CHAPTER 6

Public Relations Programs

CASE STUDY: HIGH HOPES GONE SOUR

A little more than 3 years ago, when Nancy Turner arrived in Lawrence, she was hailed as the superintendent who was going to radically improve the local public schools. Many taxpayers, however, have concluded that the expectation has not yet been fulfilled. Although patrons readily agree that the school system has not deteriorated under her leadership, most are quick to point out that she has failed to produce meaningful improvements. Dr. Turner fully realizes that the survival clock is ticking because her contract is up for renewal in another year.

A small, working-class midwestern city, Lawrence has faced many of the problems plaguing urban areas, including intense criticism of its public schools. Local political elites have frequently made the schools their scapegoat by suggesting that a mediocre education system is the cause of many of the city's problems. As an example, the director of the Lawrence Chamber of Commerce blamed the exodus of two small factories on a school system that was not preparing students for the workforce. Such negative perceptions, however, preceded Dr. Turner's tenure as superintendent. Dr. Murray West, her predecessor, had been dismissed after just 2 years.

Dr. Turner came to Lawrence believing that she knew all the risks she was facing. Nevertheless, the mayor and the entire school board supported her, as evidenced by the fact that she received a 5-year employment contract.

Superintendent Turner had barely placed the family pictures on her desk when she realized that she had underestimated the complexity of Lawrence and the intensity of dissatisfaction in the school district. Unlike in her previous superintendent assignments, she found herself inundated with paperwork that confined her to the office. For instance, every purchase over $500—and there were many—required her personal review and signature. She also had discovered other discomforting facts:

- She was the only "outsider" on the administrative team; all the others were former teachers in the school system who had been promoted to administrative positions.
- There were 37 standing committees functioning in the district, and no consequential decision was made without going through one of them. More noteworthy, committee recommendations were far more likely to be political than rational.
- She could find no record of an administrative staff member being fired, disciplined, or even reprimanded during the last 10 years. When principals or central office personnel got into trouble or did not complete their work satisfactorily, they were usually transferred to another administrative assignment.
- The school board members had involved themselves in routine administrative decisions for at least the last 4 years.
- The district's two employee unions (the teachers' union and the staff union) were very powerful. They had lucrative contracts and exerted considerable influence in school board elections.
- There was no policy governing communication except for a phone chain that was deployed in the event that schools had to be closed unexpectedly. In the absence of policy, administrators often ignored telephone calls and letters from patrons.

- The school board and administration rarely expressed interest in listening to the sentiments of stakeholders. For example, no efforts had been made to identify public opinion.

Dr. Turner first decided to delegate most routine managerial responsibilities to an assistant superintendent, Bill Evans, a longtime employee with 38 years of experience in the district. This allowed her to spend time out of the office. She joined local organizations to broaden her contact with the public, and she made herself available to speak before community groups. Her efforts to improve communication, however, were not very successful. Many stakeholders, including district employees, were reluctant to speak to her candidly. Moreover, relationships between parents and school personnel were generally negative.

After just 9 months in office, Dr. Turner concluded that she would be unable to improve community relations simply by spending more time outside her office. Therefore, she decided to create a PR program and to assign Assistant Superintendent Evans as its director. The school board, still highly supportive of its new superintendent, approved her plan and agreed to allocate $35,000 to support the program during the next fiscal year at the April board meeting. The following week, Mr. Evans announced he would retire effective June 30.

With little time to conduct a search for a director of the new program, and knowing that employing a person from outside the district was a remote possibility, Dr. Turner and the school board decided that Deloris Simmons, an elementary school principal, was the best person for the job. Within a year, however, the superintendent was being criticized for having created an unnecessary and ineffective program. For example, the president of the teachers' union made the following comments at a public board meeting:

> This district has many needs and a public relations program is not one of them. And even if such a program could help improve our schools, this one has not. Taking into account the director's salary and the program budget, we could have used the funds to hire two more teachers. Here we are after nearly a year and no one, including Superintendent Turner, can explain exactly what this program is supposed to accomplish.

INTRODUCTION

The situation faced in the Lawrence School District demonstrates why establishing a PR program without a predetermined mission is precarious. Moreover, the failure to develop a vision and implementation plan exacerbated the situation. Many stakeholders question the need for PR and they may not be very patient when programs fail to demonstrate their worth.

This chapter explores PR programming in districts and schools. Specifically, the content addresses how such programs can be conceptualized in traditional and nontraditional public schools and in private schools. Specific attention is given to intent, organizational structure, and administrative responsibility.

After reading this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

- Distinguish between a mission and vision statement for a PR program.
- Describe centralized, decentralized, and hybrid approaches for a PR program.
- Identify strengths and weaknesses of centralized, decentralized, and hybrid PR programs.
- Describe how student recruitment affects PR programming in nontraditional public schools and private schools.
- Explain why school-level PR plans should be extensions of district-level PR plans.
- Explain how expanded student choice affects the need for PR programs in public schools.
- Describe the scope of PR programming in private schools.

CONCEPTUALIZING A PR PROGRAM

As defined in Chapter 1, PR programs are purposeful—that is, they are planned and designed to achieve specific goals. Before programs can be fashioned, however, three essential issues need to be addressed: program responsibility, intended beneficiaries, and level of program operations.

Responsibility

The responsibility for PR programming at the district level belongs to superintendents. In larger systems, this duty is often relegated to assistants or a director of PR. But even when another person has designated responsibilities for PR, the superintendent remains highly influential with respect to relationship building.

> A superintendent sets the tone, the style, and the philosophy of a school system's organizational approach to communication. Superintendents need to have public-relations expertise at their fingertips, and, without apology, they must commit resources to managing community relations or public affairs. (Bohen, 1998, p. 219)

In the past, however, some superintendents exhibited a limited commitment to PR; for example, they purposefully limited their contact with some stakeholders and treated journalists as adversaries (Batory, 1999). Today, most superintendents realize that schools function more effectively when they maintain a symbiotic relationship with the communities they serve. After interviewing superintendents, Johnston and associates (2002) identified lessons these administrators had learned about school–community relationships:

- Rely on multiple forms of input to draw conclusions about a community.
- Study the history and culture of a school district before trying to change it.
- Participate in community organizations and inspire others to do community service.
- Develop a network of key supporters in the community who can be resources in both positive and negative situations.
- Seek participation from community groups, even from those with differing perspectives.
- Develop and use a media relations plan.
- Give the district a human face in the community by being part of the community (p. 30).

Principals also have an important role in PR. Most notably, they have a responsibility to build and maintain positive relationships at three levels:

1. Within the school (e.g., teacher–principal relations, teacher–student relations, teacher–support staff relations)
2. Between district and the school (e.g., superintendent–principal relations, school-board–teacher relations)
3. Between school and community (e.g., teacher–parent relations, principal-government officials relations)

If a school has its own PR program, the principal is almost always the person responsible for planning and managing it. Although they may have little or no role in planning a centralized PR program, they still are required to manage such programs at the school level. Consequently, it is important for them to monitor communicative behavior, evolving stakeholder needs, and PR program effectiveness so that they are able to provide data to the superintendent when the PR plan is being evaluated and revised (West, 1985).

