. The evaluation instrument is reviewed, revised, and reduced to a very simple five question form. Because learners claim an instructor is a racist, a planner initiates pencil and paper tests, pre and post tests, and an ethnographic study. The planner reviews test scores and examination, and holds problem solving meetings with instructor, learners, and coordinator. Moreover, a planner conducts classroom observation as a means of improving classroom instruction and ensuring that instructors follow the communicative approach. These strategies may become part of the repertoire of practice.

Planners use evaluation results discriminately, that is, they use an adaptive intelligence in planning. On the basis of negative evaluation, a decision not to rehire an instructor is not made automatically. Planners' values and beliefs mediate the decision. The rule determined by procedural knowledge is mediated by conditional knowledge which is essential for critical decisions about practice.

2.5 Promoting and Marketing Programs

Promoting and marketing programs include activities and decisions related to developing a directory, and developing alternative strategies to increase awareness of and participation
in programs. The series parallels information presented in the planning literature with the noted exception that in actual practice planners redefine the planning tasks. However, the activities described in this series are not exhaustive of all possible planning activities and decisions described in the literature (Knowles, 1980; and Burnham, 1988), but are the ones that planners discuss in the interviews. Planners do not use a comprehensive marketing and promoting plan because they lack time and expertise.

Moreover, promoting and marketing programs are complex tasks which involve acquiring data related to learners, their educational needs, their community, the context, the availability of other programs, the content, and instructors. Promoting and marketing are defined as strategies undertaken to provide information about the price, location, instructors, and programs to learners for purposes of increasing awareness of and gaining participation in programs. The strategies used to promote and market programs include: develop written materials such as a directory and timetables; and use alternative forms such as newspapers, television, and oral communication.

2.6 Developing the Curriculum

Developing the curriculum and related activities and decisions include: identify and select instructors through a committee structure; conduct informal and formal interviews; hold orientation sessions; nurture instructors through professional development and classroom observation; identify and select content based on a content, problem-situation, and learner view; identify and select objectives; and the role of learners.
In comparing the activities and decisions related to developing the curriculum with ideal models described in the planning literature, a number of discrepancies emerge with respect to identifying and selecting instructors, and identifying and selecting content and objectives. Identifying and selecting instructors is an important component in developing the curriculum. Planners gather data to describe the situation, and undertake formal routinized strategies, such as advertising for instructors and conducting interviews. These strategies are consistent with those found in the literature (Knowles, 1980).

However, planners undertake simultaneously a number of informal activities in support of, or independent of, the formal strategies. Informal strategies include making personal contacts with members in the community to check references, soliciting recommendations about potential instructors, negotiating with instructors, and nurturing instructors. This informal aspect of planning is rarely identified in the planning literature but represents an important component of planning which renders planning non-routinized.

Further, the process of identifying and selecting instructors is interrelated with other activities and decisions related to developing the curriculum. It is not a step-by-step procedure. It may be initiated by individual planners or by members of a committee at any point in planning (Houle, 1972). Planners use aspects of different planning models identified in the literature rather than the academic model informed by Tyler's rationale (Gay, 1980).

For instance, Netta's planning is guided by a personal rule of
practice which becomes a policy: not to hire instructors who are consultants because they are not committed to the norms and values of the unit. She holds orientation sessions to: familiarize instructors with unit's policies and procedures; provide information on the program, course, or learners; and ensure instructors understand the rules, routines, and norms of the unit, feel part of the staff, and become team players. Identifying and selecting instructors is not a simple outcome of an interview, but rather a part of a complex process which is mediated through deliberation based on practical knowledge which includes planner's values and beliefs of efficiency and effectiveness, and rules of practice. In this case, planning draws conceptually on a technical model.

In contrast, Erna's, Liz's, and Anna's planning is informed by a communicative approach which is a whole system of values and beliefs about education, knowledge, learners, and the teaching-learning transaction. The learner is central to this approach. These planners use the communicative approach as a rule of planning. Instructors are identified and selected based on a rule that they must support the approach. However, this rule is translated into a principle of practice because planners believe that high quality programs will be ensured if instructors are committed to and support this approach. These planners conduct professional development and classroom observations to nurture the approach. A principle of practice incorporates a rule of practice. This is consistent with Elbaz's (1983) finding.

Moreover, planners' knowledge is often expressed through metaphors, such as a "two-way street", a "ball", or a "blossom".
An examination of the metaphors reveals that they embody planners' educational philosophies which include not only their rules and principles of practice, but also their values and beliefs of education. This finding parallels Elbaz's (1983) use of "image". Further, the communicative approach which provides a focal point of these three planners' practice is mediated by their personal values and beliefs. In this case, planning draws conceptually on an learner-focused view of planning. Planners' educational philosophy, principles, values and beliefs which inform practice are rarely discussed in the literature.

A major discrepancy with practice and the planning literature is identified. Planners fail to discuss if those involved in programs, which are designed for them, are informed about how they are to carry out the plans made for them. As well, planners do not discuss the basis on which decisions are made regarding if a program is to be repeated. It appears that, in most cases, a decision to repeat an educational activity is automatic regardless of whether measurement or appraisal is undertaken. According to Houle (1972), this approach precludes the need for critical examination of a program, an essential process in the sound development of a program.

However, based on deliberation in the situation mediated by practical knowledge, planners conduct formal and informal strategies related to identifying and selecting instructors and content. Planners' practical knowledge includes not only contextual values and planners' values and beliefs, but also planners' rules, principles, and metaphors of practice. These knowledge components are not identified in the planning literature.
but are essential for critical decision making. Further, in the academic model, a prescriptive first step in planning is to identify objectives and criteria to measure that they have been achieved. However, actual practice does not reflect this step-wise process. This finding is consistent with the research of Taylor (1970) and Zahorik (1975), and the theoretical formulation of Houle (1972). Rather, although a planner may draw upon a content approach, objectives are seen as goals of a program which are integral components of a comprehensive outline which describes the program.

Planners on the language team whose planning is guided by a communicative approach use objectives in unique and idiosyncratic ways. While Erna sees objectives as an important part of planning, Liz believes objectives are not ends but a process by which learners improve. Liz considers them to be implicitly stated broad, general goals of the program, while Erna carefully considers the various types of objectives which include linguistic, functional, and unwritten objectives as an inherent component of the language program.

Moreover, Erna emphasizes the use of objectives as an instrument to assess and control the flow of learners from one level to another. Erna also believes the size and nature of programs determine the role of objectives. She argues that, in the case of small program areas, objectives are not necessary because the planner deals closely with instructors and learners to ensure that the implicit goals of the program are achieved. However, in larger program areas, objectives are formalized in the program and serve a number of purposes including an administrative function.
which is to ensure instructors are accountable, and learners have mastered the content to advance to the next level.

