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By

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AN INVESTIGATON OF THE PROGRAM PLANNING PROCESS FOR ATHLETIC TRAINING CURRICULUM EDUCATION PROGRAMS

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
AND POLICY STUDIES

BY

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It took your birth to achieve this finale.

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ABSTRACT

An Investigation of the Program Planning Process for Athletic Training Curriculum Education Programs. (April 2006)

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Connie Dillon

It has been said that "planning an educational program is a lot like teaching – everyone thinks they're good at it" (Sork, 1990, p73). This, however, is not always true, especially in the eyes of professional program planners. Program planning is a decision-making process that defines a set of related activities designed to develop an educational program specific for adult learners. The purpose of this study is to identify factors related to program planning that distinguish successful and unsuccessful athletic training curriculum education programs. The significance of this research will be to identify program planning models that are successfully used in developing an athletic training education program. Once identified, they may be used by program planners in the field to develop a program that will have success with accreditation and furthermore, produce highly qualified certified athletic trainers to render care to injured student athletes.

This study provided an in-depth analysis of the process of program planning in a pre-professional education setting. The population of the study represented included undergraduate programs that have attempted accreditation within the past three years. The sample consisted of athletic training curriculum directors from either successfully accredited or unsuccessfully accredited athletic training educational programs.

Theoretical sampling was used and data was collected using an open-ended interview which focused on the particular choice of program planning model used in the development of their curriculum education program. The analysis examined the process used to develop the program and plans for implementation and evaluation. The data was analyzed by transcribing the interviews while identifying emerging themes or trends. The following themes were identified in the differentiation of successful and unsuccessful athletic training curriculum education programs: curriculum director education, program planning experience and expertise; time and resources associated with program planning; and the use of external support, an external consultant and the diversity and use of the planning committee.

The study found that there is not one specific factor that will ultimately lead to the development of a successfully accredited athletic training education program. There are many explanations as to the role of program planning theory from the themes that emerged in this study. Nevertheless, proper program planning leads to successful program development; therefore, it should be a vital part of the development of all new athletic training curriculum education programs.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

New pre-professional curriculum programs are developed every year in the United States and abroad. The purpose of these programs is to prepare competent professionals in a field of practice. One method of ensuring every opportunity to educate such professionals is by offering a program that is accredited. Accreditation is a status granted to an educational institution or a program that has been found to meet or exceed stated criteria of educational quality. This type of program offers a level of quality assurance as well as minimum standards for graduation (CIHE, 2002). It also guards against fraudulent and unethical practices, as well as assuring transferability of academic credits. Pre-professional accreditation is a process designed to meet societal demand for qualified practitioners in a professional field of practice.

Student-athletes are injured while participating in athletic events on a daily basis. Typically, the first medical professionals to examine them are certified athletic trainers. Consequently, injured student-athletes often rely upon the expertise of certified athletic trainers to help them return to full participation in a healthy and expedient manner. A standard level of care is necessary for professionals with such qualifying credentials to ensure a level of health care that is equal for all student-athletes. This standard of care is taught in pre-professional degree programs that produce certified athletic trainers.

Athletic Trainers are currently certified by a national certifying agency known as the National Athletic Trainers' Association Board of Certification (NATABOC). They receive their educational training from accredited athletic training curriculum education programs. Accreditation has two fundamental purposes: to assure the quality of the program and to assist in the improvement of the program (CIHE, 2002). Accreditation provides the public with reasonable assurance of the context, scope and quality of the education offered.

In spite of a growing demand for certified athletic training professionals, too many programs are receiving probationary accreditation, thus reducing the availability of qualified athletic trainers to meet the current demand for athletic trainers. The profession must begin to identify factors that can increase the success of program development and furthermore accreditation. This study will examine one potential factor, the program planning process. Further, this study will explore the role of program planning as it is related to the development of successful athletic training programs. It is the "planning for change" that is an integral part of the planning process which involves preparing a concrete plan along with a thorough evaluation process (Caffarella, 1994).

Program planning is a process for developing new programs. Sork and Busky (1996), define a program development framework as a "set of steps, tasks, or decisions which, when carried out, produce the design and outcome specifications for a systematic instructional activity" (p. 87). The planning of educational programs involves a complex decision-making process. The effectiveness of the planning process is a critical factor in the ultimate success or failure of a program (Sork, 1991). Failure is a result that is uncommonly reported in public research. However, successful program planning often

defines a clear understanding about which strategies account for success, and encourages continued research to build a repertoire of skills related to program planning that can be continually expanded and refined.

The literature describes a variety of planning models. These planning models implement the ideas of one or more persons about how a program should be put together and what ingredients are necessary to ensure a successful outcome (Caffarella, 1994). The bulk of the literature consists of descriptions of how various authors think the process of program planning "should be done" to develop a successful program (Sork, 1991). Success, however, is not always the direct result of good program planning. Failure is not an uncommon event in program planning, and sometimes a richer theory of program planning is developed through program failure.

From the surface, the planning process often seems to be a fairly simple act of defining specific steps needed to reach a certain goal and then developing a new program. However, to an experienced program planner, this process is often a complex task of translating ideas into actions, organizing details and complying with deadlines. Because of the logistics involved in program planning, there is a more frequent chance for error, and errors in program planning could ultimately lead to failure (Sork, 1991).

This study will examine the planning models used by programs that have applied for accreditation from the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP). The study will explore planning factors that differentiate successful and unsuccessful programs in an attempt to identify factors that contribute to success. The institutions involved in the study will have been granted initial, continuing, or probationary accreditation status. Programs for each of the three categories will be

evaluated on program development, use of planning models and success or failure toward accreditation.

BACKGROUND

Athletic training is a specific field of study related to athletics that is encompassed under the umbrella term of sports medicine. Other specializations under that umbrella include biomechanics, exercise physiology, physical therapy, sports nutrition, and sports psychology. Sports medicine also includes numerous areas of practice in medicine such as orthopedics, neurology, psychiatry, podiatry and internal medicine.

Athletic training is a professional allied health field recognized worldwide as the National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA). The NATA was founded in 1950 with a charter membership of 200 athletic trainers. Today, the organization has grown to over 25,000 certified athletic trainers with a total membership of 32,000 professionals (http://www.nata.org).

At minimum, a certified athletic trainer has a bachelor's degree with extensive clinical hours affiliated with athletic teams. Upon completion of a bachelor's degree, athletic trainers must pass a national certification exam to be eligible to practice without the supervision of another certified athletic trainer. The certification exam is developed and administered by the National Athletic Trainers' Association Board of Certification, Inc. (NATABOC) and is designed to certify quality healthcare professionals who uphold and maintain a standard practice of care (http://www.nata.org).

In the past, athletic training was not offered as a degree program in the university setting. Rather, a student was required to select a related degree program in which to obtain a bachelor's degree while also fulfilling certain course requirements and internships hours to become eligible to take the national exam. This route to certification was known as an internship program.

Within the last decade the Education Task Force of the NATA has refined its educational standard by requiring all prospective students wanting to become certified athletic trainers, to complete their education in a curriculum program. Ultimately, this new requirement leaves higher education institutions two choices. They can develop an accredited athletic training curriculum education program to educate its student trainers, or rely on student trainers that do not have the desire to become professionals in the field. Because of this demand, program directors were rushing to develop and implement new curriculum programs by the cutoff date of January 1, 2004.

In 1994, the governing body for athletic training programs changed from the National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA) to the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP) (Mathies, et al., 1995). CAAHEP is a national accrediting agency established in 1994 and is governed by the American Medical Association (AMA). Their mission is to nurture quality health sciences education to serve the publics interest. CAAHEP accredits programs representing 18 allied health professions recognizing over 1,900 allied health education programs in more than 1,300 institutions (http://www.caahep.org).

Due to the required change in accreditation, athletic training education began shifting from internship-based education programs, which relied on students working in

the field, to curriculum-based educational programs with a greater focus on theory. This shift in values comes from identifying a standard of care that is similar to other allied health fields. The shift is also designed to provide increased consistency of instruction among institutions. It is a basis for providing a unity toward other allied health professions by improving professional preparation and professional practice.

Athletic training students enroll in academic programs expecting to receive a quality education. However, some of the athletic training programs in the United States are not complying with accreditation standards and thus fail to become accredited. This lack of merit at the institutional level thus causes grief and despair to those students enrolling in their programs. Ultimately, it may result in a complete waste of a student's time and money if they are unable to graduate from an accredited university.

Changes and modifications in programs are inevitable over time. P.J. Gumport (1993), a leading researcher in program reduction and termination, illustrates how values can shift over time to embrace new priorities. His research explains how program modification can clarify an organization's perspective and position of professional domain. Similar to Gumport's research, the NATA has chosen to shift their values of pre-professional education requirements by redesigning the educational standards for certified athletic trainers. These increasingly stringent qualifications reflect the CAAHEP mission of developing similar goals of other allied health professions such as physician assistants, physical therapists and respiratory therapists.

Currently, there are approximately 300 undergraduate athletic training curriculum education programs and 15 graduate athletic training curriculum programs in the United States. The undergraduate programs have been developed over the past four decades,

whereas the graduate curriculums are new to the professional curriculum in the past two decades because of the new educational standards. The development of curriculum education programs in the United States is increasing. Because of the new requirements toward accreditation and changes toward educational requirements, many colleges and universities will be implementing new programs. However, some of these new programs are being conceived for the wrong reasons (Pickle, 1999). The primary role of a student athletic trainer (SAT) is to assist a certified athletic trainer (ATC) in providing medical coverage for student-athletes. Many small colleges do not have an adequate number of ATC's to serve the student-athlete population, therefore the use of student athletic trainers is needed to provide a quality standard of care. Ultimately, if an institution does not provide an educational program to lead a SAT toward certification, there will not be SAT's available to assist in providing medical coverage. This shortage will, in turn, reduce the quality of care for injured athletes.

Given the vast increase in educational programs, there will be a great need for quality assurance which will ultimately increase the number of qualified athletic trainers working with student-athletes. Therefore, the establishment of a strong program planning model that relates directly to athletic training education is necessary to provide consistency and direction to athletic trainers involved in the process of educating future professionals.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is critical that student athletes receive quality care at the onset of injury. The athletic trainer is an important part of rendering such quality of care. A vast number of athletes are injured on a daily basis and these athletes are predominantly evaluated, treated and rehabilitated by Certified Athletic Trainers.

It is important for this professional to receive the proper training and education to offer quality healthcare to the athlete. With the demand for competent professionals comes the need for qualified professional programs. It is evident that the number of athletic training education programs is ballooning among universities. However, the problem lies in the success or lack of success in accreditation during the program development. Ultimately, the NATA needs to increase the success rate of programs seeking accreditation. Program planning models lead to program success. Therefore, by identifying differences between successful and unsuccessful models the NATA can increase the success rate of program accreditation, thereby increasing the number of qualified athletic training graduates.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of a pre-professional program is to offer an educational curriculum to students wanting to specialize in a career field. When a student enrolls in a pre-professional program of higher education, they are trusting that they will receive the knowledge and skills needed to succeed in their chosen profession. Students also assume they are enrolling in an educational program that is properly developed with qualified faculty that teaches a variety of specialized courses.

The purpose of this study is to identify factors that distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs. This study will examine the differences in the program planning models used by these programs. It will review programs that have successfully complied with standards set forth by CAAHEP, as well as programs that have not fully met the requirements for accreditation. Additionally, this study will determine the different program planning models used in the development of each curriculum as well as define how well the program planning models served the needs of the programs. Finally, the study will determine what program planning models lead toward successful program development in a pre-professional program and determine what steps have been eliminated or missed, which eventually cause program failure.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the differences in the planning process used by successful and unsuccessful athletic training programs?
2. What are the differences in descriptions of the program planning process among curriculum directors, the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Program (CAAHEP), and the theory of program planning models?
3. How does the choice of program planning model contribute to success of achieving accreditation?

SIGNIFICANCE

Malcolm Knowles discusses in his book, The Modern Practice of Adult Education, that education programs evolve along a spectrum.

> "There are programs that limp along from year to year, while on the other end there are programs that flourish and are vibrant with activity." Knowles questioned, "...on what basis the decisions are made as to what will be offered in the program. If the answer is that the program is entirely planned by the staff on the basis of what the staff thinks people ought to be interested in, I can fairly confidently predict that participation in the program will be rather apathetic. On the other hand, if the answer is that the program is planned with the assistance of a planning committee (or advisory council) which conducts periodic surveys of the needs and interests of the clientele the program seeks to serve, then I predict that I will find a thriving program" (Knowles, 1980, p. 82).

For decades professionals have been developing programs with a systematic process called a planning model. Ralph Tyler (1949) initiated the first program planning framework by suggesting that program development should be a systematic process. Since his original work, many other program planning experts have developed differing frameworks for program planning. Literally dozens of planning frameworks claim to be context bound while others claim to be generalizable to diverse settings.

The significance of this research will be to identify program planning models that are successfully used in developing an athletic training curriculum education program. Once identified, they may be used by program planners in the field to develop a program that will have success with accreditation and furthermore, produce highly qualified certified athletic trainers to render care to injured athletes. This research will also contribute to the study of program planning by investigating the role of context in selecting program planning models. Some of the literature in program planning suggests that the application of a model should be sensitive to the context. However, little research has been done that confers the planner's guidance in the selections of a program planning model appropriate to the context.

This study will provide an in-depth analysis of the process of program planning in a pre-professional educational setting, as well as examine the development, implementation and evaluation of athletic training curriculum education programs in the United States. Its outcome is designed to improve the success rates of institutions applying for initial accreditation and to decrease the number of institutions receiving probationary status. In addition, this study will contribute to program planning theories

by addressing the various program planning models applied in the development of pre-professional athletic training education programs.

DEFINITIONS

Athletic Trainer: an educated professional that specializes in the prevention, recognition, evaluation, treatment, and rehabilitation of athletic injuries (Arnheim & Prentice, 2000, p. 8)

Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP): an accreditation agency for allied health education that assesses each program determining qualifications and grants accreditation to athletic training programs within the United States (Arnheim & Prentice, 2000, p. 26)

Curriculum: a degree granting program that has been accredited to offer specific courses covering competencies that are set by the National Athletic Trainers' Association

Joint Review Committee on Athletic Training (JRC-AT): a committee consisting of represenatitives from the NATA, the American Academy of Pediatrics, the American Orthopaedic Society for Sports Medicine, and the American Academy of Family Physicians (Arnheim & Prentice, 2000, p. 26)

National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA): a national organization that was developed for the purpose of establishing professional standards for athletic trainers (Arnheim & Prentice, 2000, p. 3)

Program Planning Model: an ideal of one or more persons about how a program should be put together and what ingredients are necessary to ensure successful outcomes (Caffarella, 1994, p. 7)

Professional Education Committee (PEC): a committee that provides assistance and guidance in the development of curriculum education programs

Successful Program: An athletic training program that has received CAAHEP Accreditation following the initial application.

Unsuccessful Program: An athletic training program that received probationary or "withhold" accreditation following the initial application.

ASSUMPTIONS

It is assumed that all of the information received pertaining to the program planning process for the development of the athletic training curriculum education program will accurately reflect the professional preparation of the program director's intentions. It is also assumed that all people interviewed would cooperate fully; speaking honestly about topics presented to them, and answers questions to the best of their knowledge.

LIMITATIONS

The study is context bound. Each program is specifically designed to complement the institution where it is conceived. They are developed with similar characteristics to their university mission. Therefore, athletic training programs may be different from one institution to another because of the differences among universities. Suggestions will be offered at the conclusion of the research regarding what changes could be made to continue the development of program planning models, thereby furthering educational excellence in athletic training curriculum education programs.

The programs that do not receive accreditation may choose not to participate since failure may impact student interest, the cooperation of the program director, or cause unclear consequences associated with failure. It will, however, be conveyed that an institutions' name, whether associated with success or failure, will remain anonymous throughout the findings of this research.

SUMMARY

Program planning models are considered to be a systematic tool used to develop effective, efficient, and innovative educational programs. There are programs, however, that are not being developed effectively and efficiently and they are failing to receive accreditation. The use of a program planning model is one method of leading a new program to accreditation. Given that there are a multitude of models, each with a distinct framework toward development; it is not known if they are the answer to success. Meanwhile, there are several questions that need to be addressed to help curriculum directors avoid program failure. Is program planning a task that can be copied from a book in sequential order, step by step, until the program is developed, or should it be specifically tailored to each institution? Who has the educational experience to develop such programs? Should the program planners have an enormous amount of experience in planning, or can they be novice educators? All of these questions and more will be addressed as this research reveals the history behind the development of an athletic training curriculum education program.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study will be organized into two sections. The first section will include three chapters; an introduction to the study, a problem statement and definitions of terms that will be included throughout the study. Chapter two will be a review of previous and current literature relating to program planning education and the field of athletic training. Methodology is the third chapter and will include a thorough, step-by-step process of data collection, instrumentation and a preview of data analysis. The second section will

include the data analysis, findings and recommendations. The organization of these chapters will be determined during the data analysis process.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

It has been said that planning an educational program is a lot like teaching – everyone thinks that they are good at it (Sork, 1990). This, however, is not always true, especially in the eyes of professional program planners. Program planning (sometimes called program development) is an important part of adult and continuing education. It is a decision-making process that defines a set of related activities that produces an educational program design specific to one or more adult learners. Planning models are the tools used to help bring order to a complex decision-making process and to achieve the goal of a new and innovative program. Between 1950 and the 1980's nearly one-hundred frameworks, methods, and sets of principles (models) have been developed to describe the ways in which educators develop programs for adults (Sork & Buskey, 1986).

While there is a significant amount of literature related to program planning, most of the literature is limited to descriptions about how decisions should be made, rather than how decisions are actually made (Sork & Caffarella, 1990). There is also an abundant amount of literature relating to program success. However, literature that discusses program failure is very sparse. This review of literature will cover some of the descriptions related to program planning, but will mainly focus on how the decisions are actually made. This chapter will cover several key components of educational planning

by defining program planning, its steps or stages and the various roles program planning plays in pre-professional programs. The chapter will then provide a detailed description of planning models which are defined in the literature. This chapter will also identify the methods for improving program planning found in the literature that defines successes and failures. Finally, the chapter presents a discussion of program planning as it relates to professional education. The focus will be directed toward the pre-professional aspect of medical education -- specifically allied health and athletic training.

Program Planning

As new programs are developed on a daily basis, program planning theory argues that success is not achieved through program content alone, but also through proper program planning or program design (Sork & Cafarella, 1990). Program planning, defined as a systematic planning process, is an imperative developmental step that can assist in measurable learning. For the most part, it is sought after by those wanting to successfully develop new programs or improve performance in an existing program. Program planning theory argues that for plans to be effective there must be reasonable agreement among stakeholders on what is to be accomplished and how it will be achieved. However, reaching complete harmony may be too time-consuming and, therefore, this goal is frequently eliminated from the process. In fact, the entire program planning process is a complex task involving many interrelated steps. Therefore, over the last half century, many planning models have been developed to assist in this multifaceted endeavor and these models are used to represent the most significant characteristics of planning.

A pioneer in program planning and author of *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, Ralph Tyler developed a model of curriculum development. Tyler suggested that the program planning process should be guided by four questions: 1) What educational experiences should the school seek to attain? 2) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? 3) How can these educational purposes be effectively organized? 4) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? These four questions are designed to initiate the planning stages and further the development of the program planning process. From Tyler's initial model, many additional models where developed by multiple theorists spanning various areas of interest.

Sork (1990), suggests that all planning models share a common feature. First and foremost, planning models consist of multiple elements defining the "nature" of work to be done. The elements are often referred to as "steps", "stages", "decision points", "components", or "clusters" (p. 77). Additionally, it is believed that all models are arranged in a way to suggest a logical connection. Whether the models are defined as linear or nonlinear, there is still a form of text or diagram relating one element to another. Further, all models include elements identifying program ideas, outcomes, instructional components and evaluation planning.

Although many models have similar elements, they also have several factors that influence the process which could ultimately end with varying results. All programs will vary according to expected outcomes, therefore planning should be driven by goals and objectives and attaining those goals must be meaningful and realistic. The first differentiating factor suggests that it is unrealistic for all planning to follow a linear

pattern. Houle (1972), suggests that educational design is a complex interaction of elements and that each element must be explained individually to present a logical and preferred sequence. The second factor is the belief that direct participation of a client or a learner in planning is desirable, but not essential. The norm, based on conventional wisdom in adult education, suggests that adult learners should have the opportunity to plan their own learning experiences. This variance, however, suggests that it is not necessary to exhibit learner involvement. The third and final factor that can lead to varied results in program planning is the actual planning process.

The literature suggests several types of planning procedures. Cameron Fincher, in an article discussing planning models and paradigms, suggests there are comprehensive, functional, strategic, operational, substantive and expedient planning procedures (Fincher, 1972). Comprehensive planning encompasses the entire scope of the program, whereas functional planning refers to steps specifically designed for a program. Strategic planning is associated directly with policy issues, whereas operational planning is based on problematic issues. Substantive planning places emphasis on educational policy matters specific to faculty, students, finances and facilities, and expedient planning is concerned with campus size, space utilization and class size. Although there are several types of planning procedures, ultimately the most common tool used by most program planning experts is systematic planning. Systematic planning is an approach designed to ensure that the level of detail in planning is commensurate with the importance and intended use of the data. This type of planning is powerful for designing effective, efficient, relevant and innovative educational programs (Sork & Caffarella, 1990).

Program Planning Steps

There are numerous models in the literature that relate to program planning. Dillon, in her course Program Planning for Adult Learning, defines a simple six step model that generically defines program planning (C. Dillon, class communication, September, 1998). It is a broadly defined model that is effective for basic participation in program planning. The six steps are defined as: 1) analyze planning context and client system; 2) perform needs assessment; 3) develop program objectives; 4) formulate instructional plans; 5) formulate an administrative plan; and 6) design a program evaluation plan.

Analyze Planning Context and Client System

The purpose of analyzing the planning context is to identify internal and external factors or forces that should be taken into account during planning. However, the analysis of the client system involves collecting information about those individuals who are eligible for the attention of the program planners.

Assess Needs

Needs assessment, as defined by the literature, has two interchangeable definitions. It is described as determining the priority of gaps between the present and desired capabilities, proficiencies, outcomes and so on. It is also defined as having the focus of the assessment be on finding solutions or means of altering the situation of the learner.

The results of a needs assessment often produce more needs than can be addressed with existing resources. When this problem arises, it is solved by prioritizing

the needs, which ultimately provides a rational resource allocation basis that is acceptable to the program planners.

