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ABSTRACT

This guide highlights the many forces driving professionals to seek continuing education: rapidly changing information; new technological developments; mandated credit to maintain licenses and professional certification; emerging professions struggling to define their competencies; and development changes in adults that affect career practices. In developing programs for professionals, common themes run across settings and groups. The guide focuses on these similarities and helps experienced continuing professional education (CPE) planners. CPE begins at the point when formal education ends and professional practice starts. Seven topics important to the CPE planner are addressed: (1) professionals as learners; (2) professionals in society; (3) providers of CPE; (4) regulation of professions and implications for CPE; (5) a planning framework; (6) competencies of a CPE planner; and (7) useful tools for planning. The guide contains 42 references and 7 appendices: (1) needs assessment methods; (2) learning objectives; (3) categories of instructional format; (4) seating arrangements; (5) sample evaluation questions; (6) building a program budget; and (7) timetable for program development activities. (NLA)

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The Guide Series

in Continuing Education
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Foreword

The development and operation of continuing education programs for professionals is a growing enterprise in this country. Rapid changes in information, technology, and practice are three forces that motivate professionals to participate in conferences, seminars, and workshops.

Nancy Bennett and Barbara LeGrand have planned and conducted many excellent programs for professional audiences and are widely recognized for their abilities in this area. In addition, both have studied continuing professional education and have collaborated to produce this excellent Guide for colleagues.

One strength of this publication is that theory and practice are joined. Readers can use this material to understand the audience, why programs are needed, and the steps to follow for effective planning. The appendixes contain a wealth of proven and useful methods that cover all aspects of the planning and program management process. Through their experience, Drs. Bennett and LeGrand offer sound guidance for new and seasoned planners.

Charles E. Kozoll
Editor
Guide Series

About the Authors

Nancy L. Bennett is Director of Educational Development and Evaluation in the Department of Continuing Education, Harvard Medical School. She received her Ph.D. degree form the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and her M.S. and B.S. degrees from Michigan State University. She has had extensive experience in continuing medical education at Harvard and at the University of Illinois.

Dr. Bennett is an active member of the Society of Medical College Directors of Continuing Medical Education, as well as the Alliance for Continuing Medical Education. In 1990 she chaired the Research in Continuing Medical Education Conference, held in San Antonio, Texas, and currently serves on the editorial board of several journals.

Her interests and research revolve around how professionals learn, how health professionals make changes, and how physicians' careers develop. She has also been engaged in a project to outline the competencies necessary to work in continuing medical education.

Barbara F. LeGrand is Associate Director of Continuing Pharmacy Education in the College of Pharmacy, University of Kentucky, and is also an Assistant Professor of instructional effectiveness. She holds Ph.D. and Ed.M. degrees in Adult and Continuing Education from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and an A.B. degree in History Education from the University of Illinois at Chicago.

Dr. LeGrand is affiliated with several professional organizations. She has served as chair of two research committees of the National University Continuing Education Association and as co-chair of the Research Task Force of the Commission of Professors of Adult Education.

Her scholarly interests focus on organizational perspectives in adult and continuing education and on technology use by professionals. Among other research projects, she has studied hypermedia development for adult learning, as well as ways of enhancing direct instruction through cognitive strategies and technology.

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Introduction

• You have recently been hired as a continuing educator in a college of business at a large university. A local accounting firm has asked your office to develop a program focusing on new changes in the state tax law. The head of the firm's tax division would like a program on these changes for her staff members. She believes that other firms, even in the state's largest metropolitan area, would also be interested in participating. Several questions immediately come to mind: How can you verify whether this topic has broader interest than this one request? Who would attend the program? Who are the best faculty members to present this topic? What type of activities would help accountants to use this information in practice? Who will pay for the program?