In practice to identify and select objectives is not part of a step-by-step procedure. Rather, it is part of the complexity of planning which is deliberated through dialectic mediation of a number of factors including contextual values, planners' values and beliefs, and planners' personal views of planning. For instance, although Erna's planning is learner-focused, there is a subtle shift from a learner to a content centered view in her planning because mastery of content takes precedence over meeting learners' needs and holding those needs as central to planning.

Contrary to the planning literature in adult education, in practice planners use a deliberative planning process which is mediated by practical knowledge, not the academic model which is informed by Tyler's rationale. Schwab's (1983) view of deliberation is redefined. While deliberation may involve a committee of eight, which is chaired by a content specialist, in practice, planners usually chair committees and may plan programs with or without a committee structure. Planners redefine planning through dialectic mediation of theory and practice. Planning is problematized and contextualized. It is situated. It involves deliberation over specific learners, content, context, and instructors. Deliberative planning is mindful interaction and action which reveals the indeterminate and contingent nature of planning practice.

Practical knowledge which informs planning includes declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. In the planning literature in adult education, planners' practical
knowledge has received little or no attention. The data support, build on, and expand the concept of practical knowledge in the teacher thinking literature. This study elaborates, describes, and defines declarative and procedural knowledge, and it identifies and defines conditional knowledge, an important aspect of practical knowledge.

3 Towards A Deliberative Conceptual Framework of Practice

The conceptions of planning and practical knowledge reflect a complex interrelated set of concepts and processes. A deliberative planning framework emerges which centers around the commonplaces of planning. In deliberation, planners use their practical knowledge to redefine given components of planning through dialectic mediation. For instance, based on a focus of concern of the poor academic record of aboriginal students in the program, Joel gathers data to set the problem which indicates an act-knower-context sequence. The problem is refined based on knowledge gained from experience that aboriginal students from rural areas have difficulty adjusting to urban life styles, and they lack self confidence and esteem. Declarative knowledge, an information aspect, does not tell planners what to do but provides a description of the situation.

Further, planners use procedural knowledge which deals with the necessary steps to accomplish planning. This knowledge provides understanding and interaction and is an interpersonal communication aspect of planning. For instance, Joel undertakes planning strategies directly related to the situation which includes: discussions with students which indicate they have poor self concept, lack self confidence, and academic knowledge;
observation and analysis of their performance in the program; and review and redesign of the program and objectives to include optional courses related to aboriginal culture, law, and language, and aboriginal instructors to teach in the program.

These components are informed by conditional knowledge - contextual values and planners' values and beliefs. It is the condition-action-sequence which implements actions when certain pre-conditions are met, and provides reflection and action which are the basis for a critical reflection aspect in planning. For instance, Joel's learner-centered approach and principle of economy of content suggest that the program ought to be revised and expanded to include optional courses which provide choices which are relevant and useful to learners.

Based on deliberation informed by practical knowledge, planners redefine given components of planning. Planning involves deliberation, mindful interaction and action, over a range of shifting and dialectically interrelated knowledge components to define the problem, negotiate the views and interests of committee members, stakeholders, and or individuals, and manipulate the university bureaucracy. Planning is problematized and contextualized.

Planners use aspects of the content/technical, the problem-situation, or the learner-focused view to plan programs. Planners use an eclectic planning approach based on deliberation with learners, instructors, and stakeholders about the program to be offered in a particular context. This leads to insight and understanding, meaning-making and judgement, and defensible decision making.
Planners gather data through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self, and transform these into knowledge to understand the situation. Planners use an adaptive intelligence to identify, weigh, and select educational alternatives in planning. The purpose of planners' practical knowledge is to make the "best" decision, that is, to act appropriately in the situation. The conceptions of planning and planners' practical knowledge provide a conceptual framework of practice.

4 Summary

Building on Schwab (1969), Elbaz (1983), and Sternberg and Caruso (1985), the conception of practical knowledge is a dialectic relationship of theory and practice which consists of a declarative aspect, a procedural aspect, and a conditional aspect. Further, planning practice is oriented towards the commonplaces of planning.

The conception of planning is a deliberative, reciprocal, mindful process consisting of planning context, collaborating with partners, assessing needs, evaluating programs, promoting, marketing and budgeting programs, and developing the curriculum. These planning components build on those described in the adult education planning literature (Houle, 1972; Boyle, 1981; Boone, 1985; and Sork and Buskey, 1986). Planners re-define given components of planning through their practical knowledge.

Planners are central to planning because they are responsible for making the key planning decisions. Planners' roles require making decisions which are responsible or defensible moves with public significance. Scheffler (1958) argues that these moves are inescapable, important, and subject to rational critique. Thus, it
is important to explain the rules and fundamental commitments, and contextual values which govern these moves to understand, interpret, and develop categories of practice.

Planners' practical knowledge is oriented towards content: declarative knowledge of organizational context; knowledge of research methods, program content and ideas, problem setting, and evaluation; and knowledge of a discipline and or a field of study such as adult education. Also, it consists of procedural knowledge of the components of planning. As well, it comprises conditional knowledge of contextual values and planner's principles of practice, educational philosophy, guiding metaphors, experiential knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge such as instructional methods in learning and teaching.

Planners' practical knowledge is oriented towards structure. The structure is represented by: a deliberative, reciprocal planning process of interaction, reflection, and action among the commonplaces, and the components of planning; and a dialectic relationship of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge of rules and routines of planning, and conditional knowledge of contextual values and planners' educational principles, values, beliefs, and metaphors.

Building on Sternberg and Caruso (1985), planners' practical knowledge is oriented towards source. Practical knowledge is used in three main forms of interaction, that is, to adapt to, to resist, or to change the situation in relation to tasks, others, or self. Also, practical knowledge is used in three main forms of interaction, that is, direct learning from the theoretical formulations from the field of adult education; indirect learning
from mentoring, observing, problem solving, trial and error, and
discussing; and tacit learning from experience or the wisdom of
practice which refers to the principles of good practice which are
accumulated and organized over time. The next chapter presents
conclusions to the findings on practical knowledge and planning,
while providing implications for further research.
CHAPTER EIGHT

Summary of Findings, Suggestions for Further Research, Implications and Discussion

The purposes of this study were to gain an understanding of the kinds of practical knowledge planners in a university continuing education division find useful and relevant to their decision making in program planning; acquire a greater understanding of the planning process from their perspective; and construct categories for interpreting these understandings. It was expected that planners discriminately used a wide range of knowledge which, although unarticulated, was knowledge of practice, and that planning was characterized by complexity, uniqueness, and uncertainty.

Analysis of the interview data led to the conclusion that practical knowledge consists of three kinds of knowledge which inform planning practice, and that planning is indeterminate and contingent on the context and planners' knowledge. These planners' practical knowledge incorporates a framework of concepts, rules and routines or strategies, beliefs, values, principles and metaphors of practice. This framework has implications for planners' criteria of valid and reliable knowledge, the informal and formal nature of planning strategies, the ideological character of knowledge, and the ethics of practice. Further, these planners use a combination of planning approaches which are directly related to the nature of the planning context and their capabilities. The contextual and problematic nature of planning is made explicit. In short, based on deliberation, planners adapt and shape planning through their practical knowledge.
In this chapter these major findings are further explicated. The chapter begins with a summary of the study methodology and the limitations of the study. Following that, the major findings are presented. Suggestions for further research are given, and finally, the implications and discussion for continuing education for program planners are addressed.