Develop Program Objectives

Program objectives are defined as statements of the anticipated results of the program. These objectives provide concrete guidelines for further program development and are often divided into two major categories: 1) educational objectives that focus on the participants' learning; and 2) organizational or operational objectives that relate to the maintenance and improvement of the educational function.

Formulate Instructional Plans

The formulation of an instructional plan is often performed by a person or persons with the most knowledge about the intended program. Ultimately, the instructional plan must be developed with the end product in mind. The development of instructional plans often involves preparing instructional objectives, selecting and ordering content, designing the instructional process, selecting appropriate resources and determining evaluation procedures. Instructional plans are often tailored to the event or outcome that is chosen. There are three basic categories of learning outcomes: knowledge acquisition, skill building, and a change in the attitudes or values of a person. The final component of an instructional plan is determining the evaluation procedures. This terminal component is used to find out how well the learners have achieved the learning objectives.

Formulate an Administrative Plan

Administrative detail is often of secondary importance behind instructional planning -- it even follows instructional planning in this literature review. Administrative

planning includes program publicity, finance, obtaining facilities and equipment and arranging for meals, lodging and transportation. Program financial details associated with development costs, delivery costs and evaluation costs are usually the most difficult to achieve. It is well known that most programs are primarily driven by economics rather than educational needs.

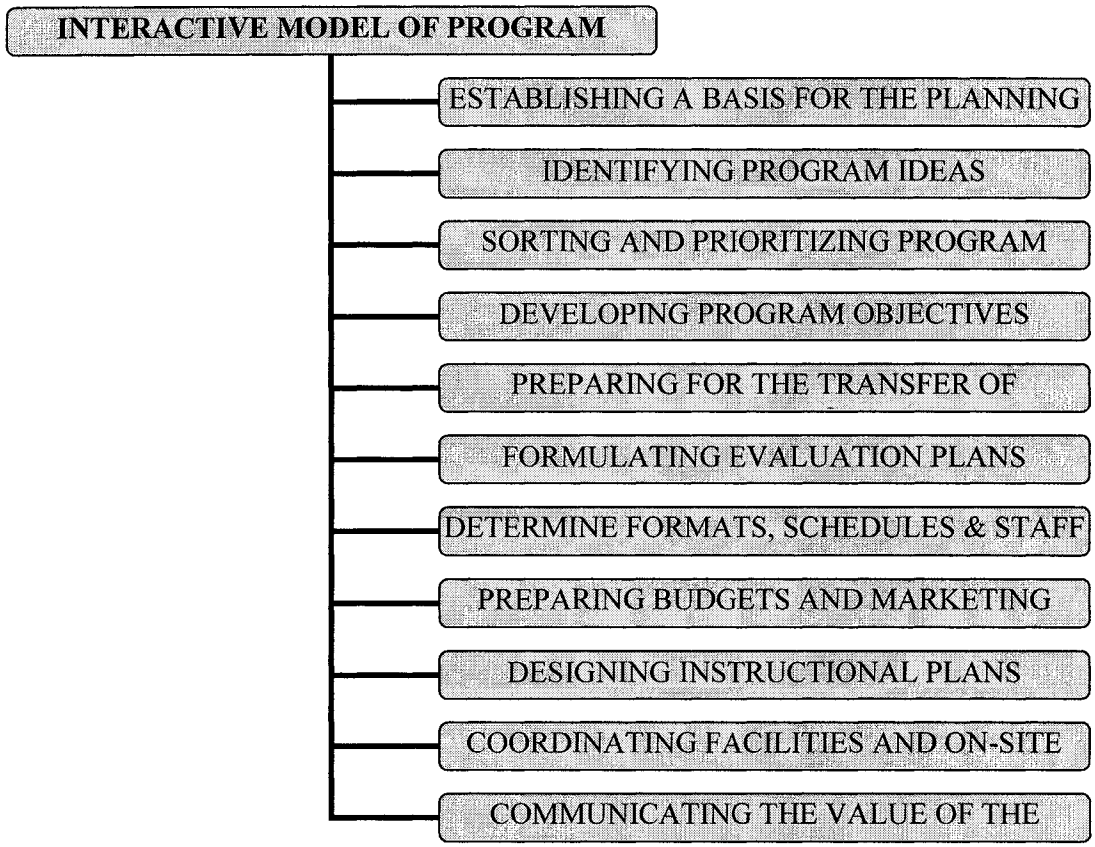
Design of a Program Evaluation Plan

Evaluations are used to determine program outcomes such as: 1) a happiness indicator-whether or not people enjoyed a program; 2) observation of gains in knowledge or skill level; 3) observation of changes in performance; and 4) to make judgments about the value or worth of a program. In an evaluation, one must determine what to evaluate, the design process, the means of data collection and the process of data analysis. Evaluations can be qualitative, quantitative or both. They are most often found in the form of questionnaires, tests, interviews, observations or the examination of records.

Interactive Model of Program Planning

Another commonly used interactive model of program planning is from the program planning theorists Sork and Caffarella. Sork and Caffarella (1990), suggest a basic eleven step model that is congruent to nearly all planning models. The following diagram shows the eleven components present in the interactive model.

Figure 1. Cafarella and Sork's Interactive Model of Program Planning



Formulation of Program Planning Theory

The process of program planning has long been conceptualized as a rational procedure which normally follows a stepwise, sequential development of the steps previously listed. Nevertheless, the practice of program planning hardly ever follows a linear progression and rarely fits into the realities of program planning literature. Cevero and Wilson (1994) suggest that "planning is essentially a social activity in which educators negotiate with others in answering questions about a program's form, including

its purpose, content, audience, and format" (p. 28). They argue that the theorizing of program planning should take into account the social setting as it is often based on the power and influence of the program planners.

Yang et.al (1998) developed an instrument to measure adult educators' power and influence tactics in program planning practice. The instrument, known as the Power and Influence Tactics Scale (POINTS), is frequently found in literature relating to program planning practice. This scale is a useful tool to measure planning behaviors such as power and influence. Results of their study suggest that power and influence tactics can be enhanced by interactive involvement of group planning and effective exercise of a program planning theory.

Power and influence are most often expressed through language in program planning. The negotiation of power and influence, contingent upon communicative action, is discussed by Rees and Cervero (1997) in an article that discusses language, power and the construction of adult education programs. The purpose of their investigation was to analyze the use of language and to understand the effects of power relationships toward the construction of an educational program. They collected data through audiotapes and transcriptions of verbal interactions between three program planners in two fifty-minute planning sessions. Rees and Cervero found that planners negotiate power and influence through talk (turn-taking, interruption and topic shift). Ultimately, planners position themselves with their knowledge of the subject and often direct their negotiations toward the interests in which they represent.

Nevertheless, the underlying assumption of any program planning theory is that it is a social activity. Theory often is contingent upon social and organizational contexts in

which the program is organized and developed. These politics, not exclusively found in educational planning, can be found in any activity that involves planning or development. The one thing that planners need to keep in mind is that ignoring political realities can be fatal to a program and even to a person who is responsible for the program.

Program Planning Classifications & Models

The field of adult education distinguishes itself through the development of specific programs to serve adults. These programs are often developed through organized steps in program planning. The various steps or stages of program planning are generically divided so that all models are similar in one way or another. Historically, theorists in program planning are known to have a vast array of knowledge that contributes to the field as a whole. However, several theorist have chosen to focus their research contributions to the literature in a more specified way. The following table lists the five basic steps of program planning along with some influential contributors to the literature.

Table 1

Literary Contributors in Program Planning

PROGRAM PLANNING CONCEPT/PHASE	LITERATURE CONTRIBUTOR
Problem Identification & Needs Assessment	Apps; Caffarella; Cameron; Dattalo; Monette
Goals & Objectives	Caffarella; Howard; Mezirow
Delivery & Client Involvement	Caffarella; Boyle; Kemerer
Models	Boyle; Brookfield; Caffarella; Houle; Penninton & Green; Tyler; Walker
Evaluation	Boyle; Brookfield; Caffarella; Sork

A useful approach in the analysis of program planning models is the classification developed by Cevero and Wilson (1991). They suggest that program planning models can be classified according to the following viewpoints: classical, naturalistic and critical. Classical viewpoints are standard principles of program planning practice that are linear and require an ordered method to conceptualize an implementation strategy. Naturalistic viewpoints are step-wise and allow educators to make the best decision possible in complex situations by choosing among competing alternatives. Critical viewpoints, also known as political planning, are philosophical in nature. They are often used for conquering social inequalities and shifting power issues.

The classical viewpoint defines the historical principle that serves as a basis for program planning. Ralph Tyler, a pioneer in the field of program planning, graduated with a Ph.D. in 1927 from the University of Chicago. Approximately ten years following graduation, he filled a position on the Eight Year Study as the Director of Research for the Evaluation Staff (Pinar, et al., 1995). His research leads to the determination that evaluation of student behaviors has proven to be a highly appropriate means for determining educational success or failure. Ten years following his work with the Eight Year Study, Tyler formalized his thoughts on educational research and behavioral objectives with the publication of a book that would establish a framework of program planning principles that may last for decades to come. Tyler's book, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (1949), provides a list of his four basic questions that must be answered in developing any curriculum and/or plan of instruction. They are:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?

2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

Tyler's ideas regarding program planning were not established as guidelines for curriculum construction. However, they were merely linear steps used to conceptualize an implementation strategy (Tyler, 1949).

Along with Tyler, Pennington and Green also described their program planning strategies in the classical viewpoint. They suggest that to be useful program planners, developers must fully understand the dynamics of the planning process and must also understand that one of the major steps of program development is administrative decision making (Pennington & Green, 1976). Together they developed a six-step model for program planning. The steps include: 1) originating the idea; 2) developing the idea; 3) making a commitment; 4) developing the program; 5) delivering the material; and 6) evaluating the impact. Furthermore, they claimed that planners who understand the essential activities involved in planning programs will be more effective and efficient in the program development process.

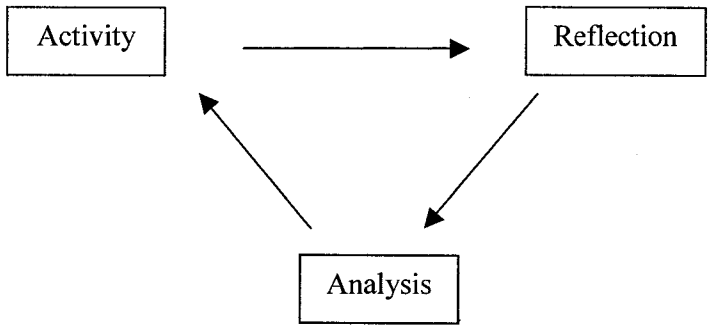
Another contributor to classical viewpoint theories is Edgar Boone. He developed a conceptual programming model to benefit institutional organizations. Boone's model defined eight interrelated phases including: 1) formulate the organizational program framework; 2) adapt the program framework; 3) organize human resources at the operational level needed to plan an education program; 4) plan or make

decisions at the operational level; 5) plan the program; 6) set up a timetable; 7) implement the plan; and 8) evaluate the program (Boone, 1985).

The naturalistic viewpoint assumes that program planners are unable to follow models explicitly because most programs are context-based and decisions are value-based. This viewpoint, supported by Brookfield, Houle, Sork and Cafarella, emphasizes judgment, context and values in program planning (Cervero and Wilson, 1994). Brookfield approaches program planning from the voluntary learning aspect of adult education. He identifies factors such as teaching and learning that are specific to program planning and associates them with adult education. Brookfield proposes six principles of facilitation that are important keys to successful programs. His model emphasizes learner involvement and self-esteem. The principles include: 1) voluntary participation, 2) respect for participants self worth, 3) collaboration, 4) praxis (Figure 1), 5) critical reflection, and 6) nurture of self directed, empowered adults (Brookfield, 1986). Brookfield believes that when adults participate in program planning, they offer a collection of experiences to the program that may not be on the planning agenda. The diverse experiences offered by adult participants, in turn, facilitates a more productive learning environment (Cervero and Wilson, 1994).

Figure 1

Brookfield's Model of Praxis



Cyril Houle, another proponent of the naturalistic viewpoint presents a descriptive rather than a prescriptive model for program planning. Houle believes that educational design is a complex task of "explaining the process one element at a time while presenting the logic that suggests a preferred sequence" (Merriam and Cunningham, 1989, p.234). His model is based on a set of "credos" that represent a summary of views that can be interchanged throughout the planning process. His credos suggest that adult education should be a movement to achieve a single goal and that an adult educator's task is to discover what to provide to adults seeking education. Houle also suggests that powerful and creative leaders should be teachers and administrators; and that formality is a key to releasing creative energies.

In *The Design of Education*, Houle presents seven key components related to decision making during the planning process. They include: 1) identify the perceived need; 2) determing the program feasibility and practicality; 3) define objectives and make sure they relate to the entire program that is to be implemented; 4) design a working format from the following—resources, leaders, methods, techniques, schedule, sequence, social reinforcement, individualization, roles and relationships, criteria of evaluation and clarity of design; 5) explain to the participants the expectations that are to arise and how they are realistic in "their world"; 6) implement the plan, however, allow for modifications throughout the process; 7) measure and appraise the results (Houle, 1972). Although Houle's program planning components seem arduous and detailed, he believes that planning should be kept simple and based on common sense. He believes that if his model or planning process does not work effectively, use another model.

The two final contributors to the naturalistic viewpoint theories are Thomas Sork and Rosemary Caffarella. In the *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education*, Sork and Caffarella describe their model to evaluate program planning literature. It is a six step process that is described with each step having more that one task or set of decisions. The six steps include: 1) analyze planning context and client systems; 2) assess needs; 3) develop program objectives; 4) formulate instructional plans; 5) formulate administrative plans; and 6) design a program evaluation (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989).

Sork and Caffarella both agree that program planning is a complex task that rarely follows a linear pattern. They believe the process can best be understood in a stepwise fashion. However, in most instances the planning stages usually "defy logical sequence" (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989, p.234). The two theorists also adopt the idea that

systematic planning is what is needed to design effective, efficient, relevant and innovative educational programs. They also agree that client participation during planning is desirable but not essential for program success.

Unlike the classical and naturalistic models, critical planning models argue that program planning is not technical; rather, it is political with an emphasis given to the ethics in program planning. Models in this framework must acknowledge ethical decisions along with various power issues that may arise and ultimately foster change (Sork and Caffarella, 1990). In a study published in 1998, Yang et al. developed and validated an instrument to measure power and influence tactics in program planning. They defined seven behavioral patterns that are affected by power and influence: reasoning, consulting, appealing, networking, bargaining, pressuring and counteracting. Results suggested that reasoning, consulting and appealing were negatively affected by power and influence and pressuring and counteracting were positively influenced, whereas networking and bargaining failed to show statistical significance. Furthermore, the researchers suggest that an effective planner should be a person who completely understands that planning process and is able to use a variety of power and influence tactics according to situations (Yang, et al., 1998).

Paulo Freire is a well know theorist in the area of literacy education. His views of program planning are political, philosophical and social and he is best known for the development of a literacy program that was designed to empower the powerless in a society. His program planning model consisted of creating an education team, developing a limited number of terms based on the culture of the learners, codifying the words by matching new words with familiar words then and finally implementing a post

literacy education plan. Freire's community-based adult education model continues to provide a way to resolve the problem of illiteracy in the United States by incorporating social issues and political actions to foster change and critical understanding (Heaney, 2003).

Another theorist following the critical viewpoint of program planning is Jack Mezirow; his theories include the fostering of self-reflection and transformative learning. The theory of transformative learning involves becoming more reflective and critical, while being less defensive and more open to the perspectives of others and more accepting of new ideas. It is Mezirow's theory that transformative educators help others move toward a fuller and more dependable understanding of the meaning of our mutual experience (Mezirow, 1990). According to Mezirow, the role of the educator includes focusing on and examining the assumptions that underlie their beliefs, feelings and actions, assessing the consequences of these assumptions, identifying and exploring alternative sets of assumptions, and testing the validity of assumptions through effective participation in reflective dialog.

Another aspect of Mezirow's program planning framework encompasses three types of learning: technical, practical and emancipatory. Technical learning involves the way a person controls and manipulates the environment and the people around them. Practical learning is interactive or communicative. It focuses on achieving coherence rather than control. The last learning strategy, emancipatory, involves the discovery of self-knowledge and the method of self expression. Overall, technical learning assists with achieving survival needs, while communicative learning meets social needs and emancipatory learning fosters psychological needs.

The final theorist associated with the critical viewpoint is a feminist named Elizabeth Tisdell. She argues that culture, gender and spirituality are factors that influence program planning. Tisdell (2001) encourages social transformation and cultural relevance in four stages: first, it is important to define spirituality; second, she believes that people are more likely to have transformational experiences if they are engaged on three levels: cognitive, affective and symbolic/spiritual; third, people need to be engaged in learning that focuses on the sociocultural aspects of their being; and fourth, people should be grounded in their own cultural identity and present their own authentic selves in a learning environment (Tisdell & Tolliver, 2001).

Tisdell addresses the role of personal philosophy in program planning. Tisdell believes that one's educational practice and one's beliefs about practice inform each other. Her theory as it relates to teaching suggests that "our philosophy informs our practice, which in turn informs and helps develop our philosophy" (Tisdell, 1999, p. 6). She suggests that each person's philosophy falls into a philosophical orientation that stems from four well-known theorists in adult education. The first of these philosophical orientations is based on the humanist framework of adult education found in the work of Malcolm Knowles and his conception of andragogy. Knowles theory of andragogy addresses the art and science of helping adults learn, as well as becoming independent and self-directed. The second frame is the critical/humanist theory of Jack Mezirow. This theory has a psychological orientation with an emphasis on personal fulfillment. The next frame is that of the critical/emancipatory theory found in the writings of Paulo Freire. This frame illuminates the political nature of education by rationalizing the learner-centered manner. The fourth and final orientation is reflective of two theorists,

Bell Hooks and Elizabeth Tisdell. The feminist-emancipatory theory examines how culture and power relations shape learning based on the social structures of gender, race, class and sexuality. Tisdell theorizes that everyone's philosophical perspective originates from one of these four main frameworks, suggesting that an educator's beliefs can be directly related to how a learning environment is portrayed. Again, this stems from how philosophy and practice influence each other. Furthermore, it explains how theory informs practice and practice informs theory (Tisdell, 1999).

Methods for Improving Program Planning

Growth, improvement and change are three factors that every master plan must adhere to. Program planning is no different; it must continually grow, improve and change to fit the various expectations and learning that is needed in the world today. Although growth, improvement and change are inevitable and necessary, they are not always conducive to participatory planning, reflective decision-making and learner-oriented designs.

Thomas Sork exclaims, "Success is wonderful! It gives us a sense of accomplishment, it builds our self-esteem, we are rewarded for it, and it is valued in society. A great deal can be learned about educational planning by reflecting on our successes" (Sork, 1991, p.5). On the other hand, focusing exclusively on success ignores the potential for the opposite--failure. The difference between the successful and the unsuccessful planner lies in the ability to take risks and to overcome uncertainty. Accepting an occasional failure is difficult for anyone. However, being able to capitalize from failed mistakes is what makes a success story.

Learning through Failure

The bulk of literature on program planning describes how various authors think program planning "should be done" (Sork & Buskey, 1986). These descriptions are often found useful because they provide a proven method for program planning. However, not all program planning models cited in the literature have a proven track record and, inevitably, failure may occur. Whether failure is based on the selection of planning models or the development process involved with the planning, a program is not always assured success. It is rare to find literature that discusses a program's failures. Sork and Buskey suggest that by understanding which mistakes are frequently made and how they can be corrected, program planners will be able to develop a much richer theory of program planning.

Sork and Buskey suggest that there are four types of failures found in program planning: Types 1, 2, 3, and 4. A Type 1 failure occurs when planning for the program is partially completed but is terminated before implementation. Organizational resources are expended on planning with the full intention of offering a program. However, a decision is made to terminate planning for the following reasons: goals are not clear, client systems are not well defined, there is no consensus on focus, it is too costly, the design is too complex, and there is a lack of follow-through.

A Type 2 failure occurs when planning for the program is completed and the offering is publicized, but it does not attract sufficient enrollment or registration and therefore is canceled. Possible causes include: inappropriate pricing, inappropriate scheduling, inappropriate location, a lack of interest by the client, poorly focused

promotion, poorly timed promotion, more attractive competition, market saturation, inadequate support services, and a mismatch between agency and program.

In a Type 3 failure, planning for the program is completed, the offering is publicized, and enough people enroll to offer the program. However, the program does not provide what the participants expected. The participants either fail to complete the program or react so negatively that no consideration is given to offering the program again in its original form. Type 3 failures include: poor instructors, poor administration, unclear objectives, mismatch between content and client needs, too elementary, too advanced, inappropriate instructional methods, poor quality of resources and misleading advertising.

The final type of failure, Type 4, occurs when the program is offered and the participants express satisfaction, but there is clear evidence that the program failed to achieve the objectives for which it was designed. Although some useful learning may have been a consequence of the program and may account for the satisfaction expressed by the participants, the learning does not correspond to the objectives of the program. The causes of this type of failure include: ineffective instruction, unclear objectives, miscommunication of objectives, too many objectives, unrealistic expectations, mismatch between objectives and instructional methods, and inadequate provision for transfer of learning.

A term for analyzing failure of educational programs is the process is known as a postmortem audit. A postmortem audit involves the systematic examination of the program to determine the cause of death (Sork, 1981). There are a set of eight questions that should be involved in a postmortem audit. They include: 1) What is the dollar value

of personnel time devoted to this activity? 2) How much money (other than for personnel) was expended on this activity? 3) What event(s) initiated our involvement with this activity? 4) Why was this activity judged to be related to our goals? 5) What event or evidence led to this activity being judged as failure? 6) What are the consequences associated with this failure? 7) What could have been done to avoid this failure? and 8) What should be done to avoid similar failure in the future?

The postmortem audit questions search for the general solutions found in various program failures. Such an audit allows for solutions to be generalizable to other programs that are not necessarily of the same nature. There are six suggestions that should be considered when using a postmortem audit: 1) provide an opportunity for everyone involved in planning the program to participate in the postmortem analysis; 2) conduct postmortems for individual programs as soon as possible after they are judged failures; 3) involve the entire program staff in the process of defining the various types of program failures; 4) periodically set aside a block of time when the entire program staff can systematically analyze all of the failures which occur during a specific period; 5) maintain an open file of postmortem reports and encourage its use; and 6) develop a system to monitor the type and frequency of all program failures.

Ultimately, the monetary and nonmonetary costs of failure can be substantial. Too often mistakes are made in the design and delivery of educational programs and the researchers ignore the lessons that can be learned from making those mistakes. Analyzing failure and keeping it private, although sometimes beneficial to an organization, gives no benefit to others. A well-analyzed failure can lead to a successful

program. Sork (1990) offers a challenge to program planners to publicize failure so that other practitioners and professionals can benefit from their mistakes.