• As a continuing professional education planner, you have been approached by the chief pharmacist at a medical center to discuss mandatory continuing education for his staff at the center and its affiliated hospitals. You learn that, in order to maintain their licenses and professional certification, all pharmacists must participate in fifteen hours of mandatory continuing education each year. The chief pharmacist informs you that he cannot afford financially or in lost work hours to have his staff pharmacists attend conferences in other cities. He asks you to research how the medical center can award credit to the pharmacists. You must think through questions such as the following: What is the procedure for developing programs that are eligible for credit from the professional association? What is the procedure for applying for credit? What kinds of records are necessary? Even though pharmacists attend, how can you guarantee that they have participated in the entire program?

• You have been hired as the education director for a newly formed national professional association that serves local area network (LAN) installers. LANs are an evolving computer technology that connects personal computers within organizations to facilitate shared work among employees. Although an entire industry and an emerging professional group have grown rapidly since the mid-1980s, no educational programs are currently available to prepare LAN installers. Yet this professional group must have technical expertise, understand client needs, appreciate organizational cultures, and be able to teach clients how to use the systems. Hundreds of thousands of dollars in equipment as well as employee time and productivity are at stake. In developing educational programs, you find yourself struggling with many of the same issues that arise in the "traditional" professions: What competencies do LAN installers need? Should there be a certification program, and how would it be implemented? Who should install these networks—those who sell them or independent specialists? What types of programs should be developed? How do you address the needs of new as well as experienced LAN installers? How do you deal with professional ethics in planning programs?

• As a junior partner in a large metropolitan law firm, you have been appointed a member of the professional development committee. The firm is experiencing a productivity problem with two of its groups: new law school graduates and partners who are nearing retirement age. You have been asked to chair a committee to develop educational programs that will address their needs. What are some of the issues related to these two groups that should be addressed in educational programs? What types of learning activities would best meet the needs of each group? How can these programs be tied to actual practice in the firm? Who are the best presenters for these programs?

Many forces drive professionals to seek continuing education: rapidly changing information, new technological developments, mandated credit to maintain licenses and professional certification, emerging professions struggling to define their competencies and the education needed to achieve them, and developmental changes in adults that affect individual career practices. All of these forces are intertwined with a professional's ability to practice competently. Professionals typically participate in continuing education activities to build upon their preparatory education and experience. Many stakeholders have a vested interest in seeing that professionals maintain their competence: the public, employers, educational institutions, professional associations, as well as the professionals themselves.

Who Is a Planner?

Whether you are a full-time program planner in continuing professional education (CPE) or have only a part-time assignment to develop a program, you will have to respond to some of the forces that drive continuing education. You will also have to address the main stakeholders' concerns for enhancing professional competence. In developing and implementing programs for professionals, you will find common themes running across a variety of settings and diverse groups. This guide focuses upon these similarities and is intended to help experienced and inexperienced CPE planners alike.

Let's consider several planning situations. You might be a therapist who has been called upon to plan an annual regional association meeting, or a real estate agent who has volunteered to serve on the national association education committee, or a lawyer who has to plan the firm's annual staff retreat. Or you may have been asked to plan programs for professional groups that you do not belong to. For example, as a staff member of a human resource department of a corporation, you may have been assigned the job of planning programs for physicians, accountants, pharmacists, or managers. Regardless of your situation, this guide will help you develop successful programs.

The role of the CPE planner can be compared with that of a conductor of an orchestra. The conductor does not play an instrument in the orchestra, but instead directs the performance. He assists in choosing the musicians, selecting appropriate compositions, arranging the concert schedule, and working with individual instrumental sections during rehearsal. Finally, he leads the orchestra on the evening of the concert.

Like conductors, CPE planners usually do not directly instruct courses as faculty members. They "orchestrate" from the beginning to the final "performance," making all the pieces come together. To do this, they work with professionals to understand the context of their practice, select appropriate topics, identify effective faculty members, plan learning activities, market the program, and evaluate the program's outcomes.

WHAT IS CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION?