1 Summary of the Methodology

The perspective used in this study was interpretive. The intent was to understand and explicate meanings that planners gave to their planning activities within specific planning contexts. The use of this perspective is a shift away from the dominant perspective which has emphasized observation of behaviour, and guided much of the research in adult education (Stalker, 1989). In addition, the study employed qualitative methods which are congruent with the epistemological foundations of the interpretive perspective. These methods included two participant observation meetings, semi-structured, indepth interviews, an informal conversational approach, and documents to corroborate the data from interviews. Data were reported in literary prose style.

A primary concern of the investigator was to determine the feasibility of the research questions and the problem; therefore, the study was conducted in two phases. Phase one, a pilot study of two planners, explored the feasibility of the research questions and the problem. Based on this stage, a questionnaire was modified and used as a guide in the second phase. Building on phase one, phase two incorporated a case study of four additional planners.

The study was limited in that it was a small, purposive sample of six planners, two males and four females from the total
complement of seven, in a single setting. These planners had not undertaken graduate work in adult education and had had limited exposure to the adult education program planning literature. However, typically, those employed as planners in university continuing education units have not had the experience of pursuing a graduate program in adult education. The perspectives of these six planners are therefore likely to be quite similar to those of other planners who have not been exposed to graduate study in adult education. They are important because they are more nearly like planners found in the field than graduates of adult education programs would likely be. However, a goal of the study was to develop generalizations and parsimonious concepts accurately characterizing cases examined rather than to develop laws or principles which are generalizable to the whole population of planners.

Planners were interviewed. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed. Data were analyzed and organized into categories which were culled from the data. Categories were compared, contrasted and grouped to identify key features and patterns among planning practice. The data were filtered through relevant theoretical concepts, through which the findings were reconstructed. The examination of written memos was used to refine categories. With respect to developing the categories of practical knowledge, Strauss' (1987) coding paradigm (conditions, interactions, strategies or tactics, and consequences) was found useful to synthesize categories into concepts of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. With regard to developing categories of program planning, Sork and Buskey's (1986) generic
components of planning were found useful to describe the activities and decisions these planners described. A chronological reflexivity journal was used throughout the study wherein were noted the processes of data analysis as well as insights and questions. The preliminary analysis was presented to the planners for verification. They commented positively on the analysis and insights they gained as a result of participating in the research.

Initially, it was anticipated that the findings would be derived solely from the data while the theoretical concepts of Schwab (1969), Sternberg and Caruso (1985), Elbaz (1983), Tyler (1949), Houle (1972), Knowles (1980), Freire (1970), and Sork and Buskey (1986) would be held in abeyance. However, as the analysis proceeded, the literature and understandings that prompted the study became increasingly more central and useful to the study. The reason for this was that these theoretical concepts were useful in categorizing, to a large degree, the processes that these planners described. For instance, Sternberg and Caruso's definition of practical knowledge provided a frame of reference for further understanding and describing declarative and conditional components of practical knowledge, while Schwab's practical planning provided the descriptions for a deliberative dialectical planning process.

2 Limitations of the Study

This study focuses exclusively on a small, purposive sample of six program planners from a single setting. Thus, the results of this study may be limited in generalizability. However, the tentative conceptual framework from this study could be used to develop questions which may be examined more directly in field
The research method, the case-style investigation using an interview guide during the interview, may have limited the study due to the inherent disadvantages of the method. Lincoln and Guba (1985) outlined some limitations which include relying on self reports of planning practice, and conducting studies primarily involving respondents from a limited socio-economic spectrum of adults. Specifically for this study, the limitations were concerned with planners' recall ability and their willingness to provide answers which fit perceived expectations of what the investigator wants. In short, the investigator of this qualitative research is concerned for credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability (versus concerns in quantitative research for internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity) and generalizability or the trustworthiness (validity and reliability) of the study which is the end result sought by researchers regardless of their different epistemological assumptions.

In this study, the probability of credible findings was enhanced by prolonged engagement, triangulation, and member check. The interviews were conducted over an extended period of time which facilitated getting to know the participants, testing for misinformation, and building trust. Multiple sources, methods, and theoretical concepts were used to triangulate the data. Data were collected from planners through interviews. Documents were collected to confirm reports from interviews. As well, the investigator kept a reflective journal throughout the study. Member check with the supervisory committee was also used to review
the process and outcome of the analysis at various stages of the research. These procedures helped to keep the investigator honest, test emerging categories, and provide an emotional outlet and distancing from the data. Both formal and informal checking with participants verified interpretations, assumptions, and data.

In regard to transferability, the investigator provided rich, thick description (a data base) of the organizational context that should allow others to judge whether there is a fit to another similar setting, that is, transferability.

Triangulation, an overlap method, and an inquiry audit (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) were used in this study to help establish dependability. However, according to Lincoln and Guba, a demonstration of credibility establishes dependability. The efforts to establish credibility by using triangulation were discussed earlier. A form of inquiry audit was used in this study. The supervisory committee reviewed the process and outcome of the pilot study, and the process of data reduction and reconstruction from selected participants. This process helped to raise questions, point out oversights, and reduce the likelihood of reaching unwarranted conclusions in the analysis. The interview tapes and transcriptions are also available for public scrutiny.

In the same way that an inquiry audit authenticates the dependability of the analysis process, the confirmability audit allowed the objectivity of the investigator to be tested (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Although a formal audit was not used, an audit trail exists that would allow a confirmability audit to be conducted. Records exist for the verification of the sureness of the data.
Finally, in regard to generalizability, Firestone (1993) suggests that analytic generalizations and case-to-case transfer may be made from data obtained in qualitative research. Analytic generalization does not rely on samples and populations, but strives to generalize a particular set of findings to broader theoretical concepts. In order to do this, evidence must be provided to support these concepts. In this study an attempt was made to do this by focusing on actions, planning process, and values and beliefs of planners in a specific setting as well as through the use of interviews of planners in this setting together with the collection and analysis of documents. This up-close analysis allows links to be made between the data and the theoretical concepts.

In contrast, case-to-case transfer occurs when the reader considers adopting a program or idea from another setting. However, the researcher is responsible for providing rich, thick description of the study while allowing the reader to make this transfer. In this study, case-to-case transfer is enhanced because thick description is provided, permitting assessment of the applicability of the study's conclusions to similar settings.

Given the normal procedures for establishing the trustworthiness of a qualitative study, the research has devoted considerable attention to a variety of techniques to both persuade readers of the trustworthiness of the data and to generate confidence in the findings and recommendations.