Barriers Associated with Program Planning

Pennington and Green define four major reasons why people involved in developing educational programs do not use program planning models: time pressures, an inclement organizational climate, lack of knowledge, and a belief that models are not useful (Pennington & Green, 1976). Each of these constraints are often found in one form or another among all types of planning committees. Time pressures evolve from administrators often having a full workload of educational activities, thereby adding more pressure when additional programs or educational classes are considered for implementation. In reality, planning takes time and it is often a multi-tasking, multi-functioning event that needs to evolve over a period of time. Program planners frequently admit to the lack of time and personnel it takes to adequately follow a program planning model (Pennington & Green, 1976). Due to this lack of resources, program planners sometimes omit several steps in the model or the entire model as a whole.

From education to job training and enhancement, new skills are being routinely taught. However, in the twenty-first century, time is a major concern for everyone. Thus, the instruction of these skills and delivery of appropriate theory must be organized into an efficient and innovative method. It is the responsibility of these program planners to provide effective instruction when it comes to program planning.

Further, there are multi-step planning models that are developed toward a specific context or generic models that are vaguely designed for any program. Clearly, there is a

need for direction in program planning. C. Jones (1973) found a negative correlation among guideline recommendations and guidelines actually used by program coordinators (Jones, 1973). Jones found that models that were highly recommended by professors in adult education were infrequently practiced by program coordinators. On the other hand, those models that were rated of little importance by professors were frequently used by planners. Jones concluded that several factors that may explain this phenomenon including: 1) rationalizing the practice; 2) time constraints; 3) laborious tasks; and 4) a modicum of perversity -- "those who think otherwise" (Jones, 1973, p. 90).

In a similar study, Goldberg (1995) developed a table summarizing strategies based on two levels of complexity and programmer knowledge (Table 2). Goldberg argues that a favorable sequence is a knowledgeable programmer with available time handling a highly complex task. This is optimal for the use of program planning with the option of a pilot study. An unfavorable strategy is one based on an unknowledgeable programmer who has limited time to work on a complex problem, thus creating the necessity of outside consultants and minimal development time (Goldberg, 1995).

Table 2

Programming Strategies

	Knowledgeable Programmer		Unknowledgeable Programmer	
Problem Complexity	Time:Available	Time:Limited	Time:Available	Time:Limited
High Complexity	High search during planning stage; pilot optional	High search during program operations	Consult knowledgeable outsiders; high search prior to pilot	Consult knowledgeable outsiders if time permits high search during program operations
Low Complexity	Low search prior to program operations	Low search during program operations	Consult knowledgeable outsiders; low search prior to program operations	Consult knowledgeable outsiders if time permits low search during program operations

Every work environment is defined by an organizational climate. Some may be poised with sufficient staff allowing it to be an opportunistic workplace. Contrary to this, other working environments can be short-staffed, disorganized, and often unable to complete the necessary tasks needed to accomplish the business at hand. Program planning steps in understaffed working environments are often eliminated. The lack of program planning activities is often due to time constraints, which in turn hinders the development of new programs.

In most fields, a person is hired because of his or her expertise in the profession. For example, a doctor is hired by a hospital because of his or her vast knowledge of medicine. However, this same doctor, trained specifically for medical purposes, may be asked to help develop a new residency program for the hospital. This medical specialist may not be aware of the array of program planning models available to assist him or her

with the development of a new program, causing the specialist to rely only on personal experience for the development of the program. In a similar case, another physician may be asked to develop a similar program. This physician may have the knowledge of program planning models, but is unable to capitalize on one specific model because of interpretation problems and/or lack of time to complete the program. Frequently, people are asked to develop programs that are not trained in program planning, but well-educated in the subject matter at hand.

Finally, the use of a program planning model is often viewed by some practitioners as confining. Some practitioners believe that there are too many steps that need to be maneuvered among the planning stages and that sticking to a specific plan would be too difficult to manage. These practitioners may also believe that the realities of developing a program, such as politics and delays, often hinder the process, making it almost impossible to follow a step-by-step sequence of events.

Successful Program Development Strategies

All program planners operate through their own planning framework which is influenced by personal values, beliefs, and their institutional context (Cervero, 1988). It has been suggested that the central task for effective planning is to make the framework explicit, analyze the assumptions and principles, and alter the steps when necessary. Effective practice is also based on being able to fully understand the planning framework, knowing how to evaluate it and making adjustments when necessary.

Another successful strategy for program planning is sharing the responsibilities. Along with the sharing of responsibilities, is the development of various ideas or

perspectives. These ideas should be explored as a group and may add an alternative direction to the program planning process. The literature suggests that planning and developing a program should be a multi-person task (Cervero, 1988). Cervero suggests not to plan programs without consulting multiple people with various areas of expertise.

The use of several advisors while planning a program is called a focus group. A focus group can give direction that will adequately reflect the needs of the program. "The benefits of sharing the planning process include fostering mutual respect and cooperation as well as exposure to new ideas and fresh approaches" (Griggs & Stewart, 1995, p. 189). Consultants can make great contributions to a new program; however, it is the program planner that is ultimately responsible for the outcome of the program.

The issue of planning a curriculum, where the outcome either prepares students for life or assists them to make a living, often perplexes program planners. Accusations have been made that education is not only neglecting the development of thinking skills, but also is also lacking in the development of a complete student as a whole (Drucker, 1989). There is continually increasing pressure to provide students with quality training because society continues to become more complex, requiring a higher level of thinking and functional skill for effective living.

In addition, increasingly sophisticated technology is utilized in the workplace, as well as in everyday application, requiring more sophisticated preparation of technology users. A prime example is a new instrument that is being introduced to the basic cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) course, a course that over one million people – all from various educational backgrounds – have completed (Orfinger, 2002). This new product, known as an AED (Automated External Defibrillator), has required a change in

the educational course of basic CPR. The AED is a small portable device used to restart the heart or to modify the rhythm of a disrupted heartbeat. This instrument has a simple operating protocol and requires only basic knowledge of pad placement along with CPR training to operate. This new technology is a perfect example for the need to continually change and update our educational protocols while continually developing new educational development strategies.

Program Planning and Educational Change in Pre-Professional Education

Health education is a rapidly changing field as a result of being under constant transformation. This alteration is mainly caused by sweeping changes in today's society (Marsick & Smedley, 1989). One of the major changes is the emphasis with which health care information is delivered. Less time is being given to education, while more time is spent specifically on problem solving. John Allegrante (1984) discusses a dilemma of modern medicine in which a doctor finds himself so busy pulling drowning people to shore that he does not have the time to investigate who is upstream pushing them in. Allegrante suggests that this example of individuality is common in the United States and that more emphasis should be placed on education to prevent the problem, while others continue with the challenge of fixing it.

Program planning is found in all areas of professional education and across a variety of disciplines. Although professions are very diverse from one another, planning strategies to develop a program are proven to be very similar. In a study by Pennington and Green (1976), six professional fields (business administration, educational administration, law, teacher education, social work and medicine) are studied to

determine their preferred program planning method used for educational development. Results of the study supported the theory that the planning process of each profession seemed to cluster around a set of six specific activities: originating the idea, developing the idea, making a commitment, developing the program, teaching the course, and evaluating the impact. Ultimately, the study suggests that planners, who understand the essential activities associated with program planning, can eventually develop and deliver a program no matter what the subject content.

Major educational changes are happening everywhere. Professions such as architecture, engineering and accounting are all revamping their education curriculums to meet the constant change that is taking place in the job industry. Architecture schools are changing their focus from theory to design (Gutman, 1996). The curricula previously offered construction education during the first two years of study and design the last two years. However, the new program is a reverse of the old by concentrating on design while adding a significant amount of on-the-job training.

Similar to architecture, professionals in the field of engineering are of the opinion that their profession has become "a bit complacent" (Smerdon, 2000). In 1994, the American Society for Engineering Education (ASEE), published a report entitled, *Engineering Education for a Changing World.* This report reflected a growing concern about the level of education engineers were receiving. The new changes suggested all programs must be relevant, attractive and connected. ASEE desired a program that was "well tuned to the central feature of contemporary life: continuous change" (Smerdon, 2000, p.18).

Structural changes are also being seen in accounting in the method by which certified public accountants (CPA) become certified. The National Association of State Boards of Accountancy (NASBA) has changed the national certification exam by adding a new section. The four exam sections are now defined as audit and attestation, financial accounting and reporting, regulations, and business environment and concepts (Probst, 2001). NASBA has also changed the requirement to sit for their national exam. The new standards include: a baccalaureate or graduate degree conferred by an accredited institution of higher education; completion of courses with no fewer than 150 semester hours; successful completion of at least 30 semester hours of accounting coursework; and successful completion of at least 20 semester hours of related business courses.

Change has also impacted various medical professions. Medical school curriculum reform literature confirms that undue emphasis has been placed on technology and tertiary care with an inadequate amount of time spent on the social and behavioral sciences (Borkan, et al., 2000). Research suggests that the insufficiency of the amount of time related to behavioral science is a reflection of the lack of appreciation of the subject matter. On the other hand, research also suggests that the humanistic approach to medicine produces future medical professionals who are effective in the adoption of nurturing and healthy behaviors. Ultimately, this curricular change that enhance humanistic medical proficiencies will allow for continuity in a medical school among the behavioral, basic, and clinical sciences.

Nursing education currently faces the challenge of maximizing their educational resources and accounting for their use (Herbener and Watson, 1992). Common in several professions, the need to increase productivity often drives the workforce. By utilizing

methods of efficiency and new technology, this task can be accomplished. Research is another component of the medical field that continues to experience increased interest and bundles of money. The role of a clinical research nurse is a specialty area that is progressively recognizing nursing contributions (Xanthos, et al., 1998). Nurses seem to have a holistic, caring approach to research that humanizes the research process for participants and frequently exhibits successful results.

The profession of physical therapy, in the allied health field, has recently assessed their clinical education practices. Strohschein, et al. (2002), suggests that within the clinical setting, educational foundations are reinforced with attitudes and skills that enable the students to grow professionally. These skills are believed to stimulate the desire for lifelong learning as well as teaching the ability to evaluate their own performances. The primary focus of the clinical is to enhance a physical therapist's effectiveness toward performance while accommodating the diversity of their education.

Similar to physical therapy, athletic training professionals are reviewing their clinical education process. In a recent educational route to become a certified athletic trainer, a student was required to have at least 1500 hours of clinical education. However, in a study by Middlemas, et al. (2001), the issue of quality versus quantity was discussed. The researchers found that the National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA) required a certain number of clinical hours because there was not an acceptable measure of quality in clinical education. The researchers also suggest that there is a lack of a significant relationship between quantity of clinical education and performance on the national certification exam. As a result of curricular changes in athletic training education programs, the NATA has now chosen to eliminate the number of clinical hours

a student must obtain prior to sitting for the national exam. Effectively, the development of a universal method to assess content and quality of athletic training clinical education is a new method adopted by the NATA. This method, the training of Approved Clinical Instructor's (ACI's), is the result of educational dilemma. The ACI's now mandate that all clinical proficiencies related to athletic training be successfully performed and practiced in a traditional athletic training setting.

Accreditation

One of the things that many professional education programs share in common is the process of accreditation. Accreditation is an activity long accepted in the United States, but generally unknown in other countries because they rely on governmental supervision and control. The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (succeeded by the Council on Higher Education) defines accreditation as a status granted to an educational institution or a program that has been found to meet or exceed stated criteria of educational quality (www.neasc.org). Accreditation has two fundamental purposes: to assure the quality of the institution or program, and to assist in the improvement of the institution or program. Institutional accreditation helps ensure that a school is sound and that it has met certain minimum standards in terms of administration, resources, faculty and facilities. It provides a form of quality assurance and the service of value for multiple constituents. Benefactors from accreditation include: the public, students, the institution of higher education, and various professions by bringing together the previous three to improve preparation and practice.

Specialized accreditation is recognized as providing a basic assurance of the scope and quality of professional or occupational preparation. Universities or institutions of higher education often have multiple levels of accreditation. The first level is at the institutional level, while the second level is specific to the division. For example, the University of Oklahoma is an accredited university and the physical therapy school within the university is also accredited by a different agency--the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP). Specialized accreditation measure standards are designed by professionals involved with a specific discipline and are intended to reflect what a person needs to know and what it will take to function successfully within that profession.

There are several steps that an institution must maneuver through to reach full accreditation. Initially, there is an application process requesting accreditation with a letter from the chief executive officer of the institution. The second step involves an extensive self-study to determine how well the institution measures up to the established standards. Following a review of the self-study, an on-site evaluation takes place on the campus applying for accreditation. The purpose of the "peer review" evaluation is to determine how accurately the self-study reflects the institution and to answer any other questions that may arise. The final step of the accreditation process allows for the committee on accreditation to review the documents and recommendations. Institutions will either meet all standards or have deficiencies in one or more areas. The accreditation board of directors will then offer one of the following types of recommendations: full accreditation, initial accreditation or no accreditation.

The previous steps are the exact steps that athletic training education programs have to endure to reach accreditation. During the 21st century, there has been a surge in the development of athletic training programs. The following section on athletic training explains the reasons for the sudden increase. There are numerous problems within the field when it comes to accreditation. "The University of Wyoming has been conditionally reaccredited for 10 years" states President Philip Doubois (Cox et al., 2000, p.10). Among the concerns for accreditation were lack of diversity of faculty, staff and students, research weakness, low salaries compared to peer institutions and poor cooperation from the alumni group. These problems are just a few of the examples of the need to increase the number of quality educational programs. To increase the number of quality programs, there must be an increase in the number of programs successfully receiving accreditation. A major factor in the achievement of successful accreditation is the need for improved program planning of educational programs. Through proper planning and commitment, this achievement can be accomplished.

Athletic Training

The National Athletic Trainers' Association (NATA), founded in 1950, is committed to advancing, encouraging and improving the athletic training profession. Its mission is to "build and strengthen the profession of athletic training through the exchange of ideas, knowledge, and methods of athletic training" (Delforge and Behnke, 1999, p.53). The athletic training professional, known as a Certified Athletic Trainer (ATC) is proficient in the areas of risk management, assessment and evaluation, acute

care, pathology of injury and illness, pharmacological aspects of injury and illness, nutritional aspects of injury and illness, therapeutic exercise, therapeutic modalities, psychosocial intervention and referral, health care administration and professional development. These proficiencies are the basic knowledge given to athletic training allied health professionals who desire to practice in sports medicine.

The NATA provides a variety of services to its members such as providing continuing education, participating in governmental affairs and strengthening public relations. In addition to providing these services, the association is committed to enhancing the profession through the continuation of quality educational programs offered at many universities and colleges. The passion for the profession, demonstrated by many of its members, allows the continued growth and ongoing delivery of quality health care to the countless individuals that request attention from a certified athletic trainer.

Milestones in Athletic Training

In 1955, William Newell, became the Executive Director of the NATA. One of his first significant acts was to appoint a Committee on Gaining Recognition at the national level. This committee, later known as the Professional Education Committee, took on the endeavor of developing the first model curriculum for the professional preparation of athletic trainers. In 1959, the first official athletic training curriculum education program was approved by the governing board of the NATA. The first education model adopted in 1959 revealed two important features that directed the future of athletic training. They included: 1) an emphasis on attainment of a secondary-level

teaching certification, and 2) the inclusion of prerequisite courses for acceptance into physical therapy school (Delforge and Benke, 1999).

Ten years after the initial curriculum was developed, only a few colleges and universities across the United States were interested in the program. It was not until 1969 that the first undergraduate athletic training education programs were recognized by the NATA (Mankato State University, Indiana State University, Lamar University and the University of New Mexico). Three year later, in 1972, the approval of the first graduate programs occurred (Indiana State University and the University of Arizona).

Throughout the 1970's, prolific changes were made in the areas of athletic training education. The initial education model that was developed in 1969 evolved over time from a physical therapy emphasis to a specific athletic training focus. Additionally, there lacked an interest in the secondary-level teaching credential and by 1980, it was an option left completely to the discretion of the athletic training student. By the end of the 1970's, athletic training education programs were in more than sixty colleges and universities across the country and were steadily growing.

In 1980, the NATA Board of Directors approved a resolution calling for all NATA undergraduate programs to offer a major field of study in athletic training by July 1, 1986 (Delforge, 1982). This resolution was later modified by suggesting that all programs be "in the process" of program development by July, 1986, with completion of the program development by July 1, 1990. To be considered as "in the process," an institution was required to submit a letter from the administrator attesting to the program planning process and the institution's intent to meet the implied deadline.

In 1990, the NATA was recognized by the American Medical Association (AMA) as an allied health profession. In 1994, the AMA became a co-sponsor of the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP). CAAHEP was also recognized by the United States Department of Education as an accreditation agency for educational programs in the allied health professions. Additionally, in 1994, a new branch in athletic training education was developed. It was an entry-level athletic training education program that was a step between undergraduate programs and master's level programs. The first two institutions to develop these programs (Barry University and High Point University) were accredited in 1994.

During the mid 1990's, two major policy changes were suggested by the NATA Board of Directors. The first change suggested that only graduate programs that offered "advanced" learning experiences above and beyond the entry-level experience would be granted accreditation. The NATA also changed the standards of athletic training education by requiring that all students who wanted to become a certified athletic trainer must attend a program that was accredited by CAAHEP. This new standard was to be in place by 2004. The next section addresses the specific changes in a route toward certification.

Change in Athletic Training Education and Accreditation

In the past, athletic training was not offered as a degree program in the university setting. Rather, a student was required to select a related degree program in which to obtain a bachelor's degree while also fulfilling certain course requirements and internships hours to become eligible to take the national exam. This path to certification

was known as an internship program. In 2004, a new method of educating athletic trainers replaced the old internship model. These are the new educational programs that will be offered at three levels: entry-level (undergraduate), entry-level master's (graduate) athletic training educational programs, accredited by the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP), and post-certification graduate athletic training programs, accredited by the NATA (NATA Website).

At the present time, there are only 15 NATA-approved graduate athletic training education programs in the United States. The number of graduate programs is significantly smaller than the number of entry-level programs across the nation which total 96 (NATA News). Of the 15 institutions with graduate programs, six have dual programs housing both CAAHEP accredited entry-level programs and/or a graduate program. These six institutions include: University of Illinois, University of Indiana, Indiana State University, University of North Carolina, California University of Pennsylvania, and Temple University.

The Professional Education Committee (PEC) is a part of the NATA organization that has provided assistance and guidance in the development of curriculum educational programs since 1969. Within the organization, there is a Post-Certification Graduate Education Committee (PCGEC) that specializes in evaluating and revising graduate curriculum standards and guidelines. In 1998, the PCGEC was assigned the task of revising the standards and guidelines for the graduate programs. As a result, a twenty-page manual was developed to define five specific instructions for the development, implementation and accreditation of an NATA-approved graduate athletic training education program (NATA website).

While the revision of standards and guidelines for the graduate programs are fairly new, there are two programs (one at Indiana State University and one at the University of Virginia) that have been in existence since the early 1970's. The newest curriculum is the Sports Health Care Program at the Arizona School of Health Sciences, a branch of the Kirksville College of Osteopathic Medicine. This school graduated its first class in 1997.

Regardless of how long each program has been established, all programs share a common goal: to produce well-educated, diversely experienced professionals to advance the profession of athletic training through education and research in the prevention, evaluation, management and rehabilitation of injuries (NATA website). This unified goal of producing highly educated professionals is present in all three athletic training education levels (undergraduate, entry-level and post-certification). Each level has educational standards that are governed and enforced to ensure a quality of education. Accreditation of a program is a common national standard that demands this level of quality education.

Commission on Accreditation for Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP) is the largest specialized accreditor in the health science field (www.caahep.org). It is the accrediting body for athletic training as well as twenty (20) other allied health professions. An athletic training education program must move through an eleven step process to reach the level for an accreditation decision. The first step is to contact CAAHEP to file an application requesting accreditation services, signed by the CEO. This form is available on the CAAHEP website or from the Committee on Accreditation (CoA). Once completed, it should be returned to the specific CoA that will do the review.

The CoA will then provide guidance, procedures and policies regarding the accreditation process. The next step is for the program to conduct a self-evaluation and submit the Self Study Report to the CoA. The CoA then evaluates the Self Study Report to determine the readiness of the program to be site visited. If a major problem exists in the self study, clarification or further documentation will be requested prior to a site visit. When the CoA approves the site visit, a team arrives at the institution to conduct a review. This review contains detailed examination of the institution, checking for consistency in the self study, along with an exit conference to present its findings verbally to the institution and the program representatives. The site visit report is then sent to the program director to provide opportunity for comment and for correction of factual errors, as well as submission of additional documentation. Accreditation recommendation is formulated by the CoA based upon review of the Self Study Report, the Site Visit Report and other appropriate information. The recommendation is then forwarded to CAAHEP. If the CoA recommendations is for probation, accreditation withhold or withdraw, the program is notified and offered opportunity to request CoA reconsideration. Finally the CAAHEP Board reviews and votes on recommendations from each CoA and the institution and program are informed of the accreditation action that was taken by the CAAHEP Board. Once accredited, a program must submit an annual report to maintain accreditation status, and a full review of accreditation is performed at least every five years.

Athletic Training Education Models

The field of athletic training constitutes a diverse type of education, the process of which is similar to that approach applied in medical school. A portion of the setting is found in a traditional classroom, while a significant amount of education is received in

the clinical setting. Clinical education is often experienced in a variety of locations such as collegiate, high school, and certain hospital clinics that emphasize sports medicine. Chad Starkey, the athletic training program director from Northeastern University, has defined three theoretical models that pertain to athletic training clinical education. The first is a Unified Theory where all supervising ATC's are Approved Clinical Instructors (ACI's). It is structured by allowing all learning settings, including experiential learning, to "count" as clinical education. The strength of this model is defined as the "Big Bang" where the clinical education experience is "everything at once." Additionally, due to the multitude of ACI's, this model allows for easier documentation of clinical experience. A weakness of this particular model is the task of training all ATC's to become ACI instructors. This is a restrictive barrier due to the fact there is a high amount of intensive training involved with becoming an ACI.