Intended Beneficiaries

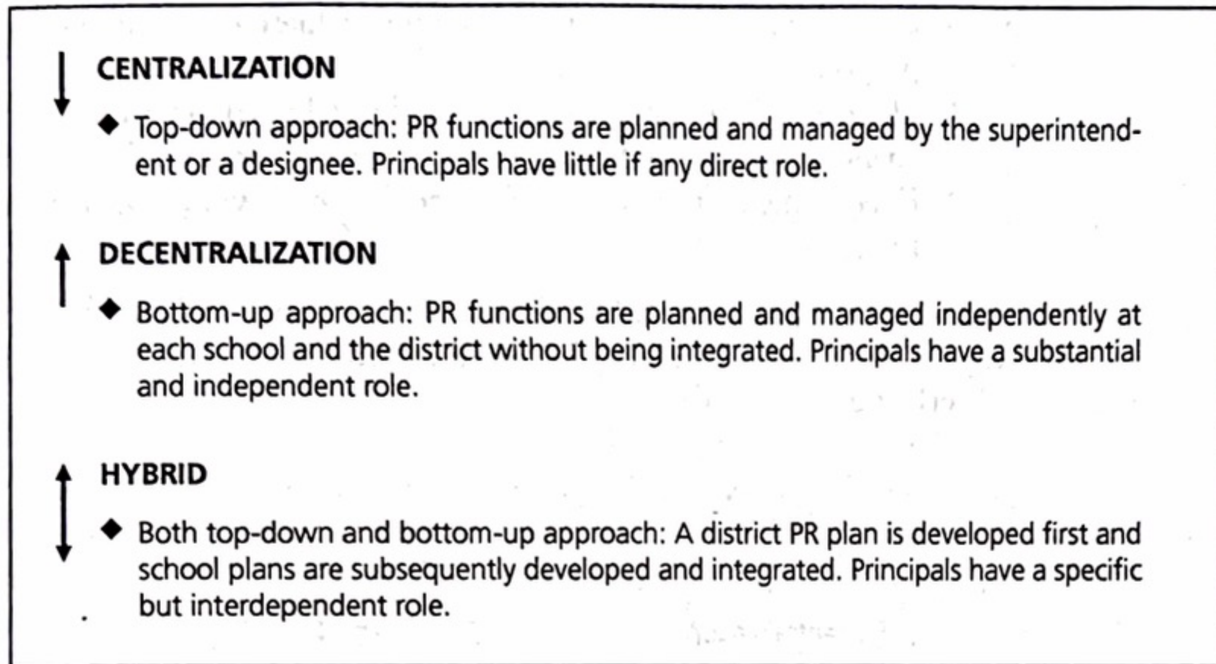
According to Kaufman, Herman, and Watters (2002), there are two perspectives of PR programs: *inside-out* and *outside-in*. The former treat the organization as the client, and they function "as if one were looking from within the organization outside into the operational world where learners complete, graduate, or get certified; and where citizens live, play and work" (p. 31). The latter treat society as the client, and they function "as if one were looking into the organization from outside, from the vantage point of society, back into the realm of organizational results and efforts" (p. 32). Consequently, the inside-out mode focuses on a district or school and its well-being. The outside-in mode focuses on the community and stakeholders and their well-being.

In the case of public schools, the outside-in approach is clearly the appropriate conceptualization. Many stakeholders react negatively when they believe public administrators are engaging in various PR activities simply to enhance their positions. Thus, school PR should be planned and designed to improve schools initially and society ultimately.

Organizational Structure

Basically, there are three alternatives for organizing school PR programs: centralized programming, decentralized programming, or hybrid programming—an approach that includes aspects of both centralization and decentralization (see Figure 6–1).

Centralization is characterized by having a single PR program for the school district, and that program operates under the jurisdiction of the superintendent or a designee. The two perceived advantages are efficiency and control. The former is intended to produce economies of scale by avoiding duplication of programming in schools. The latter is intended to standardize operating procedures throughout the district by having a single person in charge. Advocates of this approach contend it reduces the number of


CENTRALIZATION

◆ Top-down approach: PR functions are planned and managed by the superintendent or a designee. Principals have little if any direct role.

DECENTRALIZATION

◆ Bottom-up approach: PR functions are planned and managed independently at each school and the district without being integrated. Principals have a substantial and independent role.

HYBRID

◆ Both top-down and bottom-up approach: A district PR plan is developed first and school plans are subsequently developed and integrated. Principals have a specific but interdependent role.

FIGURE 6–1
Alternatives for PR Programming in School Districts

required employees, reduces the amount of time other administrators have to spend with PR, and reduces the likelihood of communication errors. Centralization, however, can be highly restrictive, especially with respect to involving stakeholders in school improvement (Fullan, 2001). Moreover, the person in charge may be slow to respond to needs in individual schools and may communicate with the public in ways that are not equally effective across schools (Kowalski, 2006; Pawlas, 1995).

Decentralization is characterized by the district and each school having separate and nonintegrated PR programs. With this model, PR operates independently in each subunit (school). The configuration allows principals to tailor activities to specific stakeholder groups and their needs. Clearly, this alternative provides substantial flexibility and makes it more likely school-level employees will engage in PR activities. Decentralization, nevertheless, can result in uneven applications of PR—or even the absence of PR in some schools. In addition, program costs can be higher than in the other alternatives.

A *hybrid approach* to PR is characterized by responsibility being shared between the district and schools. Typically, a district plan is developed first and it designates what functions will be centralized and which will be decentralized. Then individual school plans are developed to ensure that responsibilities delegated to schools are carried out. The primary difference between the hybrid approach and the decentralized approach is that the former is integrative—that is, functions and responsibilities are divided between district administrators and principals. The advantages of this alternative include coordination, a reasonable degree of flexibility, and the expectation that all administrators have a PR role. Several criteria can be applied to evaluate which programming approach is best suited for a specific situation. They include the following:

- *Efficiency*. This criterion is commonly evaluated in terms of human and material resource costs.

- *Control*. This criterion is commonly evaluated in terms of ensuring uniform and appropriate practices.
- *Flexibility*. This criterion is commonly evaluated in terms of being able to make timely adaptations to school-specific stakeholder groups and their needs.
- *Effectiveness*. This criterion is commonly evaluated in terms of program effectiveness.

Figure 6–2 provides an interface of these criteria and the three programming alternatives. Overall, hybrid approaches tend to provide the best combination of efficiency and effectiveness.