3 Summary of the Major Findings

...the field of curriculum is moribund, unable by its present methods and principles to continue to work and desperately in search of new and more effective principles and methods...
there will be a renaissance of the field ...only if the... energies are diverted from the theoretic to the practical,... By the "practical" I... refer,..., to a complex discipline,... concerned with choice and action, in contrast with the theoretic, which is concerned with knowledge. Its methods lead to defensible decisions,... (Schwab, 1969, p.1-2).

Like Schwab's presentation of new and more effective principles and methods for interpreting the curriculum field, so practical knowledge, as delineated by Sternberg and Caruso, and Elbaz offers a fresh perspective on planning practice. In this section, this perspective will be given a closer look, as the data are discussed in light of these theoretical concepts.

3.1 What kinds of Practical Knowledge Do Planners Have?

Sternberg and Caruso's (1985) interrelated questions regarding practical knowledge were used as a framework for this section. These include: What is practical knowledge? How is practical knowledge acquired? How is practical knowledge used? What is practical knowledge? Practical knowledge consists of three kinds of knowledge: declarative, procedural, and conditional which stand in dialectical relationship to one another, and that planning practice may require that planners have and use all three kinds of knowledge.

3.1.1 Declarative/Theoretical Knowledge - Information Aspect

The planners interviewed had engaged in a process of gathering, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating declarative knowledge from a number of sources. This is an information aspect which answers the question "what is the case". It does not tell planners "what ought to be done" or "how to" but provides a description of the situation. Declarative knowledge sought by these planners included: knowledge of organizational context which
includes the mandate of the unit, the deficit, and the budget; knowledge of research methods, program content, program ideas, problem setting, and evaluation; and knowledge of the field of adult education which includes knowledge of the commonplaces of program design and the components of planning.

3.1.2 Procedural Knowledge - Interpersonal Communication Aspect

Planners use procedural knowledge, that is, knowledge of rules and routines of planning. It deals with the necessary steps that planners undertake to accomplish planning tasks and answers the question "how to". Planners have a number of interpersonal communication strategies which inform planning practice. Planners' procedural knowledge includes components of planning: how best to adapt to the context, collaborate with partners, assess needs, evaluate programs, promote and market programs, and develop the curriculum. Knowing how to develop the curriculum includes knowing how to select instructors, objectives and content, and to specify the role of learners. Planners' declarative and procedural knowledge are interrelated. However, these kinds of knowledge provide only partial understanding on which to base defensible decisions.

3.1.3 Conditional Knowledge - Critical Reflection Aspect

Planners also use conditional knowledge, that is, knowledge used to justify their decisions. It consists of their understanding of economic, educational, political, and social values as well as principles of practice, educational philosophy, and guiding metaphors. For example, planners' personal values influence planning practice. A planner who is motivated by economic values may be inclined to make the financial stability of
the unit a priority, while others may place greater priority on social values, and be inclined to sacrifice the financial stability of the unit in favour of improving programs, services, and facilities. Personal values are not the sole influence on practice. If a planner faces an ethical decision, such as offering a program without identifying the need, the planner also considers contextual factors, such as the economic mandate to generate a profit, in justifying the decision.

As witnessed above, practical knowledge is not simply "know how" and contextually related capabilities of planners. It also contains an important element of declarative/theoretical knowledge which is knowledge that is relevant and useful to practice. This expanded definition of practical knowledge underscores the dialectical (interdependent) relationship of these three categories of practical knowledge and their concomitant interrelated planning aspects: informational, interpersonal communication, and critical reflection in decision making.

3.2 How Do Planners Acquire and Use Practical Knowledge?

The data revealed that these planners acquired practical knowledge in a number of ways, and they used it in their planning practice. The next sections deal with how planners acquired and used practical knowledge.

3.2.1 Direct, Indirect, and Tacit Learning

By what means is practical knowledge acquired? For on-the-job performance, these planners acquire practical knowledge in three ways: learning from declarative expositions; learning from others through mentoring and coaching; and tacit learning from experience, observation, and trial and error. In the case of direct learning,
a planner researches the literature and completes a course on evaluation. In the case of indirect learning, a planner consults with learners, instructors, and peers. In the case of tacit learning, a planner relies on experience gained from working in the university, and a sense of what makes for "good practice". This suggests that direct (formal) learning from declarative expositions is one way to gain practical knowledge. Also, indirect and tacit (informal) learning from others, experience, observation, and trial and error are other ways to gain practical knowledge.

3.2.2 Adapt, Shape and Resist

How is practical knowledge used in planning? Planners used practical knowledge not only to adapt to contextual values but also to shape or resist in light of their personal values. A planner strongly encouraged others to develop as many programs as possible to adjust to the mandate to generate a profit. Another planner resisted the directives to develop existing programs into new formats because she believed it was not a good pedagogical decision. A third planner resigned because of the incompatibility of planner's and institution's value - to generate a profit at all cost. To adapt and shape presuppose an attempt to work within the contextual constraints. To resign is the last option after others have failed. These decisions reflect the indeterminate and complex form of human action in planning which is irreducible to technical rules.

3.2.3 A Practical Planning Process

Viewed through the lens of Schwab's (1969) theoretical concept of practical planning, which he described as everyday problem solving for purposes of choice and action, this study challenges a
prevailing assumption concerning planning. The prevailing assumption has seen planning through a traditional paradigm that values certainty and predictability.

However, the data suggest that planning is uncertain and contingent on the context and planners' knowledge. This suggests the indeterminate and unpredictable nature of planning. This observation points to the limitations of a traditional paradigm, that seeks to predict and control, and to the benefits of a deliberative practical planning process which can provide insight and understanding.

Furthermore, in planning practice, planners re-define given components of planning. This deliberative, mindful, planning process is consistent with Houle's (1972) and Boyle's (1981) theoretical formulation of the planning process as one of continuing reformulation as planners add new information.

From this perspective, practical knowledge shapes our understanding the nature of the way we make sense of the situation, and influences the kinds of activities and critical decisions we make to arrive at defensible choice among competing possible solutions.

### 3.2.4 The Problematic and Contextual Nature of Planning Practice

All planners had to take into consideration the problematic and contextual nature of planning which illustrates the importance of the way in which the problem is defined and redefined as well as the importance of contextual factors on planning. For example, a planner initially identified the high drop out and failure rate among aboriginal students as the problem. However, only after discussions with learners and further analysis of their situation,
does the planner redefine the problem as their lack of self confidence and esteem. In this case, the planner added courses on Native Studies, and hired an aboriginal instructor to teach. This decision accommodated competing contextual values: the institution's requirement to offer university entrance courses; the need to build learners' self confidence and respect; and the planner's goal to reduce the high drop out and failure rate among aboriginal students.

3.2.5 A Framework for Conceptualizing Practical Knowledge

The study describes, categorizes, and organizes practical knowledge into three interrelated components of knowledge: declarative, procedural, and conditional. Through focused probing of reasons behind decisions, the important component of conditional knowledge was identified. This knowledge includes planners' understanding of economic, educational, political, and social values as well as principles of practice, educational philosophy, guiding metaphors, the moral dimension embedded in practice, and the ideological character of knowledge.