The second theoretical model is the Split Halves model where clinical education and experiential learning are conducted separately. There are two defined groups of clinical supervisors: ACI's and ATC's. The Approved Clinical Instructors maintain the organized clinical education, while the Certified Athletic Trainers provide the experiential learning. The first half of the Split Halves Model allows for clinical education to take place in the classroom and in a laboratory setting. Experiential learning is gained through actual sport assignments and everyday interaction with athletic teams. The second half of the model combines experiential learning and clinical education into one setting-sport assignments and athletic teams. The main purpose of the second half model is the evaluation process. The ACI is present only part-time and objectively evaluates the student's skills. The ATC, on the other hand, is present at all times and

provides subjective evaluations, skill refinement, clinical direction and mentoring. Strengths of this model include an allowance for more experiential learning opportunities. Further, not all ATC's have to be ACI's. However, weaknesses include a substantial increase in communication and documentation along with an increased workload on ACI's.

The third and final theory is the Expanding Universe Model. This model allows for all of a student's clinical education to be completed prior to his or her senior year. This allows the student to have fewer restrictions, more time to complete year-long assignments, and gain off campus experience at a non-approved clinical site. Strengths of this model provide flexibility in student affiliations and the fact that this model is easily integrated with other educational models. Weaknesses include a compressed clinical education timeframe and a potential lack of capstone evaluation if the student is at an off-campus site. Additionally, this model cannot be used with programs that accept students in their junior year.

Summary

Educational reform is evident in several professional programs throughout the United States. The field of athletic training is undergoing a vast reorganization of its education curriculum. By the year 2004, all internship athletic training education programs will lose their status and students will be required to receive an education in an accredited curriculum program. Due to this change, athletic training education programs are being developed at record pace. The problem with the vast change is that program development is being hurried along and not given the respect of proper program planning.

It is evident that several programs, after being developed, are not receiving accreditation from CAAHEP. Too many of new programs are receiving probationary status or withhold status due to errors that may have been prevented with proper planning. The goal of this research is to identify the differences between successful and unsuccessful program planning models. In turn, the NATA can increase the success rate of program accreditation, thereby increasing the number of qualified athletic training graduates.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to examine the program planning process of the athletic training curriculum educational program. This descriptive study of curriculum programs compared the program planning process of undergraduate athletic training programs. The purpose of this research was to analyze which program planning models were used in the development of the curriculum, to assess the role of stakeholders, and ultimately to determine what makes a program successful in the accreditation process.

Research can be performed by various methodological approaches depending on the questions asked. The intent of research was to explore a problem by testing theory or generating theory. A theory is a possible explanation of a problem within a certain field.

In the field of education, applied research is common for the use of solving practical problems. The two most common types of applied research are explorative and confirmative research. Explorative research generates theory; it is an exploration of a problem that leads to a proposed solution. Confirmative research confirms or tests theory; in this research, a solution is tested to see how well it works. Within the area of program planning it is rare to find quantitative research because of the difficulty to assess program planning with numbers. Therefore, this research was qualitative; focusing on questions and interview topics derived from program planning theory.

This research used a qualitative design to identify differences between programs that have achieved successful accreditation and programs that were unsuccessful in the initial attempt of accreditation. The primary research method included interviews with key stakeholders (curriculum directors). The following research questions were used to analyze the program planning process of athletic training curriculum education programs:

1. What are the differences in the planning process used by successful and unsuccessful athletic training programs?
2. What are the differences in descriptions of the program planning process among curriculum directors, the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Program (CAAHEP), and the theory of program planning models?
3. How does the choice of program planning model contribute to success of achieving accreditation?

Rationale for Method

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) define qualitative research as "multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter." This type of data collection involves a variety of data sources--case study, personal experience, introspection, life story, interviews, and observations, along with historical, interactional, and visual texts.

The process of qualitative research may include a compendium of five basic types of data collection techniques: observations, interviews, document analysis, journaling and audio-visual materials. The direction of inquiry can shift throughout the data collection as themes begin to emerge. The research, known as explorative, uses open-ended research questions which allow the researcher to listen to the participants while shaping the future questions that need to be explored (Creswell, 1998).

In this research a majority of the data collected was the perspectives of professionals that played a critical role in the development of the current standards for the athletic training curriculum. An integral part of this study was the use of triangulation among the curriculum directors that were interviewed, various models from program planning theory and the standards and guidelines designed by the Commission on Accreditation for Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP). The triangulation requires collection of data from multiple professionals by using the data collection method of interviews. Throughout the data collection process, the researcher identified central themes that evolve throughout each of the athletic training program planning processes. From these central themes, an explanation was developed to explore the role of program planning that led to program success.

Sample

There are four common types of sampling found in research; they include random, convenience, purposeful, and theoretical sampling. Random sampling allows for all members of the population to have an equal and independent chance of being included in the study. It is performed by defining the sample, listing all members of the

population and selecting the sample with a procedure that encourages sheer chance to be chosen for the research. Convenience sampling, the selection of units from the population, is based on ease of availability and/or accessibility. The trade-off that comes with this ease of sampling is the representativeness of the population. There is no way to determine how typical the information collected about the sample is to the population as a whole. Purposeful sampling, also referred to as judgment sampling, is the process of selecting cases that show different perspectives on the problem, process or event while choosing cases that are ordinary/unordinary, accessible or unusual (Creswell, 1998). In theoretical sampling, participants are theoretically chosen to help the researcher best form the theory. Throughout the collection process the data is collected, coded and analyzed to determine what data to collect next and to assist in developing emerging themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The technique of theoretical sampling was used to select curriculum directors from the population of undergraduate programs listed by the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP). The specific sampling technique will be based on:

- Initial status granted to an institution by CAAHEP
- Year the program received accreditation
- Size of institution

The population of the study represents all undergraduate programs that have attempted accreditation within the past three years. The Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP) has a list of all institutions attempting accreditation posted on their website: www.caahep.org/programs. The list is updated

quarterly with the addition of new programs applying for candidacy and with current accreditation status of the programs listed. From the list a sample representing successful (initial accreditation) and unsuccessful (probationary accreditation) programs was identified.

The choice of theoretical sampling was used to increase the possibility that researcher would collect varying data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Research in the field of athletic training education is increasing drastically, and it has been suggested that curriculum directors are being inundated by research solicitations. By calling each program director and asking for participation, it is more probably to receive participation rather than sending a letter similar to other researchers in the field.

The sample consisted of six programs that have received initial accreditation from varying levels of institutions and various levels of education. It also included six programs that have received probationary accreditation from varying levels of institutions and various levels of education. A total of twelve programs were used to begin the study and data was collected until saturation was met.

Procedures

Programs involved in this research were intentionally chosen from the list of athletic training programs that receive initial or probationary accreditation from the CAAHEP Board (http://www.caahep/org/caahep/programs/at/at-act.htm). Curriculum directors were initially contacted by telephone, asked for their participation and scheduled for a specific date/time phone interview. Immediately following the phone conversation, an email was sent out containing an introductory letter reminding the

curriculum director of the researcher's interest and plans for the research project along with a section for consent by obtaining an electronic signature (Appendix A). There were two options available to the participants. The first was to select the "agree" button which automatically gave permission for the interview to be audiotape recorded. While the second option for the participant was to select the "disagree" button which automatically took them to a page thanking them for their consideration in the research project. The consent was to be sent multiple times to ensure completion; however only one delivery per participant was necessary. The final step of the research was to call the participant on the proposed date/time as determined in the initial conversation and to carry out the phone interview.

The data was collected by phone interviews. The interviews began by requesting demographic information about the individual respondents to document their professional qualifications and general statistics about their institution. The data collection then continued with structured questions that were guided by program planning theory, while allowing exploration of issues that were unique to each program.

Twelve curriculum directors participated in the interview process. They were identified by programs that have received initial accreditation or programs that have received probationary accreditation. The purpose of the interview was to gain information specific to the program planning methods used in the development of the curriculum programs, as well as to define some of the factors that made for their program success or failure to achieve full accreditation on the initial attempt. Open-ended questions were used to initiate the conversations and guide the respondents

toward the purpose of the research. A list of the interview questions is available in Appendix B.

Interviews took place at the participant's convenience. They were scheduled in advance, with an e-mail reminder one day prior to the interview. The researcher called the participant at the designated time and number given by the interviewee. Each interview was scheduled for approximately forty-five minutes and was tape recorded.

Prior to any formal data collection, a pilot study was performed using the exact technique listed above to test the procedures. Two programs were purposefully chosen to participate in the process. Due to the fact that the researcher personally knew the solicited program directors, the researcher was comfortable asking for suggestion or determining problems with the interview questions. The results from the pilot study were not used in the final data collection material and were only used to make improvement to the instruments. For a synopsis of the pilot study, see Appendix C.

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Research that involves the use of human subjects requires an assurance that the welfare and rights of subjects or participants are safeguarded. This protocol calls for compliance with federal, state and university guidelines with respect to human subject protection. The IRB committee, made up of university officials, has the jurisdiction to review and approve all research relating to human subjects at the university level (http://www.ouhsc.edu/irb-norman//overview.asp).

Prior to beginning the IRB process, the University implemented a new educational training session that was required prior to submitting an IRB proposal. The

training consisted of several modules followed by test questions pertaining to the modules. Once completed, the review board received a score from the on-line training session that allowed researcher to pursue the IRB process.

The IRB process pertaining to this research was initiated by the creation of a consent form (Appendix A), and development of a data collection questionnaire (Appendix B). The researcher then completed a preliminary application to IRB. This application served as representation for discussion during the prospectus meeting. The application that was submitted to the IRB included the research protocol, data collection instruments and consent form documents.

The first step of the research process, after the development of necessary forms, consisted of confirming the curriculum directors as participants for data collection. During this step, the researcher telephoned the participant to solicit their participation in the research (Appendix D). Upon the participant's consent, they were sent, via email, an informed consent form explaining exactly what the researcher's interests, goals and procedures for the research project. The participants were asked permission for an audio-taped interview. Consent forms were electronically signed and returned to the researcher prior to the continuation of data collection. Following the solicitation and consent, the participants were phoned beginning the interview process with questions pertaining to curriculum director and institutional demographics. Throughout the process, the researcher ensured confidentiality and responsibility relating to all information acquired throughout the research process.

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted using open-ended interviews. The main focus of the data collection centered on the particular choice of program planning model used in the development of the curriculum. The analysis pertained to program development, implementation and evaluation which ultimately led to a successful or unsuccessful accreditation.

The initial portion of the interviews consisted of several questions pertaining to the demographics of an institution such as institution size, curriculum director education and length of time employed at the university. The interview also defined the major stakeholders in the development of the program, their educational background and their experience relating to program planning.

A list of interview questions is located in Appendix B. Open-ended interviews allowed the researcher to tailor each interview based on what the participant was saying. The questions developed were based on program planning theory derived from chapter two. The main focus of the data collection was centered on the particular choice of program planning models used in the development of the curriculum; the identification of program logistics such as program status, accreditation accomplishment, and program size; and finally, the identification of similarities and differences among the programs. In addition to the program planning steps specific to development, implementation, and evaluation, clinical education requirements shall be reviewed. The researcher also identified the major stakeholders for the program planning process and classified their previous program planning education and experience.

Data was collected during the phone interviews using a digital phone tape recorder that plugged directly into the handheld portion of any regular telephone. Each conversation began by reminding the participant that the interview was to be recorded and transcribed for research purposes.

Each interview was transcribed at the conclusion of each phone interview. Transcription consisted of replaying the tape and typing each statement, word for word, given by the researcher and subject. Confidentiality was kept as the researcher performed the transcription and coding for all of the interviews. After the final transcription of all phone interviews, each question was reviewed independently looking for emerging themes or trends that were either consistent or inconsistent as a response.

Analysis

Constant Comparative Method

The constant comparative method is a technique of taking information from data collection and comparing it to emerging categories (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This method is said to follow four distinct stages: 1) comparing incidents applicable to each category; 2) integrating categories and their properties; 3) delimiting the theory and 4) writing the theory. Ultimately, in this process, the data was consistently being coded and continually being refined to identify emerging themes.

Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba suggest that the basic issue in relation to trustworthiness is simple: are the findings "worth paying attention to?" They suggest that just as a quantitative study cannot be valid unless it is reliable, a qualitative study cannot be transferable unless it is credible, and cannot be credible unless it is dependable. There are standards that qualitative research must possess to gain trustworthiness, they are: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility

Credibility is an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a "credible" conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants' original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.296). The goal of credibility is to gather multiple layers of information that lead toward the same objective. This redundancy of information is also known as saturation. Saturation occurs when a researcher is no longer hearing or seeing new information (Creswell, 1998). Another aspect of credibility is triangulation. In triangulation, researchers make use of multiple sources, methods, and theories to provide corroborating evidence. This multi-angle data collection is often used to shed light on various themes or perspectives.

Transferability

Transferability is known as the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or with other respondents. Also known as applicability, this standard of practice calls for generalizations to be made about the data to the average population.

Transferability can be accomplished by collecting detailed descriptions of data from a sample that is contextually different in size and location. As for this research, athletic training curriculum programs from various NCAA levels, with differing program sizes were chosen to define successes and failures that were generalizable to the remainder of the NATA's curriculum education programs.

Dependability

Dependability is similar to reliability in qualitative research. It is the guarantee that if the research was replicated with similar subjects over similar context, the findings would most likely be repeated. Dependability is often attained through triangulation of methods used and through providing an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 p. 382-385). The audit trail used in this study included raw data, and described how data was collected, how categories were created and how data was analyzed. The audit trail is written in sufficient detail so that any reviewer could easily follow the trail of the researcher and confirm the findings of the study.

Confirmability

Confirmability is achieved from a synthesis of research data. It is the degree to which the findings are the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the biases of the researcher. A thorough analysis of the data ensured that conclusions were developed from the data and that biases that may have been present were not generated from the researcher. In addition, an attempt to maintain confirmability was furthered by providing

raw data that can be traced to original sources and by describing how the data was categorized and interpreted.

Data Analysis

Data collected throughout the research process was analyzed according to context. Each interview was transcribed at the conclusion of each phone interview by dictating word for word the contents of the conversation. Demographics regarding curriculum directors and educational institutions are provided in table representation found in chapter four. Interviews were analyzed to identify emerging themes that directly relate to the research questions. Key elements of the data were "coded" to allow for further interpretation of the data. The coded data was grouped, clustered and combined in various ways to predict the finding. Ultimately, the results of the data collected throughout this research are the basis for the next chapter – Chapter Four.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs. The study reviewed the differences in the program planning models used by curriculum directors while developing their athletic training curriculum education program. Based on this review, the study determined how well the program planning models served the needs of the programs. Ultimately, the study was designed to: (1) determine which program planning models led toward successful program development in a pre-professional program; and (2) identify what steps had been eliminated which could have caused accreditation delay or failure. The outcome of the study was designed to improve the success rates of institutions applying for initial accreditation and to decrease the number of institutions receiving probationary status. In addition, this study will contribute to program planning theories by addressing the role of program planning in the development of successful programs.

In this qualitative study, data was collected by using semi-structured interviews. The use of theoretical sampling was used to guide the data collection process and to determine the interview order. The findings of this research are presented in both paragraph and table format. Each question from the transcribed interviews was analyzed

to determine emerging themes or trends that were either consistent or inconsistent with current research.

Theoretical Sampling

Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the researcher simultaneously collects and analyzes data. The researcher codes and analyzes his or her data while deciding what data to collect next and identifying what sample to explore. In this way, the researcher develops his or her theory as it emerges (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The number of attempts/participants utilized depends on whether the categories of information become saturated and whether the theory is elaborated in all of its complexity. Data collection ceases when saturation has been reached and theory has been adequately developed.

Approach to Sampling

I began the interview process by selecting curriculum directors from Division I and Division II institutions since size was the primary variable under consideration. I also identified successful and unsuccessful programs as the educational difference. Typically, Division I institutions are larger and have more resources compared to Division II universities which may impact the quality of program planning. This assumption did not hold up initially as I compared the initial Division I and II universities. I found the Division II institution to be more thorough and ultimately more successful (accreditation on the initial attempt) than the Division I institution. The Division II university proved to have a larger program planning committee, more shared planning and the curriculum director had more sophisticated program planning skills. In

contrast, the Division I curriculum director relied on his own past experience, whereas the Division II curriculum director relied on a diverse program planning committee to put together a sound and successful program. Since my findings did not support my original assumption, I chose to identify additional small schools for the third and fourth interviews to explore the role of committee diversity and curriculum director expertise. Interview number three was scheduled with a curriculum director from a Division III institution that developed an unsuccessful program. The curriculum director did not have much program planning experience and unfortunately, the curriculum director handled most of the program development himself. To explore the resource variable even further, another small university was chosen. The fourth interview was scheduled with a Division II institution because of curriculum director expertise; the curriculum director had been at the institution for over 21 years. Nevertheless, the program turned out to be unsuccessful. In fact, the institution barely made it through the accreditation process. The curriculum director spoke of a 946 page rejoinder document that was filed to correct the violations found in the site visit (a 946 page rejoinder is extremely large and rare). Ultimately, this interview led me back to the Division I level to explore an institution with greater resources. This university had an experienced curriculum director and program rich in educational history.

I chose the fifth institution based on its reputation for being a "good" educational program. I also wanted to return to the Division I level. Additionally, the curriculum director had a PhD and had developed two prior curriculum programs in his lengthy career as a certified athletic trainer. The interview revealed that this program was successful with a solidly planned program and a highly diverse planning committee.

Because the first five curriculum directors that were interviewed were males, I chose to interview a female curriculum director to explore the role of gender in program planning. I also decided to remain with a Division I institution to further explore the role of resources and to further investigate the experience of the curriculum director and planning committee influence.

For the seventh interview I chose a small program with a reputation for having an excellent program. This institution was chosen to further explore the role of resources in a successful program and to attempt to discover additional information from a successful curriculum director at a small university.

For the eighth interview, I chose to continue with another female curriculum director from a successful program. I chose a curriculum director from a Division I university in a very small state. In fact, this particular state has only one Division I institution and the curriculum director called it the "flagship" university in the state. It would also be the second interview with a female curriculum director to further explore the role of gender in program planning.

The ninth interview was conducted with a female curriculum director from an unsuccessful program in a Division I institution. This curriculum director also held the position of head athletic trainer at her institution and carried a heavy workload. It appeared that this curriculum director had neglected the development of the curriculum to fulfill her duties in providing athletic training coverage to the student-athletes. As a curriculum director she was inexperienced, undereducated and overworked in regards to independently developing a new curriculum education program. I was interested in

exploring the role of how the planning committee assisted the curriculum director throughout the planning process.

The tenth interview came at the suggestion of the curriculum director from the ninth interview. The two curriculum directors worked in tandem throughout the accreditation process. Both institutions failed at their attempt at accreditation. The curriculum director from the tenth interview tried to apply the other institution's program planning model to hers. Even though both programs were associated with Division I universities, it shows that program planning is specific to each program and should not be copied to reach success.

Interview number eleven was a successful program with a very thorough and interesting program planning process. The program was at a NAIA university and the curriculum director was highly educated and very experienced at program planning. She developed a planning committee that had similar qualifications. She claims that the success of her program came from the experience of her committee and the resources made available to her from the university.

The twelfth and final interview was with a curriculum director at a Division II university that was understaffed, had limited resources and proved to have major supervision problems. This program was unsuccessful and even faced the problem of submitting a self-study, withdrawing it voluntarily and re-submitting a second time.

In summary, I interviewed a total of six curriculum directors that successfully reached accreditation on the initial attempt and six curriculum directors that had various deficiencies and self study issues that resulted in the denial of accreditation on the initial attempt. Ultimately, what I expected to find from this interview process was that size

was a factor in developing successful programs. I believe throughout the interview process I compiled some significant results. Various themes such as level of institution, diversity of the planning committee and availability of resources continuously emerged as I moved though the interview process. I was also able to explore the role of education, experience, workload and gender. The following data will show the various themes that emerged to differentiate successful and unsuccessful programs. Table 3 defines the order of interviews, breaks down the size of educational institution and identifies whether or not they were successful in accreditation on the initial attempt.

Table 3

Theoretical Sampling with Accreditation Status

Interview	Size of Institution	Success Status
Interview #1:	Division II	Successful Accreditation
Interview #2:	Division I	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Interview #3:	Division III	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Interview #4:	Division II	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Interview #5:	Division I	Successful Accreditation
Interview #6:	Division I	Successful Accreditation
Interview #7:	Division III	Successful Accreditation
Interview #8:	Division I	Successful Accreditation
Interview #9:	Division I	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Interview #10:	Division I	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Interview #11:	NAIA	Successful Accreditation
Interview #12:	Division II	Unsuccessful Accreditation

Table 4 specifically lists the institutions by size and classifies the institutions according to success. Again, my assumptions were that Division I universities would be more successful in accreditation based on program support, resources and committee diversity. However, the data does not support the fact that larger institutions are more successful in accreditation and the results can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Breakdown of Status by University Size

Division I:	3 Successful in Accreditation	3 Unsuccessful in Accreditation
Division II:	1 Successful in Accreditation	2 Unsuccessful in Accreditation
Division III:	1 Successful in Accreditation	1 Unsuccessful in Accreditation
NAIA:	1 Successful in Accreditation	

Research Question One: The Planning Process

What are the differences in the program planning process used by successful and unsuccessful athletic training education programs? From the results of the twelve interviews, several themes related to the planning process emerged. The planning process includes the education, experience and expertise of the curriculum director, the level of institutional support, the resources available to support planning, the planning committee diversity and level of involvement, and a description of the steps used in the development of the program plans.

Curriculum Director Demographics

All twelve of the interviews were conducted with curriculum directors of accredited athletic training curriculum education programs. Each curriculum director's level of education ranged from a master's degree to the doctoral level. Five of the curriculum directors had completed a master's degree, two of them were in the dissertation phase of completing a doctorate of philosophy, three had completed a doctorate of philosophy and two had completed a doctorate of education (Table 5). There was no evidence to suggest that the educational level of the curriculum director was a factor related to success. In fact, only four of the seven curriculum directors that held a doctorate degree were successful in their initial attempt at accreditation.

The curriculum directors' emphasis on education varied from the areas of education /higher education to physical education. Each of the curriculum directors had been employed at their current institution ranging from five to 21 years. Eight

curriculum directors had some type of program planning education or experience prior to developing the athletic training curriculum, while four curriculum directors had not had any type of program planning experience. Of the eight curriculum directors that had program planning experience only four were successful in accreditation of their program and four were unsuccessful. Therefore, there is no evidence to suggest that experience in the field of program planning impacts program success.