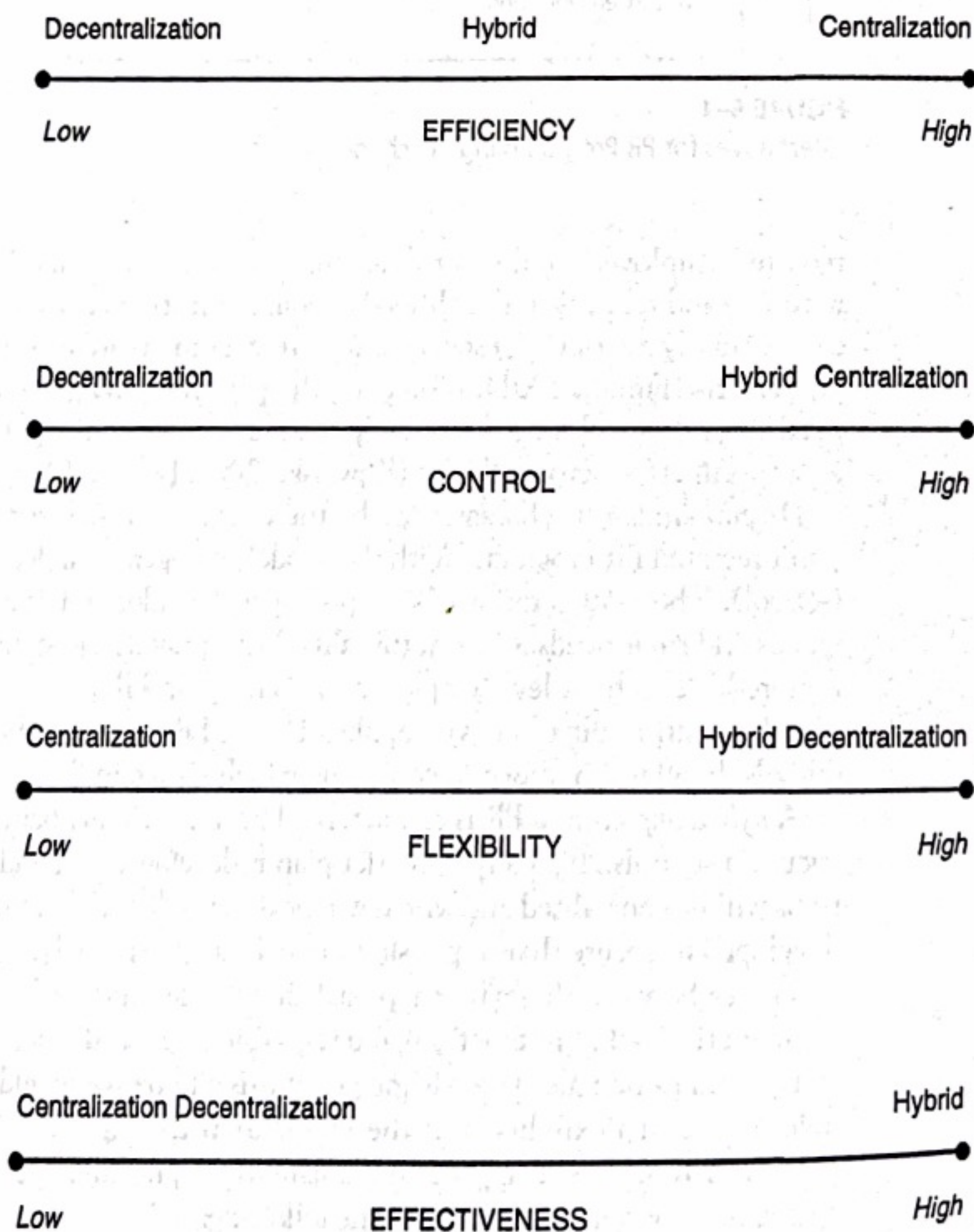


FIGURE 6–2
Interface of District Programming Alternatives and Evaluation Criteria

NONTRADITIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

National surveys conducted over the past decade show that the majority of the public supports some form of school choice, but also believes that such programs should generate minimal controversy (Hausman & Brown, 2002). Therefore, choice among public schools usually is supported more than choice between public and private schools. Fowler (2002) notes that at the superficial level, school choice deals with how students should be assigned to schools and which schools should receive public funding. Beneath the surface, however, the debate is premised on the wisdom of moving public education to the marketplace. Proponents (e.g., Chubb & Moe, 1990) argue that by forcing schools to recruit students, educators will be compelled to be innovative in order to meet stakeholder needs. Opponents counter that public schools of choice draw needed resources from regular programs (Fusarelli, 2002) and provide an opportunity for racial and economic segregation (Eaton, 1996).

Nontraditional Public Schools

Five types of nontraditional public schools are discussed here. One of them, career-technical high schools (or vocational schools), has existed in this country since the early part of the last century. Three others, charter schools and certain types of magnet and alternative schools, became popular after 1960. The final type, online or virtual schools, has emerged just in the past few decades—and these institutions probably pose the greatest threat to traditional public schools. From a PR perspective, all nontraditional public schools share a common need that separates them from most traditional public schools—they must recruit and maintain a sufficient number of students to survive.

Charter Schools. Charter schools became a major reform initiative in the 1990s. Although it is difficult to precisely define these institutions because of varying state statutes (Good & Braden, 2000), they basically are an amalgam of public and private schools. Notably, they receive public funding but are allowed to operate much like private schools. Conceptually, charter schools are supposed to balance freedom (by virtue of being excused from traditional state policies and rules governing public schools) and accountability (by virtue of having to produce evidence of sufficient student performance). Proponents argue that by competing for students, they pressure traditional public schools to improve (Vergari, 1999). Regardless of how charter schools may be described, they are intended to meet the needs of students who are underserved in traditional public schools; thus, "they represent at least an implicit criticism of the status quo" (Perreault, 2004, p. 27). With respect to PR, charter schools resemble private schools in two important ways:

> First, they are self-governing institutions with wide-ranging control over their own curriculum, instruction, staffing, budget, internal organization, and much more. The second similarity is that nearly all of them are schools of choice. Nobody is assigned against his or her will to attend (or teach in) a charter school. (Manno, Finn, & Vanourek, 2000, p. 737)

Imaging and marketing are extremely important for charter school administrators because survival depends on sufficient enrollment. They thus often recruit students vigorously; as a result, their relationships with traditional public schools are often strained (Perreault, 2004). In Dayton, Ohio, for example, the city public schools spent over $500,000 on advertising in the 28-month period between July 2003 and November 2005 in an effort to compete with charter and private schools. Responding to media inquiries, the board president explained that district officials were literally forced to advertise for students after having lost approximately 22% of the district's enrollment to 33 charter schools since 1998 (Elliott, 2005).

Magnet Schools. Magnet schools emerged in the late 1960s, largely in response to forced desegregation in public schools (Rossell, 2005). They are public schools that concentrate on particular academic subjects, and they operate as part of public school districts. Proponents contend that they have benefitted communities by reducing racial segregation and benefitted hundreds of students by providing them a more relevant and focused curriculum (Waldrip, n.d.).

There are two types of magnet schools: whole-school magnets and programs-within-a-school magnets. A *dedicated magnet school* has no set attendance boundaries, and students must apply and be accepted to them. It is estimated that this category accounts for approximately one-third of all magnet schools (Hausman & Brown, 2002). Since this is the only type of magnet school that must recruit a sufficient number of students to survive, it is the only type relevant to our discussion of PR in this chapter.

Career-Technical High Schools. The fundamental mission of career-technical high schools is to prepare students with job-specific skills (Zehr, 1999). Today, these schools have various titles; for example, they may be called vocational schools, area vocational schools, career centers, career-technical schools, or trade schools. Today, career-technical is the preferred title (Reese & Thompson, 2002). Private vocational schools are referred to as proprietary vocational schools, and because they are not public schools, PR programming issues for them are covered by material in the next section on private schools.

The viability of career-technical schools fell into question in many states after America moved from being a manufacturing-based society. Two factors contributed to doubts about the future of these institutions. First, policy analysts began to question whether preparing students for manufacturing jobs was a sound investment of public funds; second, the term *vocational* had assumed a somewhat negative connotation (Reese & Thompson, 2002). In response to the need for skills required in high-technology workplaces, many of these institutions revamped their curricula to a technology core. Nevertheless, student recruitment and state support are persistent problems in some regions.

Alternative Schools. Only a handful of public alternative schools existed 50 years ago. Prior to the 1960s, distinctive options to traditional public elementary and secondary education were found primarily in private schools (Deal & Nolan, 1978; Smith, Gregory, & Pugh, 1981). As national and state policymakers shifted their attention from equality issues to excellence issues during the 1970s, interest in alternative schools waned. While

some alternative schools survived, many local district officials lost interest in establishing new ones. Interest in these schools shifted again in the late 1980s, largely because many leading reformers believed that equity and excellence could be pursued concurrently (Kowalski, 2003). Since then, there has been a proliferation of alternative schools; by 2000, over half the states had enacted some type of provision requiring alternative public schools. The primary intent of such legislation is to improve education opportunities for students excluded or about to be excluded from regular programs (Barr & Parrett, 2001) and to respond to national reform initiatives such as the No Child Left Behind Act (2002).

In fact, there are three types of alternative schools; Raywid (1994) described them as follows:

- *Type I schools* are institutions of choice that any student may attend until high school graduation. These schools are innovative and have nontraditional organizational and administrative structures.
- *Type II schools* are placement institutions enrolling disruptive students for a temporary period. These schools provide an alternative to expulsion, and they focus on behavior modification in order to reduce or eliminate problems that caused discipline concerns in traditional schools.
- *Type III schools* are referral institutions enrolling students with academic, social, or emotional difficulties. These schools focus on rehabilitating students so that they can succeed in a traditional school.