Elbaz's (1983) situational, personal, social, and experiential categories are located in conditional knowledge, and her theoretical category is located in declarative knowledge. However, Elbaz ignores important dimensions of conditional knowledge (guiding metaphors, the moral dimensions embedded in practice, and the ideological character of knowledge) which, in this study, are found to be essential components of practical knowledge.

The study confirms, to a large degree, Elbaz's structure of practical knowledge. Elbaz indicates that the structure consists of a rule of practice which is a brief statement of what to do in
frequently encountered situations; a practical principle which is an inclusive but less explicit statement of educators' purposes; and an image which is a less explicit but more inclusive statement of educators' feelings, values, needs, and beliefs.

While the data support this structure of practical knowledge, they also suggest that these elements are incorporated in planners' three kinds of knowledge which form a framework for conceptualizing practical knowledge. For instance, procedural knowledge incorporates rules and routines, related to planning strategies, and directs how programs should be organized. Conditional knowledge incorporates values, beliefs, principles, and metaphors of practice. It is essential for justifying offering a program. Elbaz's image is captured in planners' metaphors of practice. However, planners' metaphors incorporate a system of values and beliefs related to their educational philosophy.

The interplay of these three kinds of knowledge provides insight and understanding into how planners acquire and use practical knowledge that includes aspects of theoretical knowledge. The next section deals with planners' implicit conceptions of planning. Theoretical concepts of Tyler (1949), Freire (1970), Houle (1972), Pennington and Green (1976), Knowles (1980), Boyle (1981), Sork and Buskey (1986), and Kowalski (1988) provide the lens through which the data are reviewed.

3.3 What are Planners' Implicit Conceptions of Planning?

Planners' implicit conceptions of planning are derived from their statements of what they did in the course of their planning. Their activities and decisions are consistent with some of the nine planning components identified by Sork and Buskey (1986). For
instance, four of their components (development of objectives; selection and ordering of content; selection, design, and ordering of instructional processes; and selection of instructional resources) are combined under the component designated in this research as "developing the curriculum". Components identified in this research as "focus of concern", and "nurture of instructors" have received little attention in the adult education planning literature. This section deals with data related to planning components and the nature of planning, the nature and character of the planning context, formal and informal planning strategies, the commonplaces of planning, the nurture of instructors, principles of practice, the focus of concern, the political dimension of content, and approaches to planning.

3.3.1 Planning Components and the Nature of Planning

Each planning component comprises a cluster of activities and decisions which interact and overlap. For instance, in developing the English as a Second Language program, the planner collaborated with a faculty member from the appropriate department to identify learners' needs, content, instructional staff, and evaluation methods. Thus, activities and decisions related to planners' understanding of the planning context interact and overlap with the cluster identified as developing the curriculum, while the cluster designated as collaborating overlaps and interacts with the cluster designated as assessing needs, and evaluating the program. As well, the interaction and overlap of these clusters are consistent with Pennington and Green's (1976) claim that planning components form interrelated clusters of activities and decisions. Also, these clusters are consistent with Houle's (1972) statement that
planning "...components are to be understood as a complex of interacting elements, not as a logical sequence of steps" (p. 46). The identification of these components supports Houle's observation:

...the design of an educational activity is usually in a constant state of reformulation...it is reconsidered frequently during the time of planning, the time of action, and the time of retrospection. All the component parts of the design mesh together at every point at which it is considered. Only when they are separated for formal analysis do they appear to be logical and linear (p.39-40).

Planning practice is therefore a dynamic, interactive process in which the concept of a discrete step is rarely a reality.

3.3.2 The Nature and Character of the Planning Context

Central to planning practice are the internal and external contexts. To the extent that planning practice as represented by Houle (1972), Boyle (1981), Boone (1985), and Kowalski (1988) incorporates the planning context, the data of this study promote a fresh look at the planning context. The internal and external planning contexts are important aspects of planning; they affect and are affected by planners' practice; and they consist of interrelated concepts and processes. The internal context consists of the mandate of the unit to develop certain types of programs consistent with a small liberal arts college; to serve certain socioeconomic groups including women, immigrants, older learners, and aboriginal students; to generate profit from these programs; to work with a budget formula and deficit budget; and to be recognized as the university which serves the core area. The external context includes beliefs of community stakeholders about program priorities; assumptions concerning programs by learners and
community; and trends including socioeconomic factors which influence planning. Also significant are beliefs and values of certain academic staff and planners about program priorities which mediate planning. Accordingly, there is a dynamic relationship among internal and external contexts, planners' values and beliefs, and planning.

As has been demonstrated, educational, social, political, and economic factors influence planning. Also, planners' values and beliefs, principles of practice, and metaphors influence planning. In practice, planners affect and are affected by these contextual factors which often conflict. These factors are not always obvious; they may enter planning at any stage and in various ways. Planners not only accept them as part of planning but they also redefine them through their practical knowledge.

For instance, in regard to the requirement to evaluate all courses, planners use declarative knowledge which they acquire directly from the literature or course materials. Planners analyze, synthesize, and evaluate this knowledge in regards to the commonplaces of planning: learners' educational goals, the nature of content and programs, trends and policy issues related to the context of planning, and instructional resources. This knowledge provides the "what", which describes the situation. This information aspect influences and is influenced by the other aspects. Although, practical knowledge is not explored in the adult education literature, Houle's "time of planning" is similar to this aspect.

Further on this point, these planners used procedural knowledge to accomplish planning tasks. For example, they
undertook interrelated strategies in regard to the financial objective of the mandate to be a profit generating unit. They used mailing lists to identify demographic data about learners; brainstormed techniques to develop ideas; re-designed existing courses into new formats based on a theme and appropriate graphic design; developed strategies to assess educational needs; and collaborated to gain benefits from the environment. Houle's "time of action" incorporates the strategies in this aspect.

These knowledge categories are informed by conditional knowledge. Contextual and personal categories mediate each other and provide the "why" and "when" essential for justifying decisions. Some planners design existing courses into new formats to meet the financial objectives of the mandate while re-framing the budget formula on the basis of their beliefs and values of learners' needs, the nature of the program, instructors in the program, and learners' ability to pay. Houle's "time of retrospection" includes this aspect.

The message from this study is that the nature and character of contextual values and personal values and beliefs impinge on all aspects of planning practice. However, these have received little attention in the majority of planning models.

3.3.3 Informal and Formal Planning Strategies

The planners in this study do not use formal, comprehensive needs assessment or evaluation strategies because of lack of expertise and time, and exigencies of the situation. These data are consistent with Pennington and Green's (1976) findings. In addition, the data on generating strategies make clear that planners shape and adapt planning strategies, using on-going,
informal strategies, and make use of both informal and formal data sources. For example, a planner recognized that learners may not provide open and honest responses on the formal evaluation forms because confidentiality is not assured. Therefore, the planner implemented administrative controls, and collected data from learners and instructors through informal discussions.