Continuing professional education begins at the point when formal education ends and professional practice starts. To maintain high standards for their practice, professionals must continue to learn. Changes in practice come about when a newer or better practice replaces the standard one used in the past, when new information changes the way professionals think about problems and solutions, or when new equipment or materials become available to enhance or expand what professionals do. CPE's explicit purpose is to improve professional practice.

Formal educational programs that prepare individuals to become professionals are another matter. In these programs, a college or university develops mandates for successful completion of a program, including the length of time a class must meet, the methods for evaluation, and an acceptable faculty. Degree requirements must be consistent across a number of courses and, for the most part, are not negotiable.

Continuing professional education is designed with a different theme. Professionals must keep up-to-date on new information, emerging techniques, and shifts resulting from new insights. CPE usually does not include grades or a minimum number of classroom hours, and faculty members may come from several disciplines. The purpose is not to fulfill institutional requirements, but to satisfy individual goals to practice with the highest standards. Professionals may also need to meet requirements dictated by national or state agencies or professional associations. Despite all the professional mandates and suggestions, however, the quality of practice resides with each individual in the profession. CPE contributes to improved practice only when the professionals in the field support continuing education and regulate their own field.

CPE assumes that continuing education can be used to raise the quality of professional service. Programs and other learning activities can be standardized so that professionals in different geographical areas or different settings receive comparable material. While part of CPE focuses on specific groups of professionals, another part focuses on individuals, who must be self-directed in their approach to learning. They must determine for themselves what to do and how to monitor progress. And they must be able to assess their own practice in relation to that of others in the field.

CPE can be treated broadly because groups of professionals are quite similar in how they set standards for practice, how they decide to monitor individuals within the field, and how they conduct continuing education activities. Continued learning is based on common factors in how adults learn. Regardless of the type of program, planning usually involves similar steps to bring a program to presentation. And perhaps most importantly, sharing among professions may result in better ideas for all professionals. CPE can be a powerful and exciting force in professional development.

Topics Covered in This Guide

To help you understand how to develop CPE programs, the following topics will be included in this guide:

- Professionals as learners
- Professionals in society
- Providers of CPE
- Regulation of professions and implications for CPE
- A planning framework
- Competencies of a CPE planner
- Useful tools for planning

Chapter 1
Professionals as Learners

Professionals are enthusiastic, committed, critical learners. They come to continuing education with a rich history of life and work experience. Their drive makes them flexible and involved enough to move chairs and meet in uncomfortable settings in order to learn—or to "vote with their feet" by leaving if the program does not meet their standards.

Each participant in continuing education brings his or her own unique outlook. Past experience with learning shapes the way professionals think about new activities. Professionals, like other adults, share common traits when they learn. A review of some of these characteristics, the factors that motivate professionals, their learning styles, and the way careers evolve will provide some background to help you think about how to approach planning. Although the section that follows deals with adult learning in general, the information can be applied to professionals in particular.

How Adults Learn

From research and experience, we have some information about how adults learn. Not all authors agree on the best way to teach, and not everyone who does research arrives at the same conclusions, but certain themes are consistent across findings:

1. Adults of all ages are able to learn.
2. Adults bring commitment and enthusiasm to new learning projects.
3. Active learning is more effective than passive learning.
4. Experience is a valuable resource in learning.
5. Adults learn more effectively when they receive feedback.
6. Adults are more apt to make changes if they have a clear image of the change.

Adults of All Ages Are Able to Learn.

Age is not a predictor of a person's ability to learn. Studies that follow individuals over time show that many people continue to have a stable learning pattern from their twenties to their fifties. Because of their high ability, professionals often continue to learn even later in life. A learning activity may draw people who vary greatly in age, and there is no way for you to know which individuals in a group will effectively apply new learning (Cross, 1981; Knox, 1977).

For planning purposes, attracting professionals of various ages will result in differing experiences for the participants and differing applications of the content. When anticipated, the age mix can enhance discussion and a wider range of thinking. Age is a part of the variation in years of experience, involvement with specific events in history, and style of education. Faculty members may be able to draw a wide range of examples from a group with contrasting perspectives. If the variety of age-related experiences is unanticipated, however, comments from the group may seem to put the participants at odds with each other.