Both Type II and Type III schools attempt to change the student, behaviorally in the former and behaviorally and/or academically in the latter. Type I schools, however, focus on changing the school environment. The dissimilar missions reflect differences in how sponsoring district officials frame problems associated with students not succeeding in traditional schools. Whereas Type II and Type III schools are predicated on the belief that the student is the problem, Type I schools are predicated on the belief that traditional school environments are the problem (Kowalski & Reynolds, 2003). Leading alternative-school scholars (e.g., Conrath, 2001; Gregory, 2001; Raywid, 1995) contend that most students who encounter difficulty in traditional schools do so because their learning styles and intellectual talents do not conform to traditional school norms. Placing these students in Type I rather than in Type II schools has proven more effective (Wehlage, Rutter, Smith, Lesko, & Fernandez, 1989).

Therefore, Type I alternative schools are institutions of choice, and like other nontraditional public schools discussed here, they must recruit and maintain a sufficient number of students to ensure their existence. In this vein, they and the other nontraditional public schools require some aspects of PR programming (e.g., student recruitment) that have not been integral for traditional public schools.

Virtual Schools. Since the mid-1990s, virtual publicly funded schools have presented the greatest threat to traditional public schools. Many of them, called *cybercharters*, were created under state charter school laws. Their growth since the mid-1990s has been spectacular. "By 2006, 18 states had a combined total of 147 virtual charter schools educating over 65,000 students" (Gaither, 2009, p. 17).

In addition, some states have created hybrid virtual schools. These institutions partner with traditional schools, allowing students to take some courses online. The Florida Virtual School is a quintessential example. Operated by the Florida Department of Education and partnering with all 67 school districts in the state, the institution's enrollment has increased from 77 students in 1997 to 113,900 in 2007–08 (Virtual Schools, 2009).

As is the case with all other nontraditional public schools, virtual schools recruit students. Thus, their interest in PR programming is typically high. To this point, these institutions have attracted students from private schools, public schools, and home schooling.

Private Schools

Private schools have to rely on attractive programs, values, and aspects of climate and culture to recruit and retain students. Success often depends on the delivery of a challenging, personalized academic curriculum in a socially defined atmosphere. Therefore, compared to traditional public schools, private schools are accustomed to operating in a competitive environment.

Generalizations about private schools are precarious because these institutions have different missions and serve different clientele. For example, they differ with respect to having a religious affiliation, cost, and admission standards. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (Broughman & Swaim, 2006), there are approximately 28,350 private elementary and secondary schools in this country enrolling roughly 5.3 million students (or about 10% of all elementary and secondary students in this country). Most of them are coeducational (95%) and religiously affiliated (76%). Interest in parochial schools has been the greatest in urban areas where many families have lost confidence in their local public schools. Even when religion is not a factor, some families have selected parochial schools because they think these schools provide superior discipline and academic focus (Convey, 1992).

Financial Realities. Compared with public school funding, private school revenue streams are less assured and more irregular. Private school administrators, however, typically have more flexibility in making resource allocation decisions, initiating fund-raising activities, and investing funds. Seeking greater flexibility in using public fiscal resources, many public schools have established their own educational foundations in recent years. These separate legal entities allow foundation boards to expend money collected from private donors (Merz & Frankel, 1997). Even so, private schools may be forced to close when they cannot generate sufficient tuition revenue to continue operations—and this fact clearly elevates the importance of relationships between school personnel and stakeholders.

Attraction. A number of writers (e.g., Greeley & McManus, 1987; Rothstein, Carnoy, & Benveniste, 1999) have pointed out that private schools, especially religious schools, emphasize organizational climate as an asset. "Climate" refers to the general characteristics of a school, and it is analogous to an individual's personality—that is, climate is the characteristic that makes us feel the way we do about a school (Kowalski, 2003).

Public perceptions of private schools are shaped primarily by comparison. When compared to urban public schools, for instance, most people believe that private schools are safer, more orderly, and more effective academically. Several researchers (e.g., Convey, 1992; Crawford & Freeman, 1996) have found that instruction and discipline often trump religious considerations when parents decide to send their children to religious schools. In the final analysis, however, parents choose private schools for a combination of reasons (Newman, 1995). Although academic and safety concerns are common, many parents also believe that public schools lack a sense of moral purpose and are places where their values are ignored or, even worse, openly ridiculed.

Organizing PR in Schools of Choice

Largely because neither private schools nor non-traditional public schools are guaranteed a steady flow of students, marketing and PR must be treated as interrelated functions. Collectively, these tasks require the following:

- Monitoring the environment to detect changing needs and wants,
- Interpreting known needs and wants,
- Defining the school, and
- Communicating information about relevant programs and building goodwill.

Student recruitment (i.e., selling the product) is an extension of marketing and PR. Except in large-enrollment private schools and non-traditional public schools that function within the framework of a large local district, one administrator or staff member usually has responsibility for all three functions.

Selling or student recruitment typically receives the most attention from administrators because they know that continued operation depends on having a sufficient number of the right types of students. There are both quantitative and qualitative dimensions to this assignment. Quantitatively, these schools must enroll a sufficient number of students; qualitatively, they must enroll students who fit the school's image and mission. Thus, the quantitative dimension addresses an economic goal—getting enough students (and tuition income) to ensure viability; the qualitative dimension addresses philosophical and programmatic goals—getting enough of the right type of student to validate image and fulfill commitments.

The qualitative dimension of student recruitment can be an especially sticky wicket for charter school administrators because legal parameters and political community expectations often constrict them. For instance, charter schools often are expected to enroll a sufficient number of preferred students while maintaining a racial and economic balance similar to that found in other public schools. Or they may be required to provide a broad curriculum, including special education programs. Non-traditional public school administrators also face important admissions questions that rarely create conflict for private school administrators. For instance, under what circumstances may a charter school deny admission to an applicant? A study of the 36 state charter school laws in effect at the time revealed that all but 2 contained some provision ensuring that underrepresented groups have equal access to these institutions (Ausbrooks, 2001). Although charter schools can and do deny some students admission, administrators in these institutions typically have less latitude than private school principals in this regard.

Parental commitment is arguably important in every school, but it is particularly critical in schools of choice. When parents select a school, they usually feel a special sense of responsibility; in the case of private schools, tuition payments almost always deepen this feeling. Consequently, parents who become disillusioned, disappointed, or mistreated often act swiftly to transfer their children to another school. Recognizing this proclivity, administrators in schools of choice should continuously reinforce the convictions that initially influenced parents—action that requires them to first know these reasons and then to validate them.

In traditional public schools, marketing and PR activities are often divided between district-level and school-level initiatives. In schools of choice, these responsibilities often belong entirely or primarily to principals (and possibly assistant principals). The greatest challenges related to providing a coherent PR program are commonly faced by principals in very small enrollment schools. These administrators rarely have administrative support staff, yet they are expected to build and maintain community relations, recruit students, and perform the managerial and leadership duties assumed by all other principals.

Some private school principals have relegated marketing and PR responsibilities to teachers or parent volunteers. While this option may appear prudent, it usually has proven to be ineffective for at least three reasons:

1. The individuals selected were not prepared adequately for these assignments.
2. The individuals selected failed to devote a sufficient amount of time to these assignments.
3. Marketing, PR, and recruiting got fragmented because each task was being executed by a different employee or volunteer.

Recognizing these problems, administrators may combine marketing and PR with recruiting and fund-raising. This decision makes it more likely that either a half-time or a full-time specialist could be employed. For example, private schools often compensate fund-raisers on a commission basis—that is, the fund-raisers receive a percentage of the funds they raise.