3.3.4 The Commonplaces of Planning

Schwab's (1969) commonplaces (learners, content, context, and instructors) are a useful way of making sense of the data. These planners gather declarative knowledge, related to the commonplaces, to describe the situation, while they use procedural knowledge to conduct strategies. Their values and beliefs influence and are influenced by planning, and they are accountable for planning. However, since planners are fundamental to planning, we have to understand planners themselves and the way they make sense of these four commonplaces in planning. Therefore, from the vantage point of a program planning analyst, they must be considered in program planning. As well, the commonplaces are not only central to planning, but also form an analytic device for comparing and contrasting elements which are considered in planning. This is consistent with Walker's (1971) observation that the commonplaces form a platform in planning.

3.3.5 The Importance of Nurturing Instructors in Planning

Planners in this study nurture instructors to influence program outcomes. Planners hold orientation sessions to ensure that instructors have a good understanding of such factors as: the fit of the course within the program; the policies, procedures, purposes, and values of the university environment and the unit;
and learners' characteristics, motivations, interests, knowledge, and abilities. Planners conduct classroom observation to ensure that instructors have pedagogical knowledge and abilities, and use the communicative approach (a system of values and beliefs related to language teaching). Planners hold professional development and regular meetings for instructors to nurture the communicative approach, and to ensure quality programs. These items have received little discussion in the planning literature but their importance, in the testimony of the planners in this study, suggest that they may be critical components of good planning practice.

3.3.6 The Importance of Planners' Educational Philosophy

Planners' questions during instructors' interviews reflect their values and beliefs, and educational philosophy. A planner's view on the selection and justification of knowledge in the curriculum suggests that a planner may view knowledge as socially constructed in the teaching-learning transaction. The process of managing the presentation of knowledge in the curriculum suggests that these planners see learners sharing responsibility for learning experiences in the teaching-learning transaction. The reported relationship of teacher and learners suggests that these planners view it as horizontal, based on respect and trust. Evaluation of learning suggests that these planners view it as a shared responsibility. Thus, planning practice is shaped by planners' educational philosophy.

3.3.7 A Focus of Concern

Planning is normally triggered by a focus of concern, a planner's sense of desirable practice, which initiates a problem setting stage. Although this component has received little
discussion in the planning literature, it makes explicit the inherent value position of planning practice. For instance, a planner's concern over the high drop out and failure rate among aboriginal students triggered planning activities. These include: a description of the problem, assessment of learners' needs, and development of courses on Native Studies.

3.3.8 The Importance of the Political Dimension in Planning

Although identifying and selecting content as part of developing the curriculum is well defined in the planning literature, its underlying political dimension is not often made explicit. In some planning situations, this task is a process of negotiation with stakeholders, learners, and instructors to determine concepts and methods which form a comprehensive body of knowledge to be included in program of studies. These planners gather declarative knowledge relevant to the nature and design of programs, the format of programs, content to be offered given learners' educational needs, characteristics, and knowledge, the planning context, and their values and beliefs.

Further, practice is informed by procedural knowledge. These planners undertake informal and formal strategies related to planning to negotiate the content. A planner held a series of meetings with instructors, learners, and stakeholders; collaborated with committee members to determine the major topics; acted as a content specialist to the committee; and independently selected content for programs.

Planners' decisions are informed by conditional knowledge which includes a consideration of a number of factors. The content to be offered is not only based on learners' characteristics and
educational needs, but also on negotiation with stakeholders. A planner used a defensible design to deliver content; employed a defensible sequence to offer courses; identified instructors, class size, and tutorial supports to deliver content; and built consensus among community's and institution's goals to offer the program.

3.3.9 Orientations of Planning

These planners develop programs intuitively using a variety of orientations: content, learner, and problem-situation. Houle (1972), Apps (1985), and Sork and Buskey (1986) indicate that these orientations in adult education draw conceptually on education.

For instance, one planner stressed a content-centered view to planning, and used a high degree of control over planning activities and curriculum organization. This is consistent with an academic orientation. Some planners used a learner-centered view to planning which stresses learners' personal development and active participation in managing the teaching learning transaction. One planner who used a content-centered approach also used a problem-situation approach to planning which stresses a low degree of planner control over learners and management of planning activities, and loose control over curriculum organization. A problem-situation approach parallels Freire's (1970) view of planning as praxis (reflection and action), and Boyle's "Developmental Framework". In this particular framework, Boyle stresses that planning is "...constantly being adapted to the actual situation", and requires situational analysis of community and clientele (p.51-52).

Each planning orientation has a unique focus and in practice these orientations are not used in their ideal forms (Gay, 1980).
These planners use a variety of approaches, or an eclectic planning approach. As well, planners shape given components of planning in ways that correspond to their analysis of the situation and their personal values and beliefs.

For instance, a planner whose practice is informed by a principle of economy of content, modified a program to include content which facilitates transfer to other content and learners' self-sufficiency. Some planners' values and beliefs in a learner-centered approach informed decisions to expand programs based on learners' needs which are identified from observation and discussion of learners' difficulty in the program, discussions with instructors, and experience based on personal knowledge of the situation. On the one hand, one planner's practice was guided by a problem-situation in the community, given stakeholders' goals for economic and political independence. On the other hand, in another situation, this same planner's practice was guided by a firm belief in the intrinsic value of a body of knowledge to be passed on to learners.

The study suggests that the content-focused orientation is an integral part of planning practice because it is a starting point for novice planners. However, the data support the empirical claim that this orientation is not used wholesale in practice (Taylor, 1970; Zahorik, 1975; Yinger, 1977; and Pennington and Green, 1976). Further, this orientation is rarely appropriate with practice situations because they are often complex, uncertain and unique. Rather, based on deliberation in the situation over the commonplaces, planning practice is shaped by planners' practical knowledge. The data reveal that planning practice is deliberative.
intentional, systematic, and emergent.

Planners have different understandings of a problem and the understanding of some planners shifts as they act in the situation and gain more knowledge. As planners gain more experience and knowledge, they acquire a wide repertoire of strategies and ways of thinking about a situation. However, there will likely be a considerable disparity among planners about what to do in any given situation. Further, the uniqueness, uncertainty, and complexity of planning situations described suggest that it may be difficult to be prescriptive about these situations. Prescriptions flow from a consensus about the problem. However, as we have seen, the problem frequently shifts as planning evolves, making the application of the means-ends framework inappropriate. The study provides illustrations of how this happens in practice, and the difficulty of prescribing what should be done in practice. The next section deals with data related to the nature of the relationship of the conceptions of planning and practical knowledge.

4 A Deliberative Practical Planning Process

These planners reformulate given components of planning, through their practical knowledge and the commonplaces, based on a deliberative practical planning process, not a logical sequence of steps. Planners gather data through direct, indirect, and tacit learning in relation to the task, others, and self, and transform these into knowledge to understand the situation, and make decisions.