The federal government, for example, has increasingly become involved in regulating health care to manage costs. Older physicians often feel that the regulations interfere with their ability to care for patients who may not fit within those guidelines. A physician might think, for instance, that some older patients would benefit from a somewhat longer than average stay in the hospital because of slower healing, lack of resources at home, and difficulty in managing daily meals and personal care. A longer stay might not be covered by Medicare and might be beyond the resources of some patients. Younger physicians, who were trained in another era in terms of cost containment, may have different ideas about regulations or different suggestions for managing care.

Most Adults Bring Commitment and Enthusiasm.

The most exciting form of adult learning draws heavily on the participants' involvement. Professionals usually participate by choice and at some cost of time, effort, and money. They are clear about what they want to know and how they want to use what they learn. The outcomes of learning are important to them. That enthusiasm and spirit can be exciting for the group and for the faculty. Planners can help to capture the spirit with well-designed and well-executed learning activities. The exchanges and the push to stay up-to-date may also be strong incentives for professionals to teach in continuing education.

Not all adults participate in continuing education by choice, however. Staff development activities within a company may be mandated by a supervisor. Regulations may dictate a level of continuing education participation that is not endorsed by all members of the group. In spite of our best efforts, some of these adults may be indifferent to continuing education programs. A strong program can engage part of the group, but a few may be unwilling to participate. The political situation within your own organization will dictate how you approach planning and may push you to find creative solutions for involving reluctant learners.

Adults Learn More Effectively When Actively Involved.

When adults look for meaning or search for answers to questions, they become absorbed in the content and process of learning. This involvement occurs when participants are engaged in lively discussions, during question and answer periods that spark ideas, or in the critical appraisal of case studies that all may contribute to how they refine thinking. Learners can use the expert faculty member and other learners to test their own thinking and form new ideas because feedback is available as the ideas evolve. Refinement of ideas begins early, often with the help of others in the group (Knox, 1977).

A more passive approach to learning on the part of the learner is less effective. Without a question to answer or without a sense of the purpose of learning, participants may find it difficult to become involved during a program. They are left to think about and apply new learning after the program without the stimulation of the other participants or the faculty members. They have no way to test ideas or talk about how to apply the content. Lecture without discussion is one approach that leads to passive learning. Participants may listen to interesting information without feeling the need to challenge their own thinking about how, when, and where to use the ideas. They may have no checkpoints for correcting their misinterpretations or incorrect assumptions about what the speaker presents.

Many adults are good at directing their own learning. They are clear about what they want to know and how to go about getting and using the necessary information. Some learners are good at translating what they hear and are not interested in help from the faculty and other participants. But to push thinking forward, talking about ideas as a way of testing thoughts is one format that probably addresses the needs of the majority of any group. Note, however, that some learners may wish to listen to a presentation, let new thoughts simmer, allow time to think about ideas, and then try out new ones. That sort of reflection is not passive, but is rather a more introverted, thoughtful style.

To ensure active learning in a program, use learning formats that actively engage the learners. Small group discussions, case studies, question and answer time, role playing, and practice sessions are several ways of doing so. Faculty members who build an active role for learners into the program are usually most effective. Using several formats or options for learning will further enhance the learning process by engaging a broader range of participants whose learning styles vary.

Experience Is a Valuable Resource for Learning.

Experience provides the framework or structure for adults to make sense of new learning. For professionals who attend a continuing education program, prior knowledge and skills are the background against which they interpret new learning. Having colleagues as program participants can make teaching exciting for the faculty and can provide additional enrichment for the group of learners. Before the program begins, planners and faculty members should learn about the participants' experiences in order to involve the group effectively. The breadth of experience is a wonderful source of examples for illustrating the ways that new learning can fit into the professional practice of each participant.