Student and Parental Involvement

In business, selling a product is easier when a potential buyer knows the characteristics of a satisfied consumer. The same principle is true for schools of choice. Students and parents who praise the school and talk about its successes often prove effective recruiters. Stated differently, satisfied students and parents can be goodwill ambassadors who independently relate positive attitudes to friends, neighbors, and relatives. These individuals also can contribute to PR in other ways, such as providing testimonials that appear in ads and publications (Warner, 1994).

A school advisory committee is another way to broaden participation in a PR program. Students and parents serving on the committee usually have valuable insights about the following topics:

- How the school's PR efforts are received in the community;
- The school's strengths and weaknesses;
- Ways that parents can become more involved in the school's operations;
- How marketing, recruiting, and fund-raising could be improved; and
- Family-oriented social events that build goodwill.

Involving parents and students on the PR committee also conveys a powerful symbolic message: the school engages families. Parental involvement partially explains why parent–teacher associations have been a potent force in developing school image. Most parents react positively to messages telling them that they are welcome in the school and that their direct involvement is welcomed and appreciated.

Many private schools depend on parent volunteers (including grandparents) to offset resource deficiencies. Such participation is truly a win–win situation because the benefits extend beyond PR to the students themselves. Research indicates that parental involvement and home–learning activities positively influence student grades, attendance, and behavior (Simon, 2001). Hence, the high rate of parental involvement in schools of choice may partially explain the relatively high rate of student success reported by many of these schools.

SUMMARY

The tone for effective PR in districts and schools is set by the superintendent. He or she almost always has more influence than any other individual with respect to determining if a PR program will be established and the nature of the program that is developed. Specifically, the superintendent should determine who will be responsible for the program, the philosophical framework of the program, and the organizational structure of the program.

In the past, the need for PR in public schools was arguably lower than it was in private schools—largely because private schools relied on PR to recruit students. Today, this same requirement is found in many public schools. For example, nontraditional public schools, such as career centers, charter, magnet, alternative, and virtual schools, also recruit students and their continued existence may depend on how successfully they do so. Less discernible, some traditional public schools also face the possibility of being closed. Various policies supporting parental choice (e.g., charter school legislation, open enrollment laws, and vouchers) and continued outmigration to suburbs especially threaten the future of low-performing urban schools. And the continued expansion of distance learning programs may force all public schools to compete vigorously for students in the future. Thus, the structure and effectiveness of PR programs are arguably more essential now than at any time previously.

QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

CASE STUDY

1. What factors may be responsible for poor school–community relations in the school district?
2. Did Superintendent Turner act responsibly by creating the PR program? Why or why not?
3. What could have been done to enhance the success of the PR program?
4. Was Principal Simmons adequately prepared to become the program director? Why or why not?

CHAPTER 7

Planning, Implementing, and Evaluating Programs

CASE STUDY: WHEN SCHOOLS AND RELATIONSHIPS FAIL TO IMPROVE

Before becoming superintendent of the Hawthorne County District, Paul Levine was told that the district had one of the finest PR programs in the state. After he assumed his position, he began to have doubts. After meeting with the PR director, Judy Borden, he discovered that the program lacked a mission statement, a vision statement, and an operational plan. When he asked why these documents had not been developed, Ms. Borden said she had never been directed by the previous superintendent to develop them. Therefore, she assumed they were not needed. She opined that the program's primary intent was to enhance the district's image and to deal with the media, and she felt that the tasks had been completed successfully during her tenure as program director.

After their meeting, Ms. Borden provided Superintendent Levine with annual reports that had been given to the school board in each of the last 5 years. The documents looked impressive and they included descriptive data regarding activities associated with the PR program. Virtually all of the content pertained to work carried out personally by Ms. Borden. There were sections on public meetings including school board meetings (e.g., their frequency, purpose, number of attendees), media contacts (e.g., listing of print and broadcast media coverage of the district), the district's Web page (e.g., how often stakeholders visited the page), and press releases and news conferences. At face value, the numbers looked impressive because they increased, albeit slightly, each year.

Dr. Levine had a second meeting with Ms. Borden after reading the annual reports. Having found no annual goals in any of the evaluation reports, he asked her why the reports had been written. She answered, "The school board requested the first one, and because they were pleased, they asked me to keep preparing them."

"What were you evaluating?" Dr. Levine asked.

"As I said in our first meeting, the PR program has always focused on two things: enhancing the district's image and good media relations."

Dr. Levine then asked, "Do you conclude, therefore, that the quantification of activities in the annual reports constitutes evidence that these two purposes have been met?"

Ms. Borden said that those data were the only evidence available.

Superintendent Levine discussed his concern about the PR program with the school board president, Janet Kramer. Mrs. Kramer was surprised at his comments, in part because she had never heard any concern voiced about the PR program previously and in part because she did not understand why he was concerned. Dr. Levine explained that all types of programs, including PR, should have an acceptable mission, specific performance and improvement goals, and periodic evaluations of goal attainment. He indicated that he found none of these benchmarks in the PR program. He added that although output data regarding stakeholder interaction and media activities appeared favorable, they did not de facto constitute evidence of program effectiveness. His convictions were that school PR programs had two primary purposes: they should establish and maintain positive relationships (internally among individuals and groups comprising the district and externally between school personnel and other stakeholders); the relationships constructed should be utilized as a resource for school improvement.

INTRODUCTION

When asked if their districts or schools have a PR program, administrators commonly respond that they do. But, they often describe the program as informal and supplemental to more traditional administrative functions. In truth, rather than having formal programs, many education institutions engage in PR activities when it is self-serving to do so (e.g., to pass a tax referendum). Moreover, these activities are often carried out with little or no planning or specific goals.

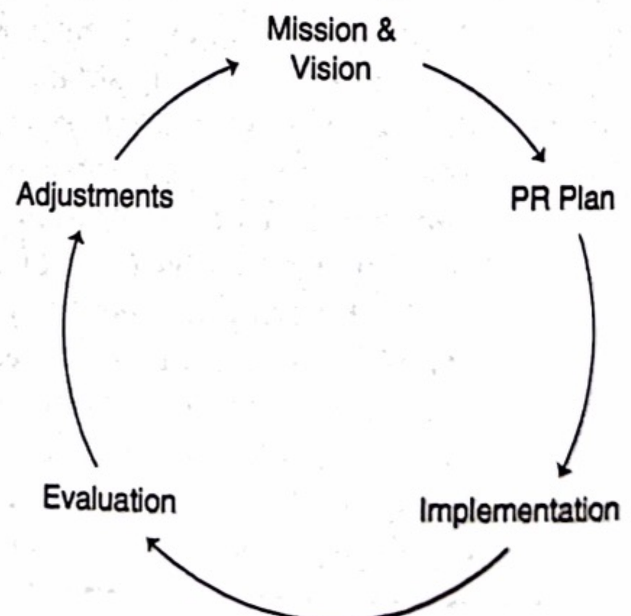
As the case study demonstrates, even PR programs with a positive reputation may lack a clear purpose, specific objectives, and a philosophical compass. Consequently, any contribution these programs make to school effectiveness may be serendipitous. Highly effective programs are nested in both a relevant mission and achievable vision. They are carefully planned, implemented with adequate resources, continuously evaluated, and improved when necessary. These characteristics produce a continuous cycle of development, maintenance, and assessment, as illustrated in Figure 7–1.

The topics of mission and vision statements were addressed previously in Chapter 6. The intent here is to examine planning, implementation, and evaluation.

After reading this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

- Identify various planning alternatives.
- Explain why PR planning is essential.
- Identify characteristics of effective PR plans.
- Identify aspects of developing a school PR plan.
- Identify human and material resources that are relevant to program implementation.
- Describe the difference between formative and summative evaluation.
- Describe the difference between program outputs and program outcomes.
- Explain why multiple methods and multiple resources improve the quality of program evaluation.
- Explain the concept of program utility.