Table 5

Curriculum Director Demographics

Success Status	Education Level	Education Emphasis	Years Employed	Planning Experience
S	PhD (ABD)	Higher Ed-Admin	7 yrs	Yes
U	PhD	Curr. & Instruction	8 yrs	Yes
U	MS	Exercise Science	20 yrs	No
U	MS	Phy. Ed-Ath. Train.	21 yrs	Yes
S	PhD	Phy. Ed-Anatomy	6 yrs	Yes
S	EdD	Ed. Lead & Policy	18 yrs	No
S	MS	Exercise Physiology	5 yrs	Yes
S	MS	Education	11 yrs	No
U	MS	Kinesiology	9 yrs	No
U	PhD (ABD)	Ed. Administration	10 yrs	Yes
S	PhD	Ed. Administration	5 yrs	Yes
U	EdD	Sports Management	6 yrs	Yes

Note: S= successful program accreditation on initial attempt
U=unsuccessful program accreditation on initial attempt

One of the requirements of this research study was that all of the programs reviewed must have achieved accreditation within the last three years. Table six shows the success status of all twelve programs and lists what year they achieved accreditation. All of the newly developed programs were housed in departments with physical

education emphasis. Each program offered a Bachelors of Science degree with an emphasis in athletic training from their specific department (Table 6).

Table 6

Program Demographics

Success Status	Year Accredited	Department Housed	Development Time	Self-Study Time
S	2003	Hlth, Phy.Ed & Recreation	3 yrs	2 yrs
U	2004	Nutrition & Hlth Science	6 yrs	2 yrs
U	2004	Exercise Science	5 yrs	1 yr
U	2005	Hlth & Human Performance	7 yrs	3 yrs
S	2004	Hlth Science & Kinesiology	5 yrs	1 yr
S	2003	Human Sciences	8 yrs	6 mths
S	2003	Education & Ex. Science	2 yrs	6 mths
S	2005	Education & Human Devel.	5 yrs	1 yr
U	2003	Sports & Exercise Science	2 yrs	1 yr
U	2004	Hlth, Phy.Ed & Recreation	5 yrs	5 mths
S	2004	Kinesiology & Sports Mngt.	5 yrs	3 mths
U	2005	Physical Education	6 yrs	3 yrs

The length of time to develop an athletic training curriculum program varied from institution to institution (Table 6). Two of the programs were developed over a two year period and one program was developed over three years. The remainder of the programs took at least five years for development. Five programs required five years for development, two programs took six years, one program needed seven years and one program required a total of eight years to develop and accredit their program. Although there was considerable variance in the number of years needed to develop these programs, most took a similar amount of time to write the self-study. On average, it took a little over one year for an institution to research and write the self-study required for

submission prior to the accreditation site visit. The longest period of writing was three years, whereas the shortest time period took three months (Table 6). Results indicated there is no evidence between the length of time to develop a program or write a self-study and the success or lack of success in developing these athletic training curriculum education program.

Institutional Commitment

Support is vital for any program to be successful. Ultimately, support for a program must begin at the top. When curriculum directors were asked if they received support from the president of their university, eight of them replied "yes" three of them responded "sort of" and one stated "I don't know" (Table 7). When asked about support from the athletic director, ten of the curriculum directors identified a positive and supportive relationship. One interviewee responded that they had some support from their athletic director and one curriculum director said that they had no support at all. Both of the curriculum directors happen to have unsuccessful programs. The reason for the lack of support was due to a "difference in opinion" in the use of student athletic trainers in the programs. One athletic director believed that the student trainers should have more involvement with the athletic teams by covering practices and traveling with the teams. However, the problem with student athletic trainers being involved with the teams is there is not enough supervision by ACI's or staff athletic trainers. Overall, most programs had considerable support from both their university president and their athletic director; however, the evidence suggests that support alone will not lead to developing a successful program.

Table 7

External Support

Success Status	External Consultant	Athletic Director Support	President Support
S	No	Yes	Yes
U	No	Yes	Sort Of
U	No	Yes	Yes
U	Yes	No	Yes
S	No	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	Sort Of
U	No	Sort Of	Don't Know
U	No	Yes	Yes
S	No	Yes	Yes
U	Yes	Yes	Sort Of

The utilization of an external consultant was a theme that emerged from all of the interviews. Of the twelve curriculum directors interviewed, only five of them solicited the assistance of an external consultant (Table 7 & 8). Of the five who utilized an external consultant, only three of them ultimately achieved accreditation on the initial attempt. Several of the unsuccessful curriculum directors that did not obtain the input of external consultant, expressed regret for not doing so. Some of the statements were, "I considered it, but I felt I had enough background to get it done. I think when it comes to our accreditation renewal, I will hire one." An additional curriculum director stated, "no, however, I wish I would have" for purpose of reviewing the self-study document. Finally, a fourth curriculum director mentioned contacting the JRC (Joint Review Committee) several times when questions appeared. The research showed that four of the

seven curriculum directors that did not use an external consultant showed remorse in not doing so.

There were many positive statements from the curriculum directors who did utilize the assistance of an external consultant. The most common response was how instrumental an external consultant was in "helping to lay the foundation and establishing what we needed to do." One curriculum director stated, "one of the mistakes I made is that we didn't utilize him early enough!" The advice this person gives to others is to involve the consultant prior to writing the self-study, not after it is completed. In their experience, the consultant suggested significant curriculum changes, therefore causing the curriculum director to take an additional year to make self-study changes prior to submission. This curriculum director also mentioned that his interpretation of the standards was significantly different than the interpretation of the consultant and that the consultant "brought to light several things we needed to change". Another program that capitalized on the use of an external consultant went through a mock Joint Review Comittee site visit. This program's consultant held meetings with their program planning committee to show how the official meeting would transpire and made helpful suggestions at the conclusion of each mock interview. This, according the curriculum director, was helpful in preparation for the formal site visit interviews.

Table 8

External Consultant versus Successful or Unsuccessful Program

	Successful Accreditation	Unsuccessful Accreditation
Yes-Consultant	3	2
No-Consultant	3	4

In reference to Table 8, three curriculum directors used an external consultant and were successful in their initial attempt for accreditation. In addition, two other curriculum directors also used an external consultant; however they were unsuccessful in their attempt at accreditation. The reason why both of these curriculum directors believed they were unsuccessful with the use of an external consultant is because the consultants were brought in to review the program after the self-study was submitted. Both curriculum directors were required to write rejoinder documents which were mandated by the JRC to supplement their self-study. Both of the unsuccessful curriculum directors made comments about utilizing the consultant earlier in their planning process to help them achieve successful accreditation. Table 8 also references the curriculum directors that did not utilize an external consultant. There were three curriculum directors that were successful in accreditation. Each of the three had program planning experience and had previously developed an athletic training curriculum education program. On the other hand, there were four curriculum directors that did not use an external consultant and were unsuccessful in accreditation. When reviewing the numbers relating to external consultants there is no evidence that if a program is reviewed by a consultant, they will

definitely achieve accreditation. However, four of the curriculum directors that did not receive accreditation on the initial attempt regretted their decisions. The interviews suggest that the level of involvement of the consultants may be a factor. The two curriculum directors that did use an external consultant and did not receive accreditation on the initial attempt waited too long in the hiring process. If they would have asked the consultant to review their self-study prior to submission, they may not have had to write a rejoinder.

Curriculum directors that used external consultants were asked "why they chose to use a consultant and how the consultant was selected?" Each of the five directors responded in a similar way suggesting a combination of two of the following reasons for hiring an external consultant: (1) each knew an external consultant that had previously developed a successful program; and (2) each was familiar with someone who was currently a site visitor or hired someone who had previously served as a site visitor.

Support for the development of a program from various levels such as the president, athletic director and an external consultant is important. However, as the interviews progressed it became evident that support was not the only factor in success.

When the curriculum directors were asked if they would like to have additional help in the development of their program, seven of the twelve responded "yes" I would have liked to have had additional assistance developing this program (Table 9). Of the seven curriculum directors who stated that they needed more help, only three were unsuccessful in their quest for achieving accreditation. Thus, although four of the curriculum directors desired extra help, these directors were able to successfully reach accreditation with the existing resources. On the other hand, there were five curriculum

directors that said they did not need additional help in developing their programs. Of those five, three were unsuccessful in developing their programs. It is also important to note that two of these curriculum directors did not hire an external consultant during the program planning process. Maybe the two curriculum directors that were unsuccessful in accreditation and did not want additional help or to an external consultant would have requested the assistance, there is a chance they could have reached success.

Table 9

Resources

Success Status	Adequate Time	Adequate Resources	Additional Help
S	No	Yes	Yes
U	Yes	Yes	No
U	No	Yes	Yes
U	No	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	No
S	Yes	Yes	Yes
S	No	Yes	Yes
U	No	Yes	No
U	Yes	Yes	Yes
S	Yes	Yes	No
U	Yes	Yes	No

Program Resources

Time Constraints

Adequate time to develop a program is always very important. If a program is rushed to achieve implementation by a certain date, problems can and do arise which hinder successful growth. During the interviews, the curriculum directors addressed the time required for the program planning process (Table 9). Seven of the curriculum

directors stated that they had an adequate amount of time to develop their program. One curriculum director stated, "I have been blessed through this. I had twenty-five percent release time each semester." In the end, three of those seven were unsuccessful in their initial attempt of accreditation. On the other hand, five responded that they needed additional time. Three of those five who needed extra assistance were unsuccessful. As an example, one curriculum director from a successful program stated,

> You and I both know there is always a right and wrong way to do things, but administrators –for example, when I was hired in '99 I wanted to begin work on the program immediately, but the university did not see the need to start right away until our president was in a meeting where other schools were working on theirs...and then six months later I am given the green light...where before I was wasting time. We had the basics of a good program but we didn't have the time or the resources to make it a great program and part of the reason was it is a work in progress but there was an extra year that I could have used to develop the coursework and all of our documents and forms...there is a mountain of paperwork that goes along with this stuff and so a lot of things we had to steal, borrow or beg to throw together to develop our own right off the bat and anytime you are using other models from other programs to design yours they don't work right and so we are just now getting to the point where we are feeling successful at what we are doing and teaching. That has been the frustrating side of it...I would say yes, I could have definitely used more time!

Another issue discussed by many curriculum directors was the need for "release time". One person stated that if they would have had to contend with a full load of teaching and clinicals while developing a proposal they would have needed much more time. Another curriculum director from an unsuccessful program stated that he "did not have enough time to design the program to make it great". A final problem relating to time was the pressure of competition. One institution was "under the gun" to complete and implement their program because other schools in the state were "stealing our students". This program was unsuccessful in their attempt to attain accreditation.

Another responded that having adequate time to develop a program came from "moving slowly toward our goals" and "making changes over time so the institution would not be bombarded at a rapid pace." Another factor relating to adequate time was the fact that several institutions split the full-time roles of curriculum director and head athletic trainer into two positions. This individual role relieves the curriculum director of duties specific to athletic training and allows them to focus their work on student trainer education.

Ultimately, an adequate or inadequate amount of time did not impact the success of these programs. However, the successful curriculum directors in this study stated by not feeling "rushed" to develop the program and to be given enough "release time" to dedicate himself/herself to the project, there is a higher chance for success.

Resources

Adequate resources are also integral to the development of an educational program. Resources can range from facilities, funding, and faculty to expendable and non-expendable items. Each of the curriculum directors discussed resources used to develop their programs. Surprisingly, all twelve of the curriculum directors indicated that they had adequate resources or what they needed to develop their program (Table 9). It would be unusual to find a program with full support from their administration begging for resources to develop a successful program. Some common responses given by several curriculum directors were "I pretty much got anything I asked for." Others used the terms "generous", "wonderful administration" and "I received a line on the budget". Often, the curriculum directors spoke of adding additional faculty, remodeling or adding

new facilities, adding to the library and purchasing new equipment. One institution explained their contract with a local prison to build all new rehabilitation equipment after being supplied with only a minimal amount of material.

As a final point, resources played a very important role in the success of these programs. The JRC sets standards and guidelines to achieve accreditation and resources such as a sufficient number of faculty, competitive wages (funding) and adequate learning facilities are a fundamental part of fulfilling those standards and guidelines. Although all twelve curriculum directors agreed that they had enough resources to be successful, six of them still failed in some area leading toward accreditation. Therefore it is reasonable to say that resources alone will not guarantee successful accreditation; however, the curriculum directors agreed that they were definitely an important factor in achieving success.

Planning Committee

Program planning involves building a support team to assist in the development of a successful program. This support team, also known as committee, exists to map out the planning procedures of the specific program. These committees are formally called steering committees, advisory boards, coordinating committees, and planning committees (Caffarella, 1994). Cafarella argues that it is important to be selective when choosing members of the planning committee in order to have cohesion and the requisite expertise.

Each of the twelve curriculum directors were asked "Who were the members of the planning committee during the development of your curriculum?" Almost all of the universities had a planning committee of at least five members in addition to the

curriculum director. Most all of the committees encompassed the dean or chairperson of a specific department and several faculty members. One curriculum director suggested that her undergraduate dean was a "tremendous asset." "She had a real understanding of programs and the cost of running programs; you know athletic training doesn't make any money, she had a good understanding of program planning and how to fit athletic training into the university." Only five of the programs reviewed included their athletic director as a member of the committee. Half of the programs included someone from a university administration role to assist in the development and serve as a liaison between the president or provost and the official committee. This person also helped to direct the channels for developing and approving courses.

There were only a small number of committees that actually used the clientele (students) for the purpose of helping to design their program. Only three curriculum directors asked for the advice of student athletic trainers; each of the three curriculum directors were unsuccessful in their attempt of accreditation. One curriculum director stated, "I allowed a couple of my students to review the self-study and assist us with course content." Generally, the curriculum directors commented that "students did not belong in this type of a role." However, others found the students helpful in discussing course content, load and clinical experiences. In fact one curriculum director requested the students to "do lists, review books and look at the emergency equipment." While another director "allowed them (students) to have input to get them prepared for the exam."

As a CAAHEP standard, it is required to have the medical director or team physician on the program planning committee. Surprisingly, only ten of the twelve

programs solicited the help of their team physician or medical director to assist in program development. Two specifically described the physician/medical director as ad hoc members who were not required to be at all meetings and whose help was only requested when necessary. The two programs that did not solicit the assistance of their medical director were unsuccessful in their attempt at initial accreditation.

The members of each planning committee held various degrees from bachelors to doctorates. When asked about the program planning experience held by the committee members, the most common response was that the dean or department chair had experience in developing other programs. One curriculum director invited a faculty member from the area of Health Information Management. The curriculum director spoke of the faculty members CAAHEP experience and suggested, "that's why we had her." Specifically, seven curriculum directors referenced their dean or department head as having program planning experience. Eight of the twelve curriculum directors personally had previous experience or education in program planning. Most curriculum directors mentioned program planning courses during their doctoral work, whereas three also had experience in developing an athletic training education program at prior institutions. Ultimately, only three of the six curriculum directors that held a terminal degree and had program planning experience were successful in the initial attempt of accreditation. Therefore, one cannot say that education and experience along can lead toward successful program development.

Another question posed to the curriculum directors was "were there any other influential people that were not involved on the committee?" Eight mentioned having assistance from an administrative figurehead such as a dean, the athletic director or

someone from the president's office; all but two of them were successful. One of the successful curriculum directors described the genuine interest from his athletic director. He said, "she (the athletic director) was really involved in the process although she was outside her scope." Two individuals did not include their team physician or medical director on the program planning committee. However, in these instances the physician/medical director was used substantially in the planning of clinical education and student shadowing programs. Two curriculum directors stated that their colleagues were a vital part of the development of their program without being on their official planning committee; they were both successful in accreditation. One curriculum director mentioned some involvement from corporations in the community; he was successful. Finally, two individuals mentioned the student population. In program planning, the use the clientele in the development of a program is suggested. However, only two curriculum directors actually followed this procedure, and they were both unsuccessful. These curriculum directors felt it was crucial to have the input from their students to help guide the program and to discuss course order, workload and importance.

A planning committee is described in the literature as fundamentally important to the development of a successful program. Even more important is the strategic use and organization of that committee. Planning committees often have several members; all with varying degrees of employment. Most of the time "it can be hard to locate all of the members in one location" to hold formal meetings. In this research, curriculum directors were asked to describe the type of interaction among the planning committee during the development process. Responses from this question ranged from formal and informal meetings to phone conversations and email use. The most surprising result from this

question was that two curriculum directors responded with the answer, "I probably wrote ninety percent of the self-study so I didn't have a lot of interaction with the committee" and "we only met a couple of times, I pretty much wrote the self-study by myself". Six of the curriculum directors mentioned formal meetings occurring weekly and/or monthly. Two people stated they held informal meetings and one person preferred to meet one-on-one or "face-to-face" with committee members. To my amazement, only four curriculum directors mentioned the use of emails to communicate with their various committee members. Finally, almost all of the people interviewed referenced telephone conversations as a common form of interaction among the committee members.

Program planning theory suggests that having participants with diverse experiences will be helpful in leading to program planning success. Although most all of the committees had members with diverse backgrounds, not all programs were successful in accreditation. In fact, there were two curriculum directors that failed to meet the standards and guidelines required for accreditation by specifically failing having physician involvement on their planning committee. Ultimately the programs that were not successful may have failed for reasons relating to program committee errors, however, it is not likely that committee inaccuracies relating to program planning was the cause of failure.

PROGRAM PLANNING

As stated in the review of literature, program planning is a complex task that must take place to achieve the development or improvement of a program. The curriculum directors were asked to describe their program planning process relating to the steps, stages, decision points, components or clusters. Although many program planning models have similar elements, they also have several factors that influence the process which could ultimately end up with varying results. The following analysis describes the program planning methods used by the curriculum directors during the development of their athletic training education programs. Each program is examined and linked to an existing program planning model that has already been established by a theorist. The object of this analysis is to determine if there is one specific model that the curriculum directors used in the development of their programs or to reveal the use of various models to ultimately design their athletic training education program.

The question asked during the interview process was "can you please explain the steps you went through in developing your curriculum program." The curriculum directors were asked to describe the program planning process used to develop their programs with occasional prompts suggesting program ideas, needs assessment, development of goals and objectives course development and educational plans as well as evaluations plans.

Prior to exploring each program individually, there are some common themes that were observed during the analysis that should be mentioned. First, regardless of whether the curriculum director had experience in program planning, all of the programs followed similar program planning steps. All curriculum directors formed a program planning

committee to assist in the development of the program. Each also gained the needed support from administration prior to beginning the planning process. Most of them, in one way or another, did some form of needs assessment or feasibility study. All of them spoke of specific goals and objectives as well as an evaluation plan. Most importantly, several programs gave great detail to program analysis in the areas of course development, clinical development, course implementation and faculty involvement.

The first curriculum director interviewed was from a successful program. He spoke about taking their current internship and "moving it into a quality comprehensive curriculum program." The needs assessment they performed was simple, "we basically just asked each other (colleagues) what they thought." They felt it was important to "paint a picture to administration" of what was needed and the value of the program to the institution. They also had a difficult time convincing people that the program "wasn't just another HPER (Health, Physical Education and Recreation) degree and of its worth to the athletic department." This program set short term and long term goals based on student retention along with students graduating and passing the certification exam. The use of the JRC guideline was most important for their planning, "irregardless of what we thought we needed to be successful." The evaluation plan they developed was an assessment over a five year period. It was a common plan used by the university as a whole. It was defined as a "standard assessment plan and everyone uses it." Lastly, they found it hard to implement the evaluations stating they have "no time to apply the results".

The second program began their unsuccessful attempt at accreditation with coursework and instructional design. "You look at the competencies and you know what

needs to be designed, then you look at your program and note you don't have a course that has the content." Another important program planning issue was to decide what course would be taught by which faculty member and who was going to be involved with the clinical education. This program did not perform a needs assessment. "We did not see a point for it." They started with a vision and a mission statement and suggested "it is easier to get the course content and objectives of the individual courses to meet the objectives of the program than trying to do it the other way around." This was their justification for designing the courses first. Admittedly, the evaluation was the weakest area in their planning. At the time, they did not have a formal evaluation plan in place, however they were working toward one. "My goal is to write three questions on how I am going to run or assess my program over the next twelve months and then I will answer those questions." The outcome they were looking for was to track statistics on the program such as number of credit hours produced, student graduation rates and number of students that passed the certification exam. The curriculum director felt the way to measure or define a successful program was from graduation rates, placement rates and certification rates.

The third program was unsuccessful in its attempt at accreditation. The curriculum director "had basic ideas that I wanted to see the program do." Although this person had a strong committee comprised of administration, faculty, physicians and students, the plans "were all my ideas." This program did not perform a formal or thorough needs assessment, the committee "just went over the standards and guidelines and figured out what we needed and didn't have." This curriculum director's idea of developing goals and objectives was to "modify what others said about their goals and

objectives." The main focus for this individual was to define what courses needed to be taught and to gather staff and faculty to run the program. When asked about the program's evaluation, the curriculum director responded, "hated it; no one has time to do it and no one has time to make the changes that come from it." This program evaluation did, however, include students evaluating the program, faculty and clinicals, as well as the faculty and clinical coordinators evaluating the students. The theory of practice most eloquently stated from this particular curriculum director was "we learn from our mistakes." It seems as if they made a few.

The fourth program, also unsuccessful, started with the coursework evaluation along with an informal needs assessment. Further, the mission, goals and objectives were tied to the university's standard statement. This program did not have to perform any facility modifications. However, it did add faculty to the program. Futhermore, as they moved through the program planning process, they realized they needed further revision to the program. This program was forced to ask for an extension prior to the site visit to make further modifications and revisions to the coursework and faculty. Although they ultimately may not have been "doing a good job," the program evaluations completed by alumni reflected that the alumni were extremely happy with the program.

The fifth program was successful; it potentially had the most thorough program planning process of the entire group of curriculum programs involved in this study. This curriculum director clearly knew and understood program planning. During the entire process, the curriculum director continued to meet with the committee and departmental faculty. Meetings with attorneys were also conducted relating to the technical standards.

Step one of the process followed by this director was to define the medical director and the advisory board. The next step in the process involved the design of the courses based on a feasibility study. According to the curriculum director, implementing the coursework created a challenge because certain faculty were accustom to teaching at certain times of the day. The curriculum director did meet some resistance during the planning process. "Some faculty had to teach at different times than there were use to because the afternoon is clinical time." For example, the didactic courses could only be held during the morning or evening hours because clinical rotation courses were held in the afternoon. The clinical courses had a "very defined rhyme to its reason."

After finalizing the coursework issues, the next step in this program's process was to submit an application for candidacy. The mission, goals and objectives were developed during the candidacy application. The self-study was then finalized and submitted. Fortunately for this program, minimal work was required on the facilities as this institution had most of the equipment needed to start the program.

The program also had two types of evaluations: internal and external. The internal evaluations consisted of students evaluating the program, clinical instructors, and faculty and students writing reflective journals every three weeks. The students' performance in the classroom and in the clinical rotations was evaluated by the faculty and ACIs.