Adults Learn More Effectively When They Receive Feedback.

A teaching and learning system that incorporates feedback allows participants to match their perspective with that of an expert. Early and often is the key to successful feedback, which can be given in several forms. Using general feedback, the faculty member can make helpful comments to the entire group. Or participants can get feedback by comparing their thinking with questions from the floor and the direction a discussion takes. Individual feedback can be more direct. For example, learners can work with an expert, see how ideas are discussed, and find out what the expert selects to talk about.

Another form of feedback is Schon's "reflection in action," which is based on a learning system that incorporates both direct and indirect feedback. In this system, teachers become coaches who directly demonstrate a solution to a problem to help draw learners into the way that professional practice works. Coaches can also indirectly demonstrate what they think is important in the field by what they choose for discussion. In that process, students learn how a professional in the field works through a problem. The concept of teaching as coaching may help faculty members to think of ways to provide feedback (Schon, 1987).

A Clear Image of the Intended Change Is Necessary.

One of the underlying themes of adult learning is to help people make changes that will upgrade their knowledge and skills. New work in continuing medical education indicates that learners must have a clear image of what the change is before they can make it. It is usually not enough for learners to have a general sense of a new idea, a simple understanding of new concepts, or a broad introduction to a practice. The change must be spelled out in detail. Learners must map out what they now know or do and what would be better practice in the future. The gap between the two positions must be clear to them.

Planners can help faculty members think of ways to be explicit about the process behind assessing a change. What factors are included in the change? What are the pros and cons? How does an expert evaluate a new procedure? Being involved in and talking about how an expert frames a problem and solves it can be invaluable in clarifying the image of a change. Faculty members should be able to outline the steps in making a decision, being specific about their strategies for critical thinking (Bandura, 1986; Fox, Mazmanian, and Putnam, 1989).

Why Professionals Learn

Professionals are motivated to continue learning for many reasons, such as ensuring professional competence, gaining personal satisfaction, and satisfying regulations. Professionals may want to maintain or enhance their performance. Committed to their practice, most professionals want to be competent, continue to learn, and practice with the highest standards. For some individuals, maintaining or enhancing their performance means working at an average level. For others, it means performing at the very highest level or expanding their expertise to offer new skills. A few professionals strive to be leaders who are on the cutting edge of new knowledge and skills. While each group overlaps, individuals may wish to use programs for different purposes. Learning new ways to practice within a profession can be exciting and expand capabilities.

Professionals may wish to learn for the personal satisfaction it gives them and the intrinsic rewards they gain from a sense of purpose and self-worth. Learning about new ideas, keeping up-to-date, and expanding their thinking may be powerful components in their value system. Professionals may find satisfaction in learning new ways to solve problems so that they can become more effective practitioners. Curiosity drives some people; new ideas can be intriguing and engaging. We do not know much about the personal satisfaction that comes from learning in continuing professional education, but it is a driving force in some circumstances.

Some professions have mandates, requirements, or recommendations for levels of learning and types of participation. Professional groups can specify levels of participation in continuing education. Some institutions strongly recommend or require continuing education as part of a performance review. Furthermore, participation has been legislated on the state level in some fields.

Tips for Engaging Professionals as Learners

1. Anticipate the experience and age mix of the participants, and allow for their differing perspectives on a topic.
2. Find ways to encourage reluctant learners to participate. Remember: some people do not enroll in a program by choice.
3. Consider using several different formats that encourage active learning among participants whose learning styles vary.
4. Draw directly on the experiences of the participants themselves to enrich the program and make it more practical.
5. Give feedback early, often, and in different forms.
6. Present a clear picture of the recommended change for practice and when to use it.

Learning Styles

Professionals approach and solve problems in different ways. Some of the differences are the result of age and experience, motivation, and the context of a problem. But one piece of the difference is "learning style," the way individuals receive and process new information. Even though there are many methods for measuring and labeling learning styles, no single test has become standard.