FIGURE 7–1
Development and Maintenance of a PR Program



PROGRAM PLANNING

Without a plan, superintendents and principals can only guess if PR initiatives are moving in the right direction. Yet, having such a written document has not been the norm, particularly at the school level. Instead, PR decisions usually have been spontaneous and predicated primarily on past practice and tradition. Without specific goals and strategies, administrators rely on trial and error; poor decisions heighten indifference toward PR.

Planning Processes

Because of vast differences in enrollment, tradition, philosophy, and needs, no single plan is suitable for all school districts and schools. Public schools, for example, typically have district-wide PR plans; private schools tend to have a single-school plan. All plans, however, should contain measurable goals, strategies for meeting the goals, and details for assessing and evaluating effectiveness and the need for improvements. Moreover, the following core processes are universally relevant:

- *Defining publics being served.* Administrators can relate more effectively to stakeholders if they accurately define relevant publics. Kirst and Kelley (1995) explain that this process produces a better understanding of prevailing conditions such as "racial composition, cultural and language diversity, poverty levels, and indicators of risk factors for children" (p. 37).
- *Defining the district or school.* This process entails identifying and analyzing mission, philosophy, and organizational strengths and weaknesses. Collectively, these data reveal what a district or school is supposed to do, what it wants to look like in the future in meeting its mission, and assets and liabilities in relation to meeting the mission and achieving the vision.
- *Benchmarking.* Benchmarks are performance standards or metrics, usually for a high-performing organization (e.g., 85% of high school graduates enrolling in colleges and universities). Benchmarking is part of visioning in that benchmarks set standards for institutional improvement.
- *Validating a PR mission.* A PR mission is related to but separate from a district or school mission statement. It should detail what the PR program is supposed to do.
- *Constructing a collaborative PR vision.* A PR vision is related to but separate from a district or school vision. It should describe shared values and beliefs that provide a mosaic that describes what the program is expected to look like in meeting its mission at some designated point in the future.
- *Establishing short-term goals and strategies.* Short-term goals (typically 1 or 2 years) provide performance standards for determining if the PR mission is being met and if adequate progress toward reaching the PR vision is being made (Gronstedt, 1997). Strategies provide tactics for goal achievement.
- *Developing a communications calendar.* This process identifies tasks and deadlines for the period covered by the planning document; for example, it should identify when and by whom periodic evaluations of the PR program will be conducted.

- *Listing relevant laws and policies.* Including relevant laws and policies in a plan is advantageous because the information informs PR decisions and activities.
- *Constructing messages and themes.* Messages and themes are intended to garner support for the district or school by directly and symbolically communicating intentions. Good themes are concise, rhythmic, memorable, and easy to understand (e.g., "Quest for Quality" or "Public Education: A Sound Investment in America"; Bagin, Ferguson, & Marx, 1985, p. 112). More so than the mission statement, themes convey values and beliefs to relevant publics; they are an overt expression of organizational culture and philosophy (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).
- *Listing publications.* Publications such as newsletters and information packets have been and remain an important part of PR programming. Therefore, a plan should identify publications and provide such information as their purpose, content, and distribution.
- *Listing of information services.* This process should produce a list of information services relevant to the district or school. Examples include procedures for contacting the superintendent, how to get a matter on the school board agenda, and how to obtain general information about the school district. It also identifies organizational components that generate or distribute information.
- *Listing media outlets.* This process should produce a list of all pertinent media outlets and contact information for journalists (Gronstedt, 1997).
- *Specifying program evaluation parameters.* This process should result in a rationale for and description of a periodic PR program evaluation, preferably on an annual basis.

Various linear plans found in the literature can be applied to school public relations. One of the most widely recognized was developed by Kotler, Roberto, and Lee (2002). This paradigm entails four sequential stages:

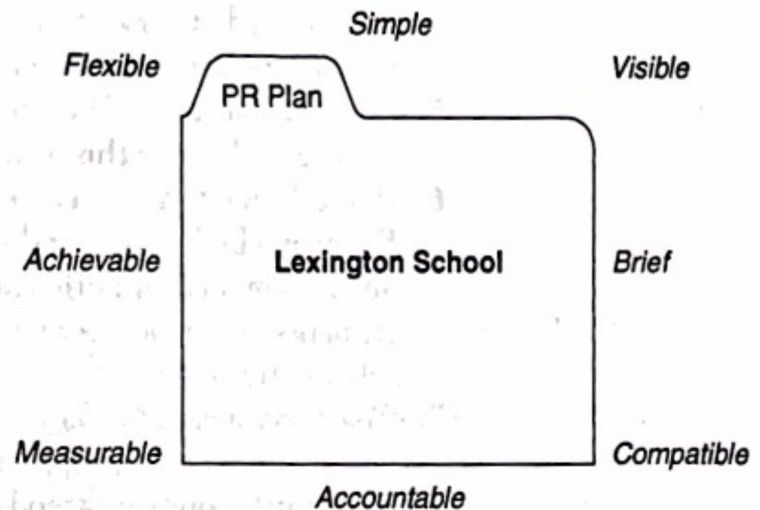
1. Formative research (in the case of schools, analyzing the broader community, the school, and relevant publics)
2. Strategy (in the case of schools, setting goals and objectives and identifying strategies for attaining them)
3. Tactics (in the case of schools, determining how communication will occur and implementing the plan)
4. Evaluative research (in the case of schools, summative and formative evaluations of goal attainment and the overall strategic plan)

Characteristics of Effective Plans

Although PR plans have been developed in different shapes and sizes, the best ones share several common characteristics. The following attributes, also shown in Figure 7–2, are the most notable:

- *Simplicity.* Plans often are ineffective if they are unduly complex and use language some stakeholders do not comprehend.
- *Visibility.* An effective plan is made available to interested parties; it is known to and recognized by stakeholders.

FIGURE 7–2
Attributes of Effective PR Plans



- *Brevity*. An effective plan is succinct and to the point.
- *Compatibility*. The plan contains goals and strategies that are compatible with a district or school mission, philosophy, and vision.
- *Accountability*. The plan identifies personnel responsible for PR functions and activities included in the plan.
- *Measurability*. The goals and strategies included in the plan are measurable.
- *Achievability*. The goals and strategies included in the plan are achievable based on available human and material resources.
- *Flexibility*. The plan can be modified as conditions warrant.

Planning Team

A planning team is expected to make decisions collectively. According to Yukl (2006), a group's ability to do this successfully is determined by seven variables:

1. *Size*. Although larger groups often have the advantage of a broader knowledge base and range of political perspectives, they often incur communication problems. Therefore, the size of the PR planning committee should be determined by balancing the need for knowledge, the need for opposing political perspectives, and importance of intragroup communication. Typically, planning teams have between 7 and 12 members.
2. *Members' status*. Because most districts and schools serve diverse publics, planning teams often include members who have differing status. When this occurs, high-status members tend to dominate low-status members. Rather than appointing only high-status members, the administrator facilitating the planning process needs to use decision strategies that prevent this problem, or at least minimize its effects.
3. *Cohesiveness*. Cohesive refers to the extent to which group members share philosophical convictions and goals. Typically, cohesive groups are more effective; however, this factor needs to be weighed in relation to importance of diversity.
4. *Diversity*. High levels of diversity can impede cohesiveness and communication and result in frequent conflict. Even so, most school administrators, especially those in public schools, recognize that diversity is essential and a potential asset.

Properly led, diverse groups can be highly effective because of the broad perspectives expressed in relation to planning.