Program number six, also successful, was well developed and had a curriculum director with some program planning knowledge. This program began with a needs assessment to determine deficiencies. Those involved with developing the program also spoke with their students to determine students' needs that could be met by the program.

Several organizational meetings were held to create "energy and synergy." Standards and guidelines were used to make certain changes that were necessary to achieve accreditation. According to the curriculum director, the development of the vision statement and goals were done "by the seat of our pants." The first goal was simply to become accredited and those involved in development attempted to fit the program into their department, college and institution.

For course development, the program again referenced the standards and guidelines to determine where it was deficient and to verify that the program was teaching the proficiencies required by the JRC. Modifications to the program were in the form of coursework and faculty additions.

The evaluation process was very thorough and included alumni and employer surveys. The semester evaluations consisted of students evaluating the clinical sites, ACI's and professors, as well as the students being evaluated by the faculty and ACI's.

The seventh program, noted as successful, had a different approach to program planning. This curriculum director reviewed the standards and guidelines for accreditation and "wrote a quick response" to each of them. The results "quickly revealed our limitations." Next, the program designed the curriculum by developing and implementing the courses in academic affairs. The development of the goals came from the committee defining "who we were and how we fit into the state." University mission, goals and standards were also followed and there was no revision to facilities. Evaluations were both formal and informal.

As a group, the students and faculty worked closely with one another on a daily basis. Students consistently received informal feedback. Students were also formally

reviewed through tests and clinical actions. All of the evaluated information was reviewed by the curriculum director and implemented into the program.

The eighth program, designed around a timetable, was successful in its attempt at initial accreditation. An evaluation committee was responsible for designing a three year tier system that was created to get from point A to point B. However, in the end, the program ultimately took four years to develop and implement. The first year included the creation of the didactic courses and moving the courses through academic affairs. The second year was comprised of the development and implementation of clinical courses. In the third year, the program planned to accomplish "putting it all together." However, that process actually took two years.

The program did not perform a needs assessment as "we knew what we wanted." The mission, goals and objectives were considered to be a work in progress and, in fact, are still currently incomplete. The program was required to add staff and new equipment to the program, but no facility changes were necessary. They then began to examine the competencies and proficiencies needed for the coursework and appropriate changes were made. The most difficult part, claimed the curriculum director, was not putting the classes together but "getting them through the university system to create the class." An evaluation form was also created from "bits and pieces" of other forms that the program developers had seen in the past. This program evaluated students in the classroom and in the clinical setting each semester and performed exit interviews upon graduation.

The ninth program had minimal planning and ultimately was not successful. This program was planned to offer students a dual degree in athletic training and teacher education for the purpose of getting a job in the high school setting. As with other

programs, this program also began with course development and implementation. The next step of importance was to "get the faculty and staff on board" and to then find clinical settings to host the students. The mission was developed with the "grabbed pieces from here and there" theory. Over time, goals and objects were written.

The overall evaluation of the program was based on graduation and passing rates. There were also basic evaluations of students by faculty and clinical educators. Time constraints have made it difficult for those involved in the program to review completed evaluations and to implement changes called for to improve the program. The most productive program planning strategy that was brought to light in this interview was the implementation of mid-semester evaluations with students to discuss student placement and improvement before the end of the semester. "Having a mid-semester evaluation allows for the students to improve before the end of the semester. I usually meet with the students to change things."

The tenth program, also unsuccessful, attempted to duplicate or copycat programs developed by others. Regarding its development, the curriculum director stated: "I looked at other curriculums and the requirement of CAAHEP and the JRC, I looked at successful programs, I talked with colleagues; I did a lot of digging." This program also conducted a needs assessment; "a swat analysis".

As for the goals and objectives, the curriculum director stated, "I looked at the university, the college and the department. I also looked at other universities and talked with others about theirs; I looked at it globally and went from there." This director admitted to using courses that a neighboring university had developed and implemented.

Those involved in this program also "looked at a lot of universities to see what they taught."

Early in the development of this program, it was officially classified as a bachelor's degree and was approved by the state board of education. Additionally, this program did not have to make any facility changes and it was also believed that the institution had adequate resources and technology for the program to be successful. The program was marketed on a website, by word of mouth, brochures, and faculty and staff connections.

As with much of the program, the curriculum director's approach to evaluation was "why reinvent the wheel?" "There are so many evaluation forms out there; I looked globally to see what is being done in the field for evaluations. We ended up using our physical education evaluation because they are accredited." Most of the program evaluations were performed online. However, some are completed in paper form and some are completed in private meetings with the curriculum director and/or with the head athletic trainer. Graduating seniors are also required to participate in exit interviews.

The eleventh curriculum director interviewed was from a successful program. She also began with course and clinical development. This included getting the courses and clinicals approved in academic affairs, cataloguing them and writing the course syllabi. An important instructional strategy mentioned in this interview, was to make sure that the clinical competencies followed the necessary education course. "Order of a curriculum is big, a lot of people mess this up; sequencing was very important."

The needs assessment for this program "kind of happened during the self-study; when we were writing we found out – oh we need that." Development of the mission,

goals and objectives were a branch of the university's plans and are constantly being worked to improve goals and objectives. Facility changes were not necessary as the institution had separate classrooms for teaching and an independent lab area for clinicals. The program did, however, purchase new modalities and emergency care equipment.

Students participated in evaluation of teacher instruction both in the classroom and in the clinical setting. Results of the evaluations are discussed after each semester and changes implemented as necessary. Students in the program were evaluated by exams, papers and case studies. Students are also tested on competencies at least four times per semester in their clinical rotations and are required to participate in an exit interview near graduation. The curriculum director noted a weak point in the evaluation process as failing to send out employer surveys to follow up on students that have graduated from the program. "Our employer evaluations are probably the evaluation that we neglect to provide; we don't seem to send them out to the employers to follow up on how are students are doing."

The twelfth and final interview was with an unsuccessful program. The curriculum director that began as so many others did; "the first step would be to initially work on the courses." In the meantime, those developing the program were convincing the "higher ups" that they needed to make the program into a major making supervision an issue. Once the major was approved, they attempted to incorporate the major with others in the college to help share faculty and to supervise students. The program successfully completed that task and then recognized that it still needed an additional faculty member to assist with the course load. This new position was given the title of clinical coordinator.

The needs assessment was performed with the use of former students who suggested additional courses and prioritized content based upon their needs. The development of mission, goals and objectives was also completed at an early stage. The committee assisted in the development of these items and they established a five year plan to fulfill the aspirations. This program also performed a major renovation to the facility and also purchased a large amount of new equipment.

Evaluations performed with senior students provided needed feedback which was described as being most helpful to this program. Clinical and didactic course/clinical evaluations were also performed. "Our students are mainly evaluated in the clinical courses. They have a series of modules to complete and ultimately they have to check the module off in front of an ACI." Finally, students were also required to write journal entries on a weekly basis.

Table 10

SUCCESSFUL PROGRAM ACCREDITATION

Program Planning	Program 1	Program 5	Program 6	Program 7	Program 8	Program 11
Analyze client system	X	X	X	X	X	
Needs assessment	X		X			X
Mission, goals, objectives	X	X	X	X	X	X
Instructional plan	X	X	X	X	X	X
Administrative plan			X		X	X
Program evaluation	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 11

UNSUCCESSFUL PROGRAM ACCREDITATION

Program Planning	Program 2	Program 3	Program 4	Program 9	Program 10	Program 12
Analyze client system	X	X	X		X	X
Needs assessment					X	X
Mission, goals, objectives	X	X	X	X	X	X
Instructional plan	X	X	X	X	X	X
Administrative plan		X	X	X	X	X
Program evaluation	X	X	X	X	X	X

A breakdown of the program planning steps related to the twelve interviews is listed in Tables 10 and 11. They are divided into tables that represent interviews with curriculum directors that successfully achieved accreditation on the initial attempt and interviews with curriculum directors that were unsuccessful on the initial attempt. The tables exhibit a six step planning model developed by Sork and Cafarella (1990). This model was chosen because the stages are simple and generalizable to athletic training education. The steps are also broad enough to encompass data collected in this research.

Table 10 represents successful programs and the steps they used toward accreditation. All but one of the six curriculum directors interviewed performed an analysis on the client system, which in this research is interpreted as an analysis of the institutions current internship program. It was obvious that the program planning steps related to developing a mission, goals and objectives, formulating an instructional plan and program evaluation were important to all six successful program directors. Of less

importance were performing a needs assessment and formulating an administrative plan. Only three of the six curriculum directors performing these tasks.

Table 11 shows the program planning steps used by curriculum directors that were unsuccessful in program accreditation on the initial attempt. Similar to the successful curriculum directors, they too had full participation in the development of mission, goals and objectives, formulating instructional plans and program evaluation. In the steps of analyzing clients and formulating administrative plans, all but one of the curriculum directors interviewed performed these steps. The step most frequently skipped from the unsuccessful programs was the use of a needs assessment. Only two of the six curriculum directors actually performed a needs assessment.

In comparing the two tables of successful and unsuccessful programs there are several similarities. Both sets of curriculum directors agreed that the steps of client analysis, developing a mission, goals and objectives, formulating instructional plans and performing program evaluations were important in program planning. A difference was found in formulating an administrative plan. Five unsuccessful curriculum directors performed this step, whereas only three successful curriculum directors that carried out this step. The biggest surprise came from needs assessment. Only half of the entire group of curriculum directors performed this step. It is not evident by examining Tables 10 and 11 that differences between successful and unsuccessful program planning steps used in the development of a new curriculum program. It is obvious that some steps were more commonly used (analysis of client system, development of mission, goals and objectives, formulation of instructional and administrative plans and program

evaluations); however, it is not reasonable to say that the failure to use specific program planning steps caused failure in achieving successful accreditation.

In summary, question number one asked what the differences in the program planning process used by successful and unsuccessful athletic training education programs were. Results suggested there were differences in level of education, experience and expertise associated with the curriculum directors; however, they did not specifically affect the outcome of a successful program. Similarities were also found in institutional support and available resources. The main variables that discriminated between successful and unsuccessful programs were program planning committee diversity and involvement and the actual program planning process used by curriculum directors to develop their curriculum educational programs. The findings suggest that diversity of the planning committee and greater committee involvement will positively impact program success. This, however, was not the result from each interview as two of the committees had great involvement, yet still failed at accreditation. The curriculum directors that did achieve accreditation seemed to have a better understanding of program planning and were successful in tying the entire process together into one unique experience. Some of the curriculum directors give details regarding program planning such as "having organizational meetings to keep everyone involved" to "constantly reviewing the standards and guidelines to make sure that our program fit" and "using our evaluations to make our program better". Therefore, the main differences in the program planning process used by successful and unsuccessful programs was related to having a combination of committee diversity and involvement along with program planning and implementation.

Research Question Two: Program Planning Models Used

What are the differences in descriptions of the program planning process among curriculum directors, the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Program (CAAHEP), and the theory of program planning models?

The Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Programs (CAAHEP) is the accrediting agency for athletic training education programs. The Joint Review Committee on Educational Programs in Athletic Training (JRC-AT) serves as the accreditation review committee for the educational programs. CAAHEP in conjunction with the JRC-AT has developed a set of Standards and Guidelines for accrediting such programs. These standards and guidelines are regulations as to how a program must be established and must be fully complied with before achieving accreditation. The method in which institutions use to accomplish this task is 1) writing a self-study report and 2) hosting a site visitation for the JRC-AT team.

As reported by the JRC-AT, the self-study is the focus of the voluntary peer review system of accreditation. The process allows an institution to critically review a program's effectiveness related to its mission, identify specific strengths and deficiencies, and indicate a plan for necessary modifications and improvements (JRC-AT Self-Study Report). It is an evidential document that summarizes the methods and findings of the self-study process. The report must contain a statement of the purpose, a synopsis of relevant data, conclusions and future plans. The study is to be a cooperative effort by individuals with varied interests in educational program improvement, (i.e., institutional

administration, faculty, alumni, physicians, students, and clinical staff). The JRC-AT has generated a set of instructions and suggestions for developing a self-study report. This set of instructions is the JRC's program planning model for achieving an accredited athletic training education program. The model can be found in Appendix E. There are a few differences found in the JRC model as compared to traditional program planning models. The JRC model does not suggest a feasibility study or needs assessment. It also fails to put emphasis on program evaluation. Similarities to traditional program planning models include the use of a diverse planning committee and the use of a timetable to achieve deadlines.

The purpose of the site visit is to validate the Self-Study Report and evaluate the program's compliance with the Standards and Guidelines. The on-site evaluation includes a review of both the didactic and clinical aspects of the program. It is performed to ensure that the appropriate policies, procedures, processes and practices are implemented and complied with.

As for the classification of program planning models related to this research, I have found six theorists that have a commonality with the twelve programs that were analyzed. Most common from the naturalistic viewpoints are the works of Houle, Brookfield, Sork and Caffarella. From the classical viewpoint, the model from Boone is also evident. From the critical viewpoint, the work of Tisdell is evident in one of the programs. Although none of the program planning descriptions linked to this research are perfectly matched, several of the curriculum programs have similar characteristics found in each of them. The following table is a synopsis of what program planning model/theorist is associated with each of the 12 programs reviewed in this research.

Table 12

Model Association

Athletic Training Program	Model/Theorist
Institution 1	Houle and Brookfield
Institution 2	Houle
Institution 3	Houle and Sork & Cafarella
Institution 4	Houle
Institution 5	Houle, Brookfield
Institution 6	Houle, Brookfield, Sork & Cafarella
Institution 7	Houle, Brookfield
Institution 8	Houle, Boone
Institution 9	Houle
Institution 10	Houle, Brookfield
Institution 11	Houle, Brookfield, Tisdell
Institution 12	Houle, Sork & Cafarella

Naturalistic Viewpoint

The model developed by Houle is a common denominator found among all of the programs analyzed in this research. The reason that his model is present in all of these programs is the theory of "explaining the process one element at a time while presenting the logic that suggests a preferred sequence." Another reason is the fact that Houle suggests that program developers keep the process simple and base development on common sense. As these curriculum directors challenge themselves to develop successful programs, they described their program development one element at a time. It was a logical procedure to them, although not consistent with program planning methodology. They were not directly following the step by step procedures of Houle, but rationally presenting their programs one step at a time and using their common sense to achieve program accreditation.

Houle has a seven step model that consists of identifying needs, performing a feasibility study, defining objectives, designing a working format, explaining how it all "fits in their world," implementing the plan and measuring the results. This model, specific yet basic, is identifiable in each of the program planning interviews conducted of curriculum directors.

Brookfield's model of program planning is also commonly present in the program planning methods found in this research. The element commonly used from this model is its emphasis on learner participant experiences. He believes that when learners participate in program planning, they offer a collection of experiences to the program that may not be on the planning agenda. The diverse experience offered by adult learners, in turn, may facilitate a more productive learning environment. For example, there were three program directors that utilized their students on committees during the development of their programs. In the end, both of those programs happen to be unsuccessful in their attempt of achieving accreditation.

Sork and Cafarella are the final theorists from the naturalistic viewpoint that are commonly found in the data collected by this study. Their theory of program planning suggests that it is a complex task that rarely offers a linear pattern. Additionally, the planning stages of this theory usually defy logical sequence and, further, client participation is desirable but not essential for program success.

Classical Viewpoint

The classical viewpoint of program planning suggests ordered methodology to conceptualize and implement strategy. The classical model found in this study comes from Boone. Boone proposes an eight step program planning model that includes a

timetable element. The timetable is a listing of a specific sequence of events that will take place over a given period of time. This timetable method of program planning is found in the data collected during one of the interviews conducted in this research. Specifically, the curriculum director lays out a three year plan on how to get from point A to point B. She is specific as to what goals and objectives will be accomplished and what will be implemented in that period of time.

Critical Viewpoint

The critical viewpoint has a political basis; it is used to conquer social inequalities and to show a shift in power. The emphasis from the data that emerged in the critical viewpoint is from Tisdell. She argues that culture, gender and spirituality are factors that influence program planning. Because theoretical sampling was used to determine which program would be interviewed in a specific sequence, gender became a factor. As was noted earlier, several male curriculum directors had been interviewed in the early stages of the research. Thus, as the researcher, I chose to specifically interview a female curriculum director. The final statistic relating to male/female curriculum directors versus successful/unsuccessful program is a follows: Three males developed successful programs as did three female curriculum directors. However, four males developed unsuccessful programs while only two females were unsuccessful in their efforts. It is clear that gender is not an issue relating to program planning in this study.

Tisdell also suggests that spirituality has an emphasis on program planning. From the data collected, there was one curriculum director interview from an institution with a religious prominence. The curriculum director did not focus on the fact that they were spiritual, however, she stress the development of students into caring, professional adults.

She describes her educational program as serving a "unique need for students; we don't caudle our students, but we are pretty relational here." This emphasis on developing a student as a whole while maturing a "competent, caring, Christian athletic trainer" is a theme that directly relates to the critical viewpoint.

In summary, question number two asked, what are the differences in descriptions of the program planning process among curriculum directors, the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Program (CAAHEP), and the theory of program planning models? To begin with, CAAHEP has a set of standards and guidelines that must be follow to successfully achieve accreditation. The standards and guidelines do allow for flexibility during the program planning process; however all of them must be complied with upon completion. Using the standards and guidelines, the curriculum director has the liberty to organize, develop and implement their program as needed. Results of the interview questions associated with program planning procedures suggest that five program planning models are similar to the program planning procedures used by the curriculum directors. The majority of the models fit the naturalistic viewpoints and matched the writings of Houle, Brookfield, Sork and Cafarella. One model was associated with the works of Boone in the classical viewpoint and one was connected to Tisdell in the critical viewpoint. Although the athletic training curriculum models are not exact replicas of the program planning theorists, they do have many similarities. Overall, the naturalistic viewpoint emphasizes judgment, context and values in program planning, which is most commonly found in the results of the program planning procedures used by the athletic training educational program curriculum directors.

Research Question Three: Program Planning Model Success

How does the choice of program planning model contribute to the success of achieving accreditation?

Theory in Practice

Prior to answering question number three, it is important explore the curriculums' program planning process. Each curriculum director must make decisions about the steps used to plan their educational program. Their approach to planning represents their "theory in practice". Theories of professional practice are best understood as special cases of the theories of action that determine all deliberate behavior. Argyus and Schon defines theory in practice as "what I ought to do if I wish to achieve certain results" (Argyris & Schon, 1974, p.6) Their theory also consists of technical suppositions that suggest which techniques the practitioner will use in the substantive tasks of his/her practice along with interpersonal theories which suggest how the professional will interact with clients and others in the course of this development.

Theory in practice related to this research is associated with the curriculum directors and their theory on program planning. There is no evidence that a specific program planning model contributes to the success of achieving accreditation. Each curriculum director is given the freedom to develop and implement their own program, ultimately striving to achieve successful accreditation. Finally, theory of practice also suggests that professional competence requires development of one's own continuing

theory of practice which must consist of both technical and interpersonal theory if it is to be effective.

The following theory in practice variables were associated with program planning. The curriculum directors described their theory in practice in terms of the following variables: why should the university develop a curriculum education program; how do I develop a successful program; program context-what makes my program unique; program reflection-is there anything different I could have done to make my program more successful and is there one thing that actually led to the success of my program. Overall, these five variables relating to the curriculum directors theory in program planning practice shed additional light on what it took to develop a successful athletic training curriculum education program.

Why Develop a Program?

All programs must have a beginning. Usually it starts with a vision. Sometimes programs are developed from need, others from want and some may even be created for the sake of competition--with other programs in the state or region. As a researcher, I was interested in why institutions chose to develop an athletic training curriculum education program. This question was asked of the curriculum directors and the results were consistent. Several universities developed new programs for university retention. The curriculum directors from these universities suggest that the number of students in the program will help the number of students at the university as a whole. One curriculum director stated, "We are real big on institutional retention. At the time we had roughly 18-24 students and when they look at that is 20 students that won't come here; I

thin that is a real big reason. The curriculum directors also mentioned the problem of losing students to other universities. One suggested developing a program "mainly out of fear." "The concern was if we didn't develop something, eventually all of the students would go away."

A few institutions developed programs for the sake of using student athletic trainers in a "service" position. Unfortunately, some programs are using the students to perform the "grunt work" related to athletic training such as preparing water coolers and stocking supplies. By eliminating those tasks the certified athletic trainer can focus on the care and attention given to the student-athletes, thereby allowing them to "be more efficient and effective in the field." Most of the programs were created because of the rich history that the university had from producing certified athletic trainers. Two institutions had hall of fame alumni with good reputations and several of them had a strong internship program that they did not want eliminated. One curriculum director talked about having a passion for the field and because another major institution in the state had a program, "why can't we?" She also mentioned we have all of the resources in place along with the "academic prestige to house a program." A final reason why some universities chose to develop a curriculum program is because administration decided it would be a beneficial program to add as an educational degree. They thought it would be a "good way to join the program with athletics." Also, one institution's head athletic trainer was promoted to the athletic director and it was under his suggestion and supervision that the program was developed.

In summary, there were six successful programs that achieved accreditation and six unsuccessful. The curriculum directors listed the following reasons why they wanted

to develop an undergraduate athletic training curriculum program. They included: rich history with alumni support, a unique niche, a service component, a strong internship program, student retention and competition among other institutions within the state for athletic training students. The successful programs from this research seem to be driven to program development from variables such as strength of internship and having a unique niche. On the other hand, the unsuccessful programs could be developing their programs for selfish reasons such as student retention, competition with other institutions and using the students in a service component. Overall, the suggestions as to why the educational programs were developed are not the only factors that led toward success or failure; however, they may have been one additional contributing factor.

How Do I Develop A Successful Program?

Each of the twelve curriculum directors was asked to describe a theory in practice for developing a successful program. The analysis revealed several common themes including: formal training, proper program planning, stakeholder concurrence and student attentiveness.

Five curriculum directors attended a professional workshop that educated curriculum directors on how to develop an athletic training education program and move a program from candidacy to accreditation. These curriculum directors were instructed by the JRC that candidacy was defined as "here is what we intend to do". Accreditation, however, was defined as "here is what we have done--is it good enough?"

Four of the twelve curriculum directors indicate that some form of program planning practice would help them to develop a successful program. They suggested that

by successfully meeting the JRC standards, reviewing other successful programs and by networking with colleagues, they would eventually achieve an accredited program. Several curriculum directors mentioned the fact that they had examined other programs to determine what made them successful, often asking specific questions of "why or why not." One curriculum director spoke of modeling their program after another reputable program. However, this same person went on to state, "you can't take another program and put it into your school, it just doesn't fit that way; but you can get some great ideas from other schools." Finally, a few of the curriculum directors mentioned the importance of successfully interpreting and fulfilling the standards and guidelines set forth by the JRC.