Planning deals with questions "what", "how", "why", and "when" which are located in concrete situations. Planning is a complex form of human interaction and action in the situation to gain
insight and understanding. The source of planning problems is the situation, and the method of planning is deliberation which leads to defensible decisions within a moral and ethical framework.

Deliberation, which is informed by practical knowledge, is fundamental to planning. It is a complex and difficult activity in which both ends and means mutually influence one another. These planners "factor in" the commonplaces in deliberative planning. They gather information which they perceive is relevant and useful to the situation; anticipate and generate alternative solutions; weigh consequences of solutions; and choose the most defensible solution given the situation. Central to deliberation are contextual values and planners' metaphors, values and beliefs - ethical, moral, and ideological commitments or a framework of values- that contribute to their critical practice.

In summary, the study promotes a new look at planning practice as well as practical knowledge. Practical knowledge incorporates a dialectical relationship among three kinds of knowledge which inform practice. Also, it was recognized that planners identify, weigh, and select educational alternatives in planning. In this process, planners, through their practical knowledge, contextualize and problematize planning to arrive at defensible decisions. This suggests that planning practice incorporates the moral, ethical, and ideological character of planners' knowledge. And, the purpose of planners' practical knowledge is to describe, understand, and make the "best" decision. Thus, practical knowledge facilitates informed planning practice. In this regard, deliberative practical planning forms a tentative conceptual framework of practice.
Suggestions for Further Research

This study has delineated practical knowledge as an essential part of planning practice which shapes that practice. Of particular interest were the dialectical relationship of the three kinds of knowledge which defined practical knowledge, as well as how planners acquired declarative/theoretical knowledge and used it for practical purposes. Also, attention was given to the large influence of conditional knowledge on planning. Of further importance were the nature and character of planning context, as well as the dynamic, interactive, and interdependent character of the planning. Thus, the study highlights practical knowledge and practical planning as critical to the study of program planning.

First, one area that bears closer study is the nature of the relationship of the three kinds of knowledge in practice. To elaborate on this, while the study identifies three kinds of practical knowledge, the study does not clearly address how planners with different educational levels and backgrounds use these three kinds of knowledge in practice. Based on what has been described in this study, further studies might ask: What is the nature of the movement from one type of knowledge to the next based on planners' educational level and background?

Second, the data suggest that contextual and personal values influence planners' choice among three distinct planning models: a content, a learner, or a problem-centered model. As well, the nature of planning is characterized by indeterminacy and contingency (complex, unique, and uncertain practice situations) which suggests a view of planning different from the prevailing one of certainty and predictability. Thus, further studies are needed.
to reveal the implications of this shift in perspective of planning practice as well as the impact of contextual and personal values on models of practice. Questions may include: Would a planner, who has completed a graduate program in adult education, draw freely from a content, a learner, or a problem centered view to planning? What is the nature of the interaction of practical knowledge and novice or experienced planners' practice? Is the mark of expert planning in the selection of the most appropriate view to planning for a specific program? Given this shift in perspective, what new knowledge, skills, and abilities would planners require?

Third, the study touched a number of components of planning which need further exploration. The unit studied is structured on a team concept and a flat organizational structure wherein coaching and mentoring mediated practice. There is a need to study the relationship of coaching and mentoring on planning, as well as the relationship of models of planning, the nature of collaboration, and successful programs. Also, some planners indicated that there is a difference between purposeful planning and program growth and development versus maintenance. A study is needed to uncover the nature of these differences. Further, these planners were often not the content specialists for programs they developed. However, they conducted activities for instructors such as professional development, orientation sessions, and classroom observation. A study of the relationship of these activities and program outcomes may provide insight into program quality.

Finally, the study points to the contextual and problematic nature of planning as well as the ethical, moral, and ideological character of practice. However, the study does not clearly address
the nature of the relationship of planners' belief system and practice. Further studies might explore the ideological character of practice which may illuminate how various forms of knowledge are controlled and maintained, as well as an ethical model for practice. These studies are important to the study of adult education and program planning.

6 Implications and Discussion

Within the context of continuing education for planners, the findings, and the backdrop of the theoretical concepts, a number of implications surface which relate to critical practice, a curriculum agenda, deliberative practical planning, a learning organization through mentoring and coaching, ethical practice, a language of discourse, and the importance of values in planning. These are explored in the remainder of this chapter.

6.1 Critical Practice

Within the context of the adult education literature, a body of knowledge has been identified as important for effective and efficient practice (Rossman and Bunning, 1978; and Daniel and Rose, 1982). Further, Houle (1980) and the Council of Europe (1980) have identified the need for the body of knowledge to address the personal and professional educational needs of practitioners in the field. Building on this, Brookfield (1986) has stressed an educational agenda which fosters critical thinking. However, the importance of a body of knowledge which incorporates a discussion of the nature of practical knowledge of planning practices has been largely ignored in continuing education of planners.

The study suggests a body of knowledge which fails to include an understanding of practical knowledge and practical planning is...
limited. Program planning which includes these theoretical concepts facilitates informed practice. As argued, planners' practice implies a conceptual framework which renders practice meaningful. Making explicit planners' often implicitly held conceptual framework of planning and practical knowledge may lead to greater self-understanding and critical thinking. By analyzing the processes and content of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge, planners can examine in depth their planning approaches. They may become aware of the gaps in their knowledge and pursue further studies. Planners who are able to explain the what, how, why, and when of their practice may be able to analyze the reasons for their decisions and actions, and be in a position to make responsible planning moves.

6.2 A Curriculum Agenda

The study suggests a shift in perspective of planning and practical knowledge. This shift is rooted in an interpretive paradigm, the lens through which the study was developed. Of importance were the indeterminate and contingent (versus certain and predictable) nature of planning practices as well as the informational, interpersonal communication, and critical decision making aspects which inform practical knowledge. This shift indicates the need for an understanding of perspectives (including positivist and critical), as well as the development of skills related to adaptability and flexibility which may be consistent with planning practices.

6.3 Deliberative Practical Planning

As argued these planners do not use wholesale any one model of planning (Schwab, 1969). The academic model, which is but one

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approach, cannot serve the varied purposes for continuing education. Each approach suggests a different perspective on teaching and learning, and planning (Habermas, 1972; and Apps, 1985). Planners use one or a combination of approaches based on deliberative practical planning.

Planners deliberately (intentional, systematic, and emergent) plan programs by shaping planning approaches through their practical knowledge and the commonplaces. They shape planning approaches to particular situations and purposes. Recognizing the uniqueness, complexity, and uncertainty of planning situations and the varied purposes for continuing education suggest that these different planning approaches must inform curriculum study.

The study suggests that deliberative practical planning is a human endeavour whose goal is to make the best decision based on an interlinking of theory and practice. This approach stresses the complexity of planning which is irreducible to technical rules, and offers a comprehensive framework for understanding the contextual and problematic nature of planning.