David Kolb, for example, has developed a Learning Style Inventory (LSI), which measures how people experience learning or process new information (Kolb, 1976). People tend to prefer one way of processing information over others, and that preference may be strong or less so. On the basis of his characteristics of learning, he identified four types of learners. The *converger* prefers a practical approach to learning by applying ideas and performs best in situations with a single or specific problem. The *diverger* shows strength in imagination by generating ideas and using a variety of perspectives. The *assimilator* prefers to approach learning by creating a theoretical idea, using inductive reasoning that integrates pieces of information into a single concept. The *accommodator* is likely to choose a problem-solving approach through trial and error and has an ability to adapt immediately to circumstances.

The most important point for CPE planners is that no one style of learning is "better" or "more effective" than another; they are simply different.

People feel more comfortable when they learn using their preferred approach. For example, an accommodator would want a hands-on lab to practice a technique after being given a set of examples to illustrate the skill to be learned. For this person, listening to a lecture on the concepts of a new idea may be much more difficult. But an assimilator who is reflective and enjoys abstract thinking may do well listening to a lecture that clearly presents a new theory. Like the general adult population, professionals, as demonstrated through research, approach learning with these different styles (Bennett and Fox, 1984). For this reason, CPE planners need to work with faculty members to expand the types of formats they use and provide various learning options to reach more professionals.

Not everyone agrees with testing for the way professionals learn. Another way to think about learning style is whether an individual can learn in a variety of settings. Adults have learned, either as students or as professionals, to work in a number of ways, depending on their education and the problem or issue. Rather than thinking about learning style as a part of personality, think of it as part of the time and place in which we learn. In other words, professionals may learn creative solutions by having participated in learning activities in a wide variety of places.

Accountants as students, for example, may have training sessions in large firms, small owner-operated stores, nonprofit organizations, and government offices, or they may help individuals. Physicians may rotate through clinic settings, private offices, neighborhood centers, hospitals, school health programs, and community programs. Professional excellence that allows a person to solve particularly difficult problems may be a result of effectively learning to approach problems from many different angles. That person has been trained to use many practice styles or to see similarity among problems in many settings.

New technology may dictate new learning styles for some professionals. Certain fields are changing so dramatically that what is learned in school simply does not apply in several years. Laboratory technologists, for example, have shifted very rapidly from manual skills to highly technical skills. Visual scanners with complex software programs can "look" at white blood cells and identify and count them. The manual method requires a medical technologist to use a microscope for scanning and counting, but the technologist must still determine when the scanner cannot accurately count for unusual cells. That decision may require a very different approach to performance. Electronic data processing is another area that requires shifts in thinking and application. We have moved a long way from hand-punched computer cards, which were fed into computers manually, to true electronic data entry.

Adult Development

We tend to think of some life events as being quite standard: leaving home, being married, having children, and retiring, which usually occur within certain age ranges. We talk about how a person is marrying late or retiring early. Often the age we expect people to do something is not exact, but expectations are generally shared. Levinson (1978) has presented a theory for describing the way adults develop. This is only one of many, but useful for our discussion. According to Levinson, there are ten periods of time divided between transitions and stable periods. The transitions are times of change when adults assess their lives and think about changes they would like to make. During stable periods they put the changes into place.

Adults begin by leaving home, getting a job, and beginning an adult life. Then follows a period of looking at all the decisions made in early adulthood. Men move to settling down by becoming competent in areas such as work and family life. The mid-life transition is a time to look at how meaningful life seems at this point. Middle adulthood incorporates the decisions made during the mid-life transition. The latter stages of adulthood are less well studied (Levinson, 1978). Levinson's study is based on interviews with a small number of men; the implications for a larger group are unclear. We also lack enough information about how women develop in adulthood.

Some work is also being done on stages of professional development and the link to age. Houle (1967) describes stages that professionals go through in becoming learners in order to develop their careers. At first, professionals say they need more practical techniques. Later, they describe the need for more theory. They