Four of the twelve curriculum directors discussed the importance of stakeholder collaboration to be successful. One of the interviewees was adamant about having support both internally and externally (within the institution and in the community). He brought all of his stakeholders (athletic department, university administration, student population, community and corporations) together to present his strategic plan for developing and overseeing the educational program. His "sell before I tell" mentality is what he believed would gain him the components he would need to be successful in his program. Others wanted cohesion and full support from all stakeholders. These curriculum directors wanted to ensure that everyone would "buy into the program". This key to success, they believed, would give them all of the resources they would need to be triumphant and then "everyone would be considered a stakeholder."

Finally, two curriculum directors discussed the importance of student success in reference to program success. Both of them discussed employing faculty members that

are both educators and clinicians. They suggest that a person is a more effective educator if they have athletic training experience in both the classroom and in the practical setting performing athletic training skills. One of them stated, "I think programs that fail are when you strictly have an athletic department that doesn't teach and an academic department that is not in the training room." By allowing students to see their mentors in a dual role, the students would hopefully develop a passion for the profession. Overall, students need to be well-rounded. "They may be educated one way, however, when put into the real world, in a real situation, may deliver skills in a different manner." Therefore, by offering a good balance of education and clinical assignment in an accredited program, these curriculum educated students are given what they need to achieve their professional goals.

There were two curriculum directors that were successful in their accreditation who believe formal program planning education was important to their success. Two other curriculum directors mentioned networking. They were also successful in their attempt at initial accreditation. On the other hand, there were several curriculum directors that were unsuccessful in accreditation. They claimed the method that brought them success was to develop a program through stakeholder cohesion. Whether it is successfully carried out toward accreditation is the responsibility of the entire program planning committee.

Program Context

Program planning pertains to developing a program by using certain steps or stages that lead to a specific model. However, prior to developing a successful program,

the program must have a proper place or reason for being. The program does not only have to fit the institution, but the program's context must be useful to the stakeholders as well. During the interview process, curriculum directors were asked to define their programs unique characteristic, context or niche. The results suggested that the most common, unique characteristic mentioned by program planners, was the staff. Some of the curriculum directors mention "I couldn't have done this without my staff" or "I had a great staff to assist me with this process." One curriculum director even praised her administration and suggested that "the students even see the support". Having a knowledgeable and diverse staff with good faculty/student ratio and a caring administration was declared as having been important during eight interviews.

There were two other issues relating to staff that were unique. The first was the fact that one curriculum director stated that his position and the clinical coordinator position were interchangeable and that each could perform the other job. The other issue was interaction between the curriculum director and the head athletic trainer. This issue is suggested as being atypical because it is common that these two people do not see eye to eye, as one curriculum director explained below.

> You might find a lot of programs, as I have noticed where the curriculum director and the head athletic trainer don't get along. This is because the curriculum director is only required to teach the student athletic trainers, whereas the head athletic trainer is required to interact with student athletic trainer along with student athletes. Also, curriculum directors don't have to travel or sometimes work the hours that head athletic trainers do.

Therefore, the suggestion of positive interaction among staff and faculty members is very important to a program's well-being.

Another unique characteristic mentioned by several curriculum directors, is the setting in which their program was located. Three of them specifically mentioned the fact that they were a large nationally recognized institution in the area of athletics and their belief that it was important for student athletic trainers to obtain experience as a professional in this type of environment. One curriculum director stated, "I don't want to sound arrogant, but our atmosphere makes us special. We have 78,000 fans on game day; there are probably only 10-15 places in the country like us." However, the fact that they are a large university with a well respected athletic program had no impact on the success of their athletic training education program. Two of the three were unsuccessful in accreditation. On the other hand, two curriculum directors discussed the fact they worked for small universities where student athletic trainers had the opportunity to work a variety of sports (both high risk and low risk), in a close, family-type setting. They suggested that "everyone works well together and that everyone is close." These curriculum directors indicated their belief that this intimate setting was beneficial to the development and maturation of a student athletic trainer. They also believed that this environment was a positive niche for them to market their programs when recruiting students. One program was successful, while the other was not.

The history of a program is another unique characteristic discussed by curriculum directors. The consistency of a program that has been around for many years (as an internship) and the reputation of having a strong educational institution is vitally important in recruiting quality students. One curriculum director discussed the fact that their program has "for many years been tied to very strong athletic program, which is tied to strong academics which in turn associated our good athletic trainers with a good

program." Other common answers for defining a program's unique characteristics included: strong area of technology, top-notch facilities and equipment, continuity of education, diverse clinical experience and great support from the alumni.

In the long run, a program's success is not going to be achieved solely for the unique characteristics it has to offer student athletic trainers. There are some programs that know their strengths and are capable of marketing their program to attract students. However, there are other programs with weak program context that simply tried to replicate other programs to achieve success. Programs may be more inviting to students for the reasons of: a knowledgeable, diverse staff; having a unique athletic environment in which to learn athletic training skills; or attending a program that has a rich tradition for the student to become a part of. All of these variables that lead to unique program context will be widely used in the marketing of a successful athletic training education program.

Reflection of the Program Planning Process

Each of the interviews concluded with two questions that allowed the curriculum director to reflect on the development of their athletic training education program. The first question was "is there anything you would have done differently while moving your program through the accreditation process?" The second question asked the curriculum directors if they could contribute the success of their program to any one specific matter.

Responses to the initial question were surprisingly similar. Although none of the responses would have led directly to success or failure, they are the perceptions as to what could have made the program more viable. The most popular modification that

curriculum directors suggested was to be more prepared when it came to the self-study. Three individuals stated that they wished they would have spent more time developing and writing the study. Two other individuals stated that they would have spent more time preparing to discuss the study. One curriculum director indicated that there was a need to be more informed in regard to explaining the clinical rotations and defining their procedures of learning over time. Several of the curriculum directors would have hired additional staff members earlier in the process. One would have utilized the committee a little more during the self-study. He stated, "I felt as if I should have used the committee a bit more, we should have met more often." A final person desired more release time to work on the curriculum suggesting that "the curriculum director should be a full time position, not 50-50 with athletics."

Finally, four individuals mentioned the use of an external consultant. Three of them made reference to being satisfied with the use of a consultant and were happy the consultants helped them to prepare for the self-study. One curriculum director suggested that the external consultant was the "key to our success." Another curriculum director was very disappointed that the services of a consultant were not used and, to this day, still regrets his decision. He stated, he would "like to have someone explain how the whole process worked, to know what the cite visitor wanted, and to have someone interpret the standards." In the end, there were four directors that were completely satisfied with their results and did not express the desire to make any change throughout the accreditation process.

The final question posed to each of the curriculum directors during the interview process was "can you attribute the success of your program to any one matter?" An

overwhelming number of curriculum directors responded with generally the same answer. Seven individuals mentioned having a wonderful staff to work with and/or an excellent support system in the staff and/or administration. Specifically, one curriculum director praised her department head, she claimed, "she makes me work hard." Two of the curriculum directors suggested communication led to their success. One of them stated, "I think communication is the only way to achieve success. From communication skills to the way you handle meetings and the way you request thing, it makes things better." One other director mentioned perseverance. "There are many times," she suggested, "I asked what we are doing here." Finally, one curriculum director attributed success to their experience in both the academic and athletic settings, while the final reason for obtaining success stemmed from being at an exceptional university and having a program with outstanding students. These theories in practice pertaining to the athletic training curriculums were mostly likely a minute part of what led to a successful program. Nevertheless, they are helpful suggests for other curriculum directors that will be going through the program planning process of developing an athletic training curriculum education program in the future.

In summary, question number three asks how the choice of program planning model contributes to the success of achieving accreditation. Each of the twelve curriculum directors used their own theory in practice to develop their athletic training education program. It was common to find bits and pieces of various program planning models used throughout their planning process. The six curriculum directors that were successful in their initial accreditation gave examples of at least two or more program planning theorists. The six curriculum directors that were not successful in initial

accreditation were not as diverse in the use of program planning models. It was common to find only one theorist among the descriptions of their programs.

The naturalistic viewpoint was most commonly found among the twelve program planning descriptions. It offers the curriculum directors program planning flexibility to make the best decisions appropriate for developing their curriculum. The classical and critical viewpoints were only evident in two of the planning processes. The classical viewpoint requires a more ordered and structured program planning methodology, whereas, the critical viewpoint emphasized political and ethical issues associated with program planning.

Finally, the step that was most commonly skipped or missed during the program planning process described in this research was the feasibility study and/or needs assessment. It was evident that most curriculum directors focused on course development as an early step in program planning and therefore often skipped the assessment step.

ACCREDITATION ATTEMPT: SUCCESSFUL OR UNSUCCESSFUL

Success is something that can be discussed for hours; everyone wants to talk about it. Failure, on the other hand, often has limited face time with a long shelf life! When the subjects were asked if their programs received full accreditation on the initial attempt, I sensed an increase in blood pressure from a few curriculum directors. On the initial accreditation attempt, statistics for the data include six successful and six unsuccessful program accreditations.

Of the successful programs, each had somewhere between two and five recommendations, e.g., "suggestions for change" made by the site visitors. Citations, on the other hand, are referred to as "errors requiring change." There were six programs that did not receive accreditation on the initial attempt and each acquired multiple citations and recommendations. The worst case was one program receiving 22 citations. This particular program wrote a rejoinder document (a re-submission of the self-study) that was 946 pages.

Additionally, of the six unsuccessful programs, two made the determination that they should withdraw their self-studies to make changes or modifications prior to the site visitor's evaluation. This resulted in each of these programs adding an additional year to the length of time needed to complete writing the self-study.

Although failure is not commonly discussed in program planning, it was explored during this research to determine some of the problems associated with program failure. For a list of failures related to the athletic training curriculum programs in this research see Appendix F. Although it may be impossible to progress through a review without

any citations or recommendations, learning from the mistakes of others certainly gives future curriculum directors a better opportunity for success.

Additionally, there are two other options, as suggested by curriculum directors in the interview process, to increase a curriculum director's chances for success. The first option is to hire an external consultant to assist in the program development process. The second option is to locate a program that has already achieved accreditation and request that the successful curriculum director mentor you through the process.

SUMMARY OF THEMES AND VARIABLES

In summary, twelve curriculum directors were interviewed to determine their method of program planning in the development of an athletic training curriculum education program. Various questions relating to program demographics, program planning and accreditation were asked to determine if a program was successful in the accreditation process. The following themes emerged from the data and are summarized as follows:

Program Planning Experience: Of the eight curriculum directors that had program planning experience only four were successful in accreditation of their program. Therefore, the research shows that having experience in the field of program planning does not automatically lead to the development of a successful program.

Time: Results indicated that the length of time to develop a program or write a self-study was not a factor impacting program success. However, if a program director is not feeling "rushed" to develop the program and is given enough "release time" to dedicate himself/herself to the project, there is a higher chance for success. Also, the requirement associated with the curriculum director being a split position from the head athletic trainer allows the curriculum director more time to focus on educational endeavors.

External Support: Overall, most all programs had complete support from both their university president and their athletic director; however, it is not evident that support alone will ultimately lead to developing a successful program.

External Consultant: An external consultant "should" be an expert in their field and "should" be able to give feedback that could lead to successful accreditation. It appears from the research that the two curriculum directors that did use an external consultant and did not receive accreditation on the initial attempt waited too long in the hiring process. If they would have asked the consultant to review their self-study prior to submission, they may not have had to write a rejoinder. Ultimately, timing is the important issue associated with hiring an external consultant. Waiting too long into the process can negatively affect the outcome of accreditation.

Resources: Resources play a very important role in the success of a new program. The JRC sets standards and guidelines to achieve accreditation and resources such as a sufficient number of faculty, competitive wages (funding) and adequate learning facilities are a fundamental part of fulfilling those standards and guidelines. Although all twelve curriculum directors agreed that they had enough resources to be successful, six of them still failed in some area leading toward accreditation. Therefore it is reasonable to say that resources alone will not guarantee successful accreditation; however, they are definitely needed to develop a success program.

Program Planning Committee: Program planning theory suggests that having participants with diverse experiences will be helpful in leading to program planning success. Although most all of the committees had members with diverse backgrounds, not all programs were successful in accreditation. In fact, there were two curriculum directors

that failed to meet the standards and guidelines required for accreditation by specifically failing having physician involvement on their planning committee. That was a direct result of failure to follow the standards. Ultimately the programs that were not successful may have failed for reasons relating to program committee errors, however, it is not likely that committee inaccuracies relating to program planning is the final reason for failure.

Why Develop A Program: Six unsuccessful programs listed the following reasons why they wanted to develop an undergraduate athletic training curriculum program. They included: a service component, student retention and university competition. On the other hand, the six successful curriculum directors mentioned factors such as strong internships, a rich history and a unique niche as reasons why their universities were interested in developing a new program. Ultimately, these variables are not the only reasons for success or failure; however, they may have been a contributing factor.

How Do I Develop A Successful Program: Four of the eight curriculum directors that mentioned formal educational training and proper program planning were unsuccessful in their attempt at accreditation leaving the question as to what they thought would make them successful and the fact that there were not successful gives something further to research. The other two curriculum directors that were unsuccessful in accreditation claimed the method in which they would develop a successful program would be through stakeholder cohesion.

Program Context: A program's success is not going to be achieved solely for the unique characteristics it has to offer student athletic trainers. However, the program may be more inviting to students for the reasons of: a knowledgeable, diverse staff; having a unique athletic environment in which to learn athletic training skills; or attending a program that has a rich tradition for the student to become a part of. All of these variables that lead to program uniqueness will be widely used in the marketing of a successful athletic training education program.

Program Reflection: When the program directors were asked to reflect on their program development process and to determine if there is something that they would have changed throughout the process; four common themes were preparation, staffing, committee involvement and consultants. The most common factor cited was the curriculum director's desire to be more prepared, particularly in the development of the self-study. Suggestions included needing to spend more time developing and writing or preparing to discuss it during the site visit. Other curriculum directors would have hired additional staff earlier in the development process, while others expressed an interest in utilizing their program planning committee more. Finally, several curriculum directors would have used an external consultant to assist them develop a successful program.

Foundation of Program Success: It is hard to suggest that a program was successful based on one specific reason, but it is helpful to know what curriculum directors believed made them successful. There were six variables that curriculum directors attributed their success to, they include: a wonderful staff and excellent support system; good

communication; perseverance; personal experience in both the academic and athletic settings; and having an exceptional university and outstanding students.

Chapter Five will set forth the conclusions drawn as to whether or not the use of program planning models were useful during the development, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum athletic training education programs. It will also answer the three research questions defined in Chapter One. Chapter Five will also give further recommendations for additional research in program planning for the field of athletic training.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATAION

Pre-professional programs are designed to produce competent professionals. As the field of athletic training continues to grow there is a significant need for new programs. The problem with these new educational programs is that some of them are failing to succeed in program accreditation. The objective is to increase the success rate of these programs by focusing on the development or program planning process used to develop them. Research suggests that program planning models lead to program success. The purpose of this research was to identify program planning variables that distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs, as well as to assess the role of program planning theory in the development of successful programs.

Discussion

Twelve program directors with varying educational degrees and employed at various sized institutions were interviewed about the program planning process used for the development of their athletic training curriculum education programs. The program directors took from two to eight years to completely accredit their educational programs and somewhere between three months and three years to write their self-studies.

Ten of the twelve program directors had support from their athletic director in the development of their program and eight of the twelve had gained the support of their university president. Seven of twelve stated they had enough time to complete their program successfully and all twelve agreed they had the resources they needed to

complete their project. However, seven of the twelve curriculum directors interviewed indicated that they wished they had additional help throughout the entire process.

Only five of the curriculum directors hired an external consultant to assist with the development of their programs. Three of these five were successful in the accreditation of their programs on the initial attempt. On the other hand, three of the seven program directors that did not use an external consultant were successful on the initial attempt. The other four program directors that did not receive accreditation on the first attempt expressed regret in not soliciting the help of an external consultant and indicated that they would hire one in the future.

All curriculum directors interviewed believed an external consultant is an important variable in successful program development. The timing however, may be a critical factor. The advantage to hiring a consultant prior to writing the self-study is better interpretation of the standards and not having to re-write or make significant changes to the self study. Whereas the advantage to hiring a consultant after the self-study has been written, is that the program, if established correctly, is complete and the consultant will help to tie up loose ends and assist with mock interviews to prepare for the accreditation process.

The research suggests that it is important to hire an external consultant that has experience in program planning and particularly one that may have previously been a site visitor. A consultant with this type of knowledge and experience will suggest critical information that a program director may have overlooked. Ultimately, the information provided may prove vital to the success of developing a curriculum that achieves accreditation on the initial attempt. If the curriculum director cannot identify a person to

act as an external consultant, the JRC can provide a list of several individuals that will be willing to assist in program development.

It is important to know when you need additional help in completing a task. It is a common theory of practice to complete a task by yourself and to know and believe that it is done correctly. Unfortunately, if more of the curriculum directors would have hired an external consultant or requested additional help during the program planning process, they felt they would have achieved more successful outcomes.

Resources are a major program planning issue and can have a very broad definition. The program directors were asked specifically regarding the three "F's" of resources (facilities, faculty and funding). All twelve responded affirmatively that they had adequate resources to complete the accreditation process. However, six of the twelve programs were unsuccessful in their accreditation process. Nevertheless, it should be noted that if time is classified as a resource, five of the twelve curriculum directors stated that they needed more time to develop their program. Of those five, three were unsuccessful in their attempt.

Although each of the curriculum directors had a program planning committee to assist in the development of their programs, seven of the twelve indicated they would like to have had additional help during the developmental phase. Of those seven who stated that they needed additional help, three were unsuccessful in the development of their programs.

Program development was initiated for many reasons. Those reasons include student retention, using student trainers in service positions, program history, competition

throughout the state and because all the classes were in place from the internship program.

Upon approval from the administration to go ahead with the development of a new program, the first question for most curriculum directors was: "were do I start and how do I develop a successful program?" Successful development had multiple themes that emerged from the program directors: (1) stakeholder concurrence; (2) student attentiveness; (3) formal program planning education and (4) useful program planning. Eight of the twelve program directors suggested that program planning and program planning education was important, while four discussed the importance of stakeholder collaboration. Two of the program directors indicated their belief that having successful students would lead to program success. In the end, four of the six programs that were unsuccessful in their attempt for initial accreditation suggested that program organization and development was a factor that was missing in their process.

Many of the program directors relied on their program development committee to guide them through a successful accreditation process. Almost all of the program committees consisted of at least five members and either a dean or a departmental chairperson. The impact of committee involvement associated with program success is very important. The role of the committee is to offer their expertise by assisting the curriculum director in developing the program. Also, the more diversity there is within the committee, the more proficiencies will be encompassed throughout the program planning process. Both committee involvement and committee diversity are key elements for achieving program success.

Program planning theory also suggested the use of clientele in the development of a program. Only three program directors utilized the advice of their students and ultimately each of them were unsuccessful in their attempt at accreditation. Besides the use of students, ten program directors solicited help from their team physician or medical director. The two programs that did not utilize team physicians were reprimanded during their site visit for not following JRC standards which require the use of team physicians in the developmental process. Although this was a failure to follow standards and not necessarily a program planning error, if the curriculum directors would have utilized an external consultant, the error may have been caught.

The method of program planning used by the curriculum directors was the main focus of this research study. Each program director was asked to explain the program planning process they had used in the development of their athletic training education program. As the researcher, I evaluated the steps/stages that each program director discussed and matched them to a program planning method/theory that has previously been established in program planning research. Results of the research indicated the most common program planning models applied were those represented by the works of Houle, Brookfield, Sork and Caffarella. These theories suggest stepwise development that is not linear. Rather, the process is interactive and allows educators to make the best decisions in complex situations by choosing different alternatives in program development.

Houle's model of program planning was commonly found in the twelve programs described in the research. Not only because his model suggests that program developers keep things simple and base development on common sense, but because Houle suggests

that program planning should be presented in a logical and preferred sequence appropriate to the context. The use of this model in these programs is clearly indicated by the fact that eight of the twelve curriculum directors began their program planning process with course development and course sequencing as apposed to assessing the program needs.

Brookfield's model was found in six of the twelve programs. His method emphasizes participant involvement and theorizes that when adults participate in program planning, they offer a collection of experiences that may not be on the planning agenda. This is found in the diverse experiences given by various members of the program planning committee. Their background and experiences allowed them to offer their own personal knowledge to assist with the development of a program.

The final model from the naturalistic viewpoint is from Sork and Cafarella. Their model suggests that program planning is rarely found in a linear pattern and that client participation is desirable. This model was found in three of the twelve program planning methods described by the athletic training curriculum directors.

The classical viewpoint suggests that program planning has ordered method of conceptualizing and implementing strategy. Boone has an eight step model that is strongly tied to a timetable. Only one program director utilized a timetable in the program planning process and she was successful in the initial accreditation of their program.

Finally, there are three themes that emerged from the critical viewpoint. Tisdell asserts that culture, gender and spirituality are factors that influence program planning. As for the gender issue associated with program planning and this research, seven

program directors were male and five were female. Four of the seven males were unsuccessful in the initial attempt for accreditation. Two of the five females were initially unsuccessful. It is apparent that the gender of a curriculum director does not have a direct influence on the success of an athletic training education program.

Another facet of Tisdell's theory is spirituality. Due to the fact that one of the institutions chosen for this research has a religious emphasis; this program focused on the personal development as well as education preparation. This particular program was successful in its attempt for accreditation.

Lastly, the entire emphasis of the critical viewpoint is based on "political planning." It is used to conquer social inequities and shifting power issues. It is suggested that the educational movement set in motion by the National Athletic Trainers' Association to improve the standards of education among our professionals, was entirely based on the critical viewpoint. Is there social inequality in our profession as compared to others in the field of allied health education? Clearly, the NATA believes there is some sort of educational discrepancy or gap that must be filled by "professionalizing" the curriculum. If there is inconsistency in the profession of athletic training compared to other allied health education programs, it is of utmost importance that we achieve parity to continue to prepare competent professionals, guard against fraudulent and unethical practices and continue to meet societal demand for qualified practitioners in a professional field of practice.

Another factor related to program planning is ensuring that your program has a niche or a quality that makes it unique. Eight of the program directors that were interviewed suggested that having a knowledgeable and diverse staff with good

faculty/student ratios is the factor that made their program most unique. Other issues relating to program niche include faculty members with interchangeable positions, positive interactions among staff members, program history and the unique setting in which the program is housed (whether is be the size of the institution or the department where it is located).