5. *Emotional maturity*. Working collaboratively requires emotional maturity. Group members who lack this quality may be disruptive and aggressive.
6. *Physical environment*. The environment used for planning meetings is important. For example, location and seating arrangements can transmit symbolic messages about formality, authority, and power. Generally, informal meetings in which participants sit around a conference table in a neutral location are more effective than other options.
7. *Communication technology*. The work of a planning team also is affected by the degree that technology supports their work. Examples include providing preliminary communication (e.g., agendas and support material) by email, maintaining an electronic bulletin board for team members, and providing access to pertinent data.

Although it is unlikely that all team members will be experienced planners, it is desirable to select participants who have strong people skills and a commitment to working together. Staff development efforts can create an awareness of the major processes and issues in planning. In their research, Brown, Perry, and McIntire (1995) found that while educators recognize the need for broad representation in planning, they also must realize that "team building is a prerequisite" (p. 3). Individuals should be selected who can work toward consensus, which requires an ability to put aside individual biases and agendas and to base decisions on objective data. It has been observed that "people trained in the technical aspects of the job, in how groups function, and in what members and leaders can do to help groups function more effectively make good group members" (Wheelan, 1999, p. 14).

Administrator Interventions

Administrators can contribute to successful planning by ensuring that key activities take place. The following actions usually contribute to successful planning.

- *Designating member roles*. Planning teams function more effectively when members have designated roles intended to reduce conflict over authority and responsibilities (Kimball, 1995; Patton & Downs, 2003) and distribute work assignments rather evenly (Nutt, 1989).
- *Establishing a sense of ownership*. Members are more functional when they assume ownership of the team—as opposed to referring to the group as the superintendent's team or PR director's team (Garmston, 2002).
- *Setting clear, measurable, and acceptable objectives*. Teams are more functional if members know and accept what they are supposed to accomplish (Nutt, 1989; Patton & Downs, 2003).
- *Providing democratic and facilitative leadership*. Teams are more functional if they have leaders who encourage creativity (Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993), engage in democratic decision making (Kowalski, Lasley, & Mahoney, 2008), and facilitate rather than dictate and dominate (Yukl, 2006).
- *Selecting capable team members*. Teams are more successful with members who possess pertinent knowledge and process skills to complete the task assigned to them

(Innami, 1994). In selecting team members, administrators usually must weigh two forces: decision importance and decision acceptability. If planning decisions are deemed highly important, then member expertise is a primary issue; if planning decisions must be accepted by various publics, then diversity and member political influence are primary issues (Kowalski et al., 2008).

School-Level Supplemental Planning

The case for developing supplemental school-level PR plans as extensions of the district plan is based on two convictions. First, some stakeholders continue to view PR as being synonymous with verbs like *cover up*, *obfuscate*, *misrepresent*, and *lie* (Martinson, 1995). School-level programs are more likely to change these misperceptions because parents and other citizens have more direct contact with schools. Thus, school-level supplemental plans often make PR more tolerable to stakeholders. Second, needs, including those pertaining to PR, may not be constant across schools in a district. Thus, school-level supplemental plans allow for flexibility, making it more probable that school-specific needs will be addressed.

Supplemental school-level PR plans extend rather than nullify a district PR plan. Therefore, these documents should identify how and why the district plan is extended and how district-level and school-level activities will be coordinated. To help ensure that PR is a viable school function, the principal should establish a school PR committee. This group might include the district PR director or other district-level administrator (serving as a liaison to the superintendent), at least one community stakeholder, and several school employees including the principal or an assistant principal (West, 1985). The relationship between a district-level PR plan and a supplemental school-level PR plan is illustrated in Figure 7–3.

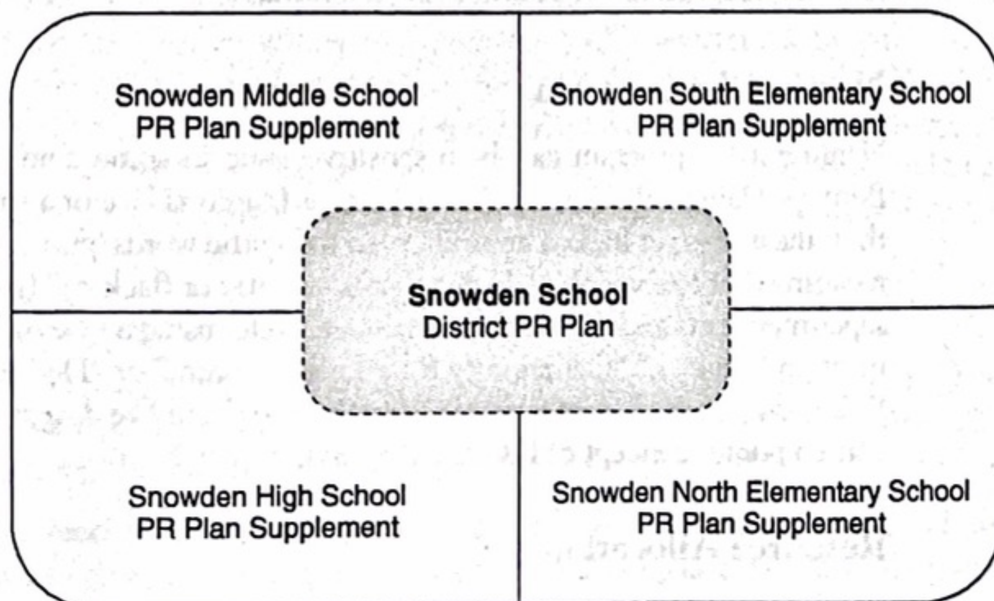


FIGURE 7–3
Relationship Between a District PR Plan and School-Level Supplemental PR Plans

IMPLEMENTING

Program implementation centers on human and material resources. The task is guided by three queries: Who will administer the program? What name will be given to the program? How much needs to be budgeted to support program success?

Administrative Responsibility

Smaller enrollment districts either do not have a PR program director or they have a part-time director. In the absence of a director, the responsibility typically is assumed by the superintendent, possibly with assistance from the principals. Studies of PR directors (e.g., Zoch, Patterson, & Olson, 1997) indicate that their overall responsibilities usually are managerial and technical. They administer the program (e.g., make resource allocation decisions) and provide technical assistance to those who engage in PR activities (e.g., helping a principal to develop a school Web page). The PR director should be a member of the district's administrative team and should have easy if not direct access to the superintendent.

In determining the administrative structure of the PR program, the superintendent should first decide how the program will interface with individual schools and their principals. Even good plans falter when they remain hidden from employees expected to implement them. PR directors not only interact with district-level administrators, they typically interact with principals and teachers. Thus, the superintendent should devise an administrative structure that enhances relationship building.

Encouraging school districts to employ a PR professional, Carr (2009) posits that increased communication is a necessity when schools face multiple difficulties. She adds that a PR director can help administrators and school board members to (a) deal with public opinion, (b) use communication tools effectively, and (c) deal effectively with the media. Ideally, the PR specialist possesses knowledge and skills pertaining to education and PR (or a related field such as communication or journalism).

Naming the Program

Naming a PR program can be a sensitive issue in some communities. Quoting Edward Bernays, Davis (1986) wrote, "Words are as fragile as lace or a soap bubble. The words and their meanings get kicked around . . . so today the words 'public relations' are so muddy in meaning that to some they do mean press agentry or flackery" (p. 14). Consequently, many superintendents and school board members prefer using a title such as "Division of Communication Services," "Community Relations Division," or "Division of School–Community Relations." Regardless of its name, the division should be designed to implement the broad contemporary concept of PR described in Chapter 1.

Resource Allocation

No plan can succeed without adequate material resources. Therefore, the superintendent also must ensure that the district is providing the program an ample budget. In the past, some administrators have made the mistake of treating PR as a fiscally neutral program—that is,

they thought the plan could be implemented with little or no cost. If designed and managed appropriately, however, a PR plan could produce a favorable cost–benefit ratio for the school district. For example, effective use of communication and information may facilitate the quality of administrative decisions—an outcome that could reduce expenditures associated with correcting mistakes or collecting the same data repeatedly.