6.4 The Importance of Mentoring and Coaching

Planners use creative planning approaches based on their practical knowledge which they acquire directly from declarative expositions, indirectly from others through mentoring and coaching, and tacitly from experience and trial and error. These approaches have not become part of the academic planning literature, but are critical to planning (Apps, 1985). This suggests the need to recognize and bring to the fore this rich array of planning theory and practice as well as the need to explore the theoretical underpinnings of these "tried and true" practical approaches by
establishing formal mentoring and coaching systems as part of the planning practice.

6.5 Ethical Practice

Singarella and Sork (1983) raised a number of questions regarding ethics and the field of practice: "What ethical skills are used daily in the adult educator's contract with clients? What is the responsibility of professional training programs to deal with ethics in preparing future adult educators?...What happens when personal ethical codes conflict with those of administrative superiors?" (p.246). As well, Apps (1985) has argued that although an ethical code is not available, the question of ethical practice cannot be avoided. However, the ethics of practice has been mostly ignored in the literature.

As noted, the findings suggest the ethical and moral character of practice. Planners apply practical knowledge to adapt, shape/resist, and resign. They make fundamental judgements about what is right and what is wrong. For example, they determine whether or not there are ethical issues attached to decisions and appropriate actions to follow. They identify the facts relevant to the situation; anticipate and generate alternatives; weigh consequences to solution; and choose the "best" solution. An analysis of these moves may reveal the extent to which planning practice conforms to ethical standards as well as establish guidelines for ethical practice.

6.6 A Language of Discourse

The study builds on the theoretical formulation of Houle (1972) and Boyle (1981), and the findings of Burnham (1988) that planning is a highly complex process which presents a contrast to
the simplistic and sometimes stark models of planning found in the literature. This shift in perspective of planning and practical knowledge suggests a language of discourse which may realistically and meaningfully represent planning practice and acknowledge its complexities. This language and its concepts may prepare planners with the insight to deal with the complexity, indeterminacy, and contingency of planning practice. As well, practical knowledge and the mode of understanding associated with it interlinks the study of adult education with its practice.

The study describes one way this knowledge may be identified, described, and acquired. A description of this knowledge provides a comprehensive framework to address the complexities of practice. An examination of the three kinds of practical knowledge provides insight into planners' knowledge base and associated planning processes, and suggests a baseline of knowledge for planning practice.

6.7 The Importance of Values in Planning Practice

The study points out that conditional knowledge -contextual values and planners' principles of practice, educational philosophy, and metaphors- suggests the inherent ideological, ethical, and moral character of practice as well as the underlying ideological and value position of knowledge. The important role of values in planning practice has been demonstrated. Values help to shape self-image and perceptions of practice. They influence personal and institutional goals that enable planners to determine appropriate goals to pursue and procedures to achieve them. An articulation of values may identify conflicting values and goals of planners and the institution; may help challenge the myths and
assumptions inherent in practice and forms of institutional structures; and may lead to critical practice. Also, the ideological character of knowledge suggests the need to expose practice to scrutiny to uncover implicit political agendas.

7 Concluding Comments

The study promotes a fresh look at planning continuing education programs and practical knowledge. It confirms that planning contains generic components that can be isolated, anticipated, and manipulated regardless of contextual and personal values. As well, it challenges the prevailing assumptions (predictability and certainty) associated with a traditional view of planning and demonstrates that planning practice is an indeterminate, complex, and contingent process which involves judgement and values. Finally, the study suggests a need for a shift towards a more comprehensive framework of planning practice - an intentional, systematic, and emergent process informed by practical knowledge in which deliberation is central and leads to ethical and moral decisions.


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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

RE: THE STUDY OF THE KNOWLEDGE THAT PROGRAM PLANNERS HOLD AND USE TO PLAN PROGRAMS IN AN UNIVERSITY CONTINUING EDUCATION SETTING

PURPOSES:

1. To explore the beliefs of planners by understanding their practice;

2. To identify, describe, and generate conceptual categories of the knowledge that planners hold and use in planning;

3. To explore the relationship of theory and practice in planning; and

4. To explore the conceptions of planning, practice, and practical knowledge in practice.

DESCRIBE THE ACTIVITIES YOU UNDERTAKE WHEN YOU PLAN A PROGRAM.

(WHAT ARE THE COMPONENTS OF PLANNING?)

PROBES:

RE: CONTENT

How is the content selected? who decides? when? why? Who arranges the content? who is involved? why?

RE: LEARNERS

Who are the learners for this program? who identifies them? how are they identified? what is their role? why?

RE: INSTRUCTORS

How are they selected? who is involved in the process? describe the process? why?

RE: CONTEXT

Are there other factors related to any of these activities? Budget? goal of the program? promotion of the program? time? money? institutional mandate? (mission, goals?) how do you assure participation in programs? do you like working here? why? are there factors which make working pleasant, un-pleasant? describe them? why? does mandate conflicts with your way of working? how?
RE: NEEDS FOR THE PROGRAM

How is the need identified? Who identifies the need? why is the program developed? what is the process? why that process?

RE: GOALS OF THE PROGRAM

Are there goals of the program? who decides them? how are they decided? who is involved? process? why?

RE: EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

How do you know the program is working? what do you do to find out? how do you do it? process? and why?

RE: NATURE OF PROGRAMS (LANGUAGE PROGRAMS)

Are these different from the other language programs offered by other providers? what are the differences? Are they different from other programs offered by the division and other planners? what are the differences? similarities? why these programs?

RE: NATURE OF PROGRAMS (GENERAL, MANAGEMENT, COMPUTER)

Are these different from language programs (besides content) offered by the division? and by other providers? what accounts for the differences or similarities? why these programs?
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Biographical Data

Name.

Age. Sex.

Institution attended.

Location.

Credentials/Degrees earned.

Date.......Degree.

Other Courses/Workshops/Seminars taken.

Courses related to degree.

Content/courses/seminars related to work.

Planners' Work Experience.

Years #.......Current Institution.......Program Area.

Describe role and responsibilities (briefly).

Years #.......Other Institution.......Area.

Describe role and responsibilities (briefly).

Years #.......Other (Specify).......Area.

Describe role and responsibilities (briefly).

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION
GUIDELINES FOR OBSERVATION OF PLANNING MEETING

BEGINNING

Who are the members? What is the purpose of the meeting?
Is there an agenda? Who provides the agenda? Who chairs the meeting? How are they organized? Who sits where? What order?
Time of meeting? Beginning and End? How does the meeting get started?

MIDDLE

What procedures are used for discussion?
What are the topics discussed? How? depth? length? time spent on each? why?


Evidence provided for decisions? do members volunteer information? is information elicited? whose voices are listened to? why? how? is attention paid to all speakers?

Were conclusions reached? how? who is involved in the making the decision? who summarizes the points and the decisions reached?

Interaction of members at meeting? are there patterns? who dominates? voice inflections? eye contact? body language?
tone of meeting?

END

How is the meeting ended? Summary? disorganized break up? closure? planning to meet again? agenda to be decided? regular meetings?
tone of closure?