As emphasized in this research, proper program planning procedures related to athletic training education programs will lead to one of two results: successful accreditation or unsuccessful accreditation. Of the twelve curriculum directors interviewed during this research, six achieved successful accreditation on the initial attempt and six were initially unsuccessful. Although planning helped guide programs toward accreditation, ultimately, program citations for not achieving all standards and guidelines is what determined final accreditation. However, this study explained the concept that citations or deficiencies could be eliminated with proper program planning methodology. A list of all program deficiencies is located in Appendix F. It is hoped that future curriculum directors will review this research, understand the importance of program planning and learn from the mistakes of others by avoiding the citations that are listed.

Once a program is implemented it is easy to look back and determine what was missed. Hindsight being twenty-twenty, the question was asked "is there anything you would have done differently while moving your program through the accreditation process?" The most common answer to this question was to be more prepared in relationship to the self-study. The other common response to this question was to

implement the use of an external consultant, with several of them regretting the decision to forgo the outside assistance.

Lastly, the program directors were asked if they could contribute their success to any one factor. Even though most of the curriculum directors agree on what make them successful (having a wonderful staff and/or administration) only three of the seven accomplished the result of being successful. The curriculum directors that did achieve success believed that the support from their administration and effective communication was a major factor in their attempt for accreditation.

Summary of Research Questions:

What are the differences in the planning process used by successful and unsuccessful athletic training education programs?

Several important themes emerged with respect to the planning process including: 1) diversity of the planning committee; 2) involvement of the planning committee; 3) development of the program specific to the needs of the institution; 4) thorough program planning; and 5) the utilization of an external consultant. One single theme did not distinguish successful program planning from unsuccessful programs. However, the research suggests that athletic training programs that used a combination of the factors tended to be successful.

What are the differences in descriptions of the program planning process among curriculum directors, the Commission on Accreditation of Allied Health Education Program (CAAHEP), and the theory of program planning models?

There are some differences and many similarities between the program planning process used by the athletic training curriculum education directors, the suggested planning model developed by CAAHEP and the theorists that developed the historical program planning models. First, all of the program directors formed a planning committee to assist in the developmental process. That is a common practice found in all three program planning descriptions. Each of them also gained the needed support from their administration prior to beginning. All of them discussed specific goals and objectives and gave a detailed description of their evaluation plan. Additionally, most all of them performed a feasibility study or a needs assessment. Most importantly, many program directors discussed in detail their process of program analysis. They thoroughly reviewed course development, clinical development, course implementation and faculty involvement. All of these planning steps are similar to the models developed by program planning theorists

However, there are differences between the models used and the CAAHEP model. The CAAHEP model does not emphasize a needs assessment, feasibility study or thorough program evaluation. The CAAHEP model also does not emphasize the order in which program planning is performed (sequencing) and the experience one has in program planning.

Another difference in program planning found among theorists, the CAAHEP model and the athletic training curriculum directors is the emphasis and importance of program evaluation. Program planning models emphasize the significance of evaluation throughout the entire program planning process. Constant evaluation of program procedures, goals, instructional plans, budgets, staff needs, marketing strategies and resources is suggested in formal program planning. In contrast, when the question of evaluation was posed to the athletic training curriculum directors, the response is mainly directed toward student evaluation including student passing rates and graduation rates.

Program planning sequence is another major discrepancy between theorists, athletic training curriculum directors and CAAHEP models. Eight of the twelve curriculum directors began their program planning process with course development and course implementation. Although some theorists believe that linearization is not important in program planning, there are some things such as gaining program approval, budgeting issues and committee development that must be performed first. Program directors cited the need to seek out courses to be developed and the length of time it takes to move a new class through the academic affairs process for new course development as factors that necessitate performing these steps first.

This research also suggests some similarities in program planning found among the theorists, curriculum directors and the CAAHEP model. One is related to Houle's theory on program development and "fit" and the other is associated with Brookfield's model of participant involvement.

Houle's theory suggests that educational design is a complex task of explaining the process one element at a time while presenting the logic that suggests a preferred

sequence. Houle also theorizes that program planning should be more descriptive than prescriptive. Finally, Houle believes that planning should be based on common sense, kept simple and performed to achieve a single goal. This program planning model is easily identified in each of the twelve models described by the program directors interviewed. Because their knowledge of program planning is not vast, it is inevitable that their process was based on common sense and directed toward one common goal -- to achieve program accreditation. This theory of common sense also has a direct tie to Argyris' theory of practice suggests that a practitioner will use his/her practice along with interpersonal theories to interact with clients and others in the course of program development. In this regard, the ultimate conclusion to be drawn is that athletic training curriculum directors are using their personal knowledge and experiences and doing what they think is best in the development of their own programs.

Finally, Brookfield's theory of program planning suggests that when adults participate in program planning, they offer a collection of experiences to the program that may not be on the planning agenda. Those diverse experiences, in turn, may facilitate a more productive environment. For example, in this research, many program directors bragged about the diversity and experiences of their program planning committee members. It was suggested by many program directors that their department chairperson or dean held most of the program planning experience throughout the process. This being true, the experiences that each program committee member brought to the table strengthened the program planning experience.

How does the choice of program planning model contribute to the success of achieving accreditation?

At the beginning of this research, the question pertaining to how the choice of program planning model contributed to achieving successful accreditation, seemed appropriate. After all, the purpose of this research was to identify factors that distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs. However, the program directors in this study did not actually follow a specific program planning model in the development of their program. Some curriculum directors did perform various steps or stages related to program planning that led to their success. On the other hand, many of the program directors eliminated various steps or stages that may have led to their program failure. It is not clear that the elimination of one or two steps in the planning process will cause programs to fail. However, there is a strong indication that there is a greater chance for program success if all program planning steps are followed.

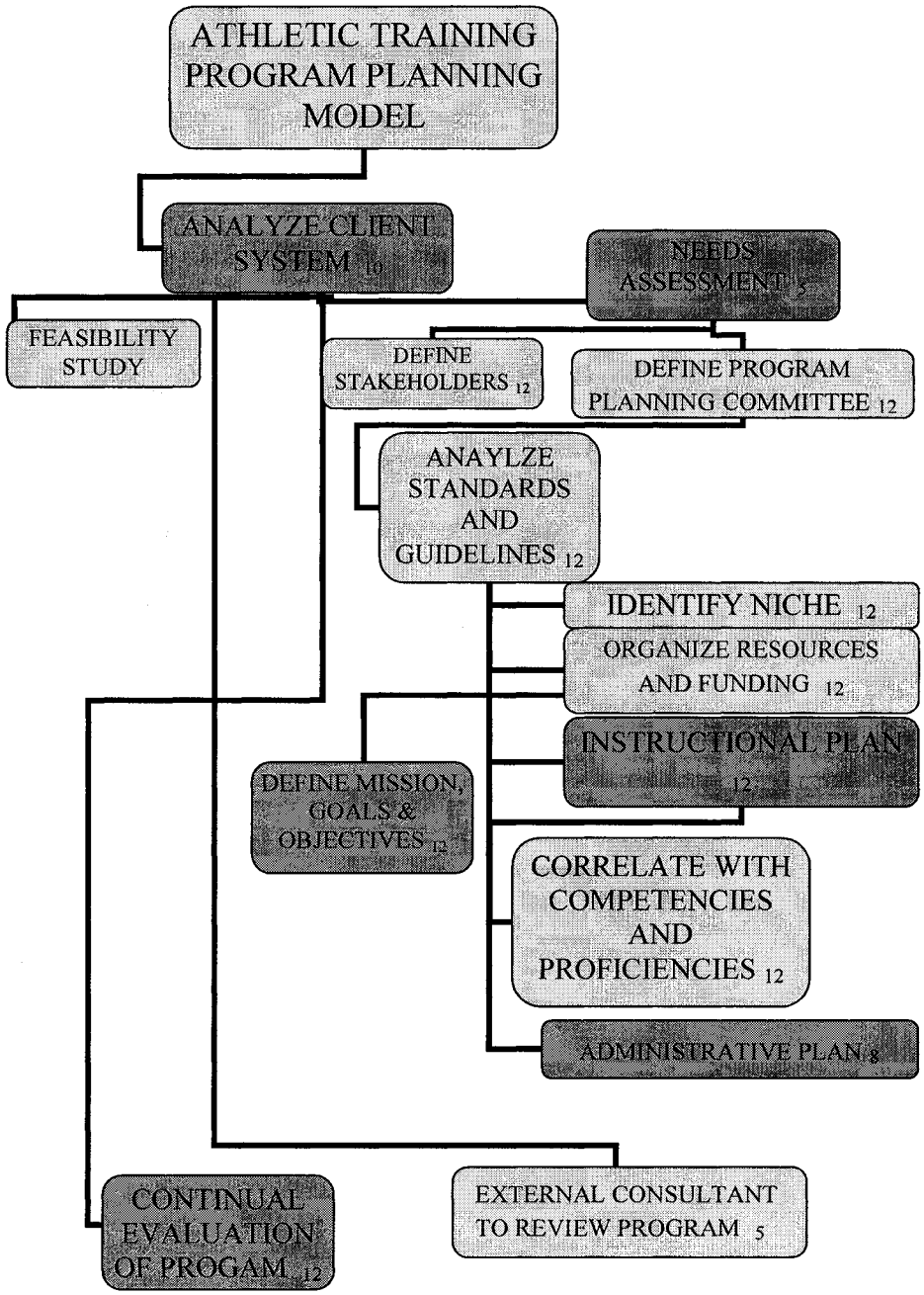
From the data analysis, there have been a tremendous number of suggestions on how program planning was performed specific to athletic training education program. As the researcher, I have developed a program planning model specific to athletic training curriculum education programs using data that was collected during this research and combining it with the program planning theories found in chapter two. It is not a proven model that will guarantee successful accreditation. However, it was comprehensively developed using the input from the interviews and the analysis of program planning theory. This model could serve as a guide for curriculum directors to follow during program development. Each curriculum director must realize this model is only a

template for curriculum development and that sequencing should be tailored to fit their own institution.

Athletic Training Program Planning Model

Based upon the review of literature and the analysis of the interviews in this study, I developed a model that can be used to guide program planning in the development of successful athletic training programs. Because most curriculum directors will not have a vast knowledge of program planning, the concept of the model is based upon Houle's suggestion that simplicity and common sense are essential. Also, it is also important to understand that sequencing or linearization is not of great importance. The factors of utmost importance are: (1) diverse experience of the program planning committee; (2) participant involvement; (3) physician or medical director involvement; (4) cohesion amongst faculty and staff; (5) networking; (6) relaying unique program context; and (7) hiring an external consultant to review the self-study and to prepare individuals for the official site visit.

The following diagram is a model designed to support the development of athletic training curriculum education programs. It is designed from the data collected during this research to assist in the program planning process of a new education program.



The model represents a combination of elements that come from program planning literature and from the data collected in this research study. The shaded components evolve from the literature corresponding to a model used by Sork and Cafarella (Sork & Cafarella, 1990). The model is general because each step includes more than one task or set of decisions and can be generalizable to different educational fields. The remaining shaded components represent steps that were identified in the research. They are important to program planning as it related to athletic training education. Also noted in each element is a subscript number. That number represents the number of curriculum directors in this study that actually performed that specific program planning step.

An explanation of the model begins by suggesting an analysis of the client system. As related to this study, it is an interpretation of an institutions current athletic training educational program (formally known as an internship). The next two steps include a feasibility study and a needs assessment. From the needs assessment, the curriculum directors should define the major stakeholders and begin to put together the planning committee. The planning committee should consist of people with diverse education, employment and expertise. The planning committee along with the curriculum director should then acquire a complete understanding of the standards and guidelines required to develop an education program. The next several steps in the process are not linear and can be developed in any sequence. They include: identifying niche, organizing resources and funding, defining a mission, goals and objectives, formulating an instructional plan, formulating an administrative plan. Correlation of

competencies and proficiencies should be done throughout the development of the administrative and instruction plans. Amongst the entire planning process, it is vitally important for there to be an ongoing and consistent evaluation of the program planning process. Lastly, after the self-study has been written and prior to submission to CAAHEP, an external consultant should be hired to analyze the self-study and to prepare the curriculum director and program committee for the official site visit.

Recommendations for Practice

It is imperative for curriculum directors to understand the importance of program planning when it comes to the development of a new educational curriculum. The method in which they can increase their chance for program success is by educating themselves in program planning theory, networking their program planning ideas, and thoroughly implementing all of the standards and guidelines laid out by CAAHEP.

The profession of athletic training can assist with improving successful accreditation by expanding the clarity on the current standards and guidelines; developing guidelines as to who is most important on the program planning committee; and ensuring there is consistency in the methods in which program directors are completing their self-studies and the way site visitors are evaluating programs during their official site visits.

Recommendations for Research

Recommendations for further research include finding some additional methods of defining a "successful" program? This could be done specific to program statistics such as graduation rates, certification exam passing rates or employment opportunities.

Another suggestion would be to apply the athletic training model that is diagramed and test its sequence for achieving program success. Others may also explore the use of critical or classical approaches, particularly in areas of personal as well as pre-professional development. They may also explore the research between a programs initial success and future success (e.g. re-accreditation). Finally, someone can present a case study using exemplary program to explore the factors of program planning committee selection; program planning committee involvement; and the process used to make program planning fit the unique context of a university.

Conclusions

There are many explanations of the role of program planning theory in the development of a successful athletic training education program. Program success can come from having a diverse program planning committee that is adequately involved in the planning process; it can happen if an external consultant is utilized at an opportune time during the planning process; program success can occur by developing a program that is specific to the needs of your institution; or it may be a direct result of thorough program planning. Nevertheless, proper program planning has been proven in the research to lead to successful program development; therefore, it should be a vital part of the development of all new athletic training curriculum education programs.

APPENDIX A

September 1, 2005

Dear (person being interviewed):

I am a doctoral candidate under the direction of Professor Connie Dillon, PhD in the Adult and Higher Education Department at The University of Oklahoma. I invite you to participate in an interview as part of a research study being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus entitled "An investigation of the program planning process for athletic training curriculum education programs". The purpose of this study is to examine program planning models used in the planning of curriculum education programs, while identifying factors that lead to successful and unsuccessful program accreditation.

Your participation will involve an interview relating to the program planning process your institution used toward the accreditation of your athletic training education program. You will also be asked to participate in a 30-60 minute interview that will be audio tape recorded. Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time. The results of the research study may be published, but your name or your university affiliation will not be used. In fact, the published results will be presented in summary form only. All information you provide will remain strictly confidential and released only with the explicit written permission.

The findings from this project will determine what program planning models lead toward successful program development and accreditation in a curriculum athletic training education program, and determine what steps have been eliminated, causing program failure. This information will be offered with no cost to you other than the time it takes for the interview.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call me at (405) 325-8326 or send an e-mail to wlentz@ou.edu. Questions about your rights as a research participant or concerns about the project should be directed to the Institutional Review Board at The University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

I would like to audio-tape this interview. By selecting the "agree" button, you will automatically give the researcher permission to audio-tape the interview. If you so choose not to participate in the research study, you may select the "disagree" button.

Thanks for your help!

Respectfully,

Wendee J. Lentz, MS,ATC
Assistant Athletic Trainer
University of Oklahoma

AGREE DISAGREE

By selecting the "agree" button, you will be giving an electronic signature confirming your participation in the research project.

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions:

Please state you name and your official title?

What is your highest level of education?

In what field(s) is your education in?

How long have you been employed at "." University?

Have you had any prior experience in curriculum development or program planning?

When did your undergraduate program become accredited?

In what area of the university is your program housed?

How long did your program take to develop (planning through accreditation)?

How long did it take you to prepare the self-study prior to the site visit?

Who were the members of the planning committee during the development of your curriculum?
Describe each one of them by:

A. Position or title
B. Highest level of education achieved.
C. Area in which degree is held.
D. Any prior program planning experience?

Can you describe the type of interaction among the planning committee during the development process?

Did you use an external consultant in the program planning process?
If yes, please identify his/her job title and qualifications?
Why did you select this specific person?

Were there any people that were influential that was not on the planning committee?

Was the amount of time to develop the program adequate?

Did you have adequate resources available to you?

Would you have liked to have additional help in the development of the program?

Did the athletic director support the program?

Did the president of the university support the program?

Please tell me why the university decided to develop an accredited athletic training curriculum program?

Prior to program development, please tell me how you answered this question: "How will I develop a successful program?"

Can you please explain the steps you went through in developing your curriculum program?

Initial planning comes in "steps, stages, decision points, or clusters". Please identify how your program developed:

Ideas
Needs assessment
Development of goals and objectives
Formed educational plans and development of courses (instructional component)
Evaluation plan and performance

Is there any reason why you did not perform (any of the above listed)?

Can you please identify the program goals and objectives?

Please explain to me how you evaluated your program at various stages during the development, what was the process?

What was the main outcome of your evaluation of the program?

Every program has a unique characteristic or context – can you please define yours?

Did your program receive accreditation on the initial attempt or did you have to make a few modifications to reach full accreditation?

What were some of the deficiencies that caused your program to not receive accreditation on the initial attempt?

What were some of the things done to correct the problem?

Is there anything you would have done different while moving your program through the accreditation process?

Can you attribute your success to any one matter?

APPENDIX C

Pilot Interviews

The pilot interviews averaged approximately 35 minutes. As the interviewer, I was able to follow the questions in sequence; however, sometimes one or two questions were answered at the same time. For example, when discussing the program planning process of mission, goals and objectives, the person being interviewed began with the mission and then also stated the program goals and objectives.

The questions pertaining to evaluations, listed separately in two parts of the interview questions, required the person being interviewed to revisit the topic. I, as the researcher, decided to rearrange the interview questions so that all of the evaluation questions were sequential throughout the interview. For example, these questions were lumped in the middle portion of the questionnaire. Please identify how your program developed and evaluation and performance plan? Please tell me how you evaluated your program at various stages during the development/what as the process and what was the main outcome of your evaluation of the program? Ultimately, the answers pertaining to evaluation could be quite lengthy, however, they were important in determining evaluation results.

Two questions were considered "broad" as described in the pilot study participants. They included answering the question "how will I develop a successful program" and "please explain how you developed your curriculum program/describe the process." I have decided to modify the question "In general, please explain how you developed your curriculum program/can you describe the process you went through?" I

changed it to ask specifically, "can you please explain the steps you went through in developing your curriculum program".

I also decided to change the question, "can you attribute your success to any one matter" to "can you attribute the success of your program to any one matter". Finally, I also decided to add a question at the beginning to ask, "How long have you been on staff at (name the university)?"

Responses to the survey include, "that was painless" and "the flow of the questions were easy, I think this was an easy interview to participate in."

APPENDIX D

Solicitation Transcript

Hi, Mr./Mrs/Dr. _____, my name is Wendee Lentz and I am an assistant athletic trainer at The University of Oklahoma. I am also a doctoral candidate in the field of Adult and Higher Education. I am working on my dissertation project and would like to invite you to participate in my research. What I am asking is for you to participate in an interview that should take approximately 30-60 minutes of your time. I would like to discuss the program planning process of your athletic training curriculum education program. The purpose of this research is to identify factors that distinguish successful and unsuccessful programs based on their ability to achieve program accreditation. I want to obtain specific information on your program planning methods used in the development of your program as well as various factors that lead your program toward accreditation.

I would like to tape-record your interview for the purpose of obtaining exact dialogue. I also want to assure you that your interview will be kept confidential to myself as the researcher, and the results that will be published will not have your name or institution associated with them.

I would like to send you and informed consent by electronic mail. The consent will remind you of what we discussed about this research, inform you of confidentiality, and ask you to allow the interview to be tape-recorded.

Could I please send you a copy of the informed consent now? *YES.* Ok, it has been sent. If you would please read the statement and then please click on the agree button to submit your answer. I would also like to set up a time for the interview. When would you have approximately an hour available to discuss your athletic training education program? *Next Tuesday at 3:30pm.* Ok, thank you. I will call you at this number next Tuesday at 3:30pm. If you could please have some of your documents pertaining to your curriculum development as well as the results of your curriculum self-study that lead toward your accreditation, that would be helpful in our conversation.

Mr./Mrs./Dr. _____. I would like to thank you for your participation, and looking forward to speaking with you _____.

APPENDIX E

Instructions and Suggestions for Developing a Self-Study Report

1. Understand the Standards and Guidelines, the required scope of the Self-Study Report, interrelated areas and other details;
2. Convene a Self-Study committee by identifying and securing the cooperation of individuals who represent the interests of the program;
3. Assemble all data, conclusions and reports from previous and ongoing self-study activities performed by the program;
4. Distribute the information compiled in item three above to members of the self-study committee;
5. Establish a timetable for completion of interim stages of the self-study;
6. Assign specific tasks for the development of the "Self-Study Report";
7. Set a timely deadline for the first composite draft of the Self-Study Report so that the committee can begin working toward assessment and improvement of the program;
8. The final Self-Study Report should reflect the consensus of the Self-Study Reports committee representing the range of interests in the program;
9. Each section of the Self-Study Report requires the completion of a Self-Analysis Summary for that section. Self-Study Reports are not considered complete without the summary information.

APPENDIX F

Curriculum Program Deficiencies

- Medical personnel issues – need more physician involvement
- A minimum of two physician interactions per semester with students
- Students observing a class must receive some type of credit for the observation
- If a course is teaching a proficiency, it must have a credit value
- Addition of a specific course to meet all of the competencies
- Spell-check the entire self-study document for grammar errors
- Change "student athletic trainer" to "athletic training students"
- Match all courses in the catalogue to the course bulletin
- Involve the medical director the in the clinical setting
- Thorough supervision of athletic training students in the clinical setting
- If a student is a "first responder" they are limited in their work capacity
- Have a thorough "first responder" policy
- Physician involvement in the selection and content of certain courses
- "Learning over time" is an important issue
- Make sure there are enough full-time staff members (check student/faculty ratio)
- Syllabus and syllabus calendar issues
- Make sure all contracts are included in the documentation
- All contract must be signed and dated
- Have a thorough document of the job descriptions

- Implement problem based learning in the curriculum
- Demonstrations in the clinical setting in front of the ACI's
- Do not allow students to use their own personal vehicles to transport athletes
- Clarify all program proficiencies
- Clarify all general medical rotations in the clinical setting
- Check off all competencies in the clinical setting
- Make sure all of the syllabi match each of the courses
- Safety issues in facilities (for example GFI's)
- Be very prepared at the site visit interview; have all necessary documents
- Make sure everyone being interviewed by the site visitors are well informed
- Perform mock interviews to assist in preparation
- Include the letters from the president and dean supporting the program
- They wanted to see a rubric system implemented into the evaluations
- Be able to explain the process of admitting students into the university
- Be able to discuss the budget and give detail to the line items

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