To determine a budget for a PR program, administrators must address the following issues:

- *Personnel costs*. Typically, much of the cost for a PR program relates to human resources, especially if a program director is employed. In larger systems, several employees may be assigned to work in the program.
- *Location of the PR program office*. In most school systems, the PR office is located in the district's administrative building. Regardless of location, consideration should be given to known physical space costs, such as remodeling and maintenance.
- *Supplies and equipment*. The program budget should include allocations to purchase supplies and equipment (e.g., computers, fax machines).
- *Travel and incidental costs*. PR programs typically require resources to support functions such as press conferences and public meetings and to support the travel expenses of the director and possibly other employees.

EVALUATING PROGRAMS

After a PR program has been planned, staffed, and implemented, periodic assessments should be conducted as part of an annual evaluation. At the most basic level, evaluation is the determination of worth, value, or quality (Worthen, Borg, & White, 1993). Program evaluation is "a research-based discipline" (Noble, 1999, p. 19).

Assessments, such as measuring and testing, contribute to but are different from evaluation. For example, determining how many times the school Web page has been accessed is an assessment. Evaluation involves a comparison of assessment data with a standard or benchmark to determine quality or worth. For example, has access to the school Web page been above average, average, or below average? To make this evaluative decision, you would need to know the figure for average access (i.e., the standard). Evaluations can be conducted in various ways, and it is important for you to know basic distinctions between them.

Types of Evaluation

Distinctions among types of evaluations are commonly made on four levels. They are relevant to what is being evaluated, the level of formality, the intended purpose, and the persons conducting the evaluation.

- *Performance versus program*. In schools, there are two types of evaluation based on the intended objective: performance evaluation and program evaluation. The former is used to determine if an employee or student has performed satisfactorily; the latter is used to determine if a program has performed satisfactorily. A PR director, for example, typically receives an annual performance evaluation conducted by his or her supervisor; a PR

program evaluation is typically conducted by one or more persons to determine if the program (a) has met its goals, (b) needs to be improved, and (c) should be continued.

- *Formal versus informal.* Formal evaluation is systematic and controlled. The process should be conducted rationally and objectively, and decisions (conclusions) are based primarily on empirical assessments. Informal evaluation occurs without structure and is based largely on subjective perceptions. Thus, conclusions drawn from informal evaluations are usually less valid and reliable than those drawn from formal evaluation (Worthen et al., 1993).
- *Formative versus summative.* Assessments and evaluations should be both formative and summative. The former concentrates on *process*; for example, the primary intent is to identify ways to improve a program by making changes and improvements. The latter concentrates on *product*; the primary intent is to determine if the program has met its mission. Summative evaluations are especially important with respect to providing accountability data for stakeholders.
- *Internal versus external.* Internal evaluations are conducted by district or school employees; external evaluations are conducted by others, such as consultants, professors, or state agency personnel. Generally, external evaluations are considered more objective.

Outputs and Outcomes

A PR output is considered the short-term result of one or more PR activities; collectively, outputs measure the amount of attention or exposure a school receives (Lindenmann, 1997). Examples include the number of stakeholders attending public meetings at the school, opinions expressed on a parent survey, and the number of stakeholders serving on school committees. Outputs also may include assessments of PR events—for example, assessing the success of a press conference held by the principal. By comparison, a PR outcome is considered a longer term and more enduring result (Lindenmann, 1997). In the case of schools, the quintessential PR outcomes are relationships.

Distinguishing between outputs and outcomes is especially important to evaluating school PR programs. For example, a principal can easily make mistakes if he does not distinguish between them accurately. Assume one of the PR goals is to improve teacher–parent relationships. When evaluating progress toward this goal, the principal uses attendance figures for monthly PTA meetings. He concludes that because the attendance increased on average by 10%, the goal of improving relationships was met. In fact, attendance is an output, not an outcome. It may be a relevant output, but standing alone, it does not provide evidence of improved relationships (the outcome).

Essential Questions

The person responsible for the evaluation of the PR program needs to answer several essential questions in creating the process:

- *Who?* Who will conduct the evaluation? Who needs to know the outcomes? Who will be affected by the outcomes?
- *What?* What will be evaluated? What evaluative questions will guide the process? What data sources will be examined? What standards must be met to determine if a program is successful?

- *When?* When will the evaluation occur? When will the results be reported?
- *Which?* Which assessments (outputs) will be included? Which assessments (outputs) will be excluded?

Utility

Utility refers to the usefulness of program evaluations. To enhance utility, administrators should address the following issues:

- *Evaluation purpose*. Why is the process being conducted? Unless employees and other stakeholders have a clear understanding of why such research is being conducted, they may be suspicious or even reluctant to participate. Ideally, the purposes should be both summative and formative.
- *Evaluation methods*. How the research is conducted will depend on the purpose. If the process is seen as subjective and self-serving, the findings and conclusions may have little or no effect on the district or school.
- *Communicating findings and conclusions*. Consideration should be given to the manner in which the evaluation report will be disseminated. This includes determining stakeholders who should receive the report.
- *Establishing relevance*. For evaluations to be useful, they must be relevant to issues deemed of value to the district or school. For example, PR program evaluations are more likely to receive attention if the findings and conclusions are linked to institutional goals, such as school improvement.

Methods, Techniques, and Sources

Lindenmann (1993) advised that "there is no one simplistic method for measuring PR effectiveness" (p. 9). In any form of program evaluation, using multiple types of assessment is preferable. For example, outputs can be measured by applying qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methodologies; in each method, multiple techniques can be used to collect data. The following are examples:

- Direct observations
- Record keeping
- Opinion polling
- Focus groups
- Interviews
- Case studies
- Surveys

The likelihood of reaching incorrect conclusions is greater when evaluators use only one or two assessment methods.

Likewise, relying on multiple sources of data is preferable to relying on a single source. For example, collecting data about teacher–parent relationships is more likely to be accurate if data are obtained from both teachers and parents. In addition to improving the reliability and validity of an evaluation, a multiple methods/multiple resources approach "provides a broader perspective and credibility is enhanced" (Tener, 2009, p. 63).

SUMMARY

Content in the previous chapter explained the importance of purposefully designing a PR program, especially with respect to determining mission, vision, and configuration. This chapter focused on planning, implementing, and evaluating a program. Although it is important to determine if a program met its annual objectives, it is equally important to assess and evaluate activities in an effort to adjust and improve programming.

Too often, the merit of PR programming is examined solely through outputs—short-term accomplishments that may or may not influence the quality of a district or school. Ultimately, the cost–benefit ratio for PR programs should be determined by two essential outcomes. The first is the extent to which relationships, both among internal stakeholders and between school employees and other stakeholders, are improved. The second is the extent to which improved relationships elevate school effectiveness.

QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

CASE STUDY

1. Ms. Borden identified two broad purposes for the PR program. What were they?
2. Do you agree or disagree with Superintendent Levine's opinion that the two purposes are not per se performance goals?
3. Do you agree or disagree with Superintendent Levine's opinion that the data in the annual reports do not constitute compelling evidence that either broad purpose has been achieved? Why or why not?
4. What should be done to improve the PR program in the Hawthorne County Schools?

CHAPTER

5. Why is it necessary to have both mission and vision statements prior to planning?
6. Who should be involved in planning a PR program?
7. Why would you have a school PR plan if there is a district PR plan?
8. Develop a sample job description for a director of PR in a district with 10,000 students. Be sure to list required and desired qualifications.
9. Why is the name given to a PR program important?
10. Why should programs be evaluated formatively and summatively?
11. Who should be involved in program evaluations?
12. How often should programs be evaluated?
13. What is the relationship between outputs and outcomes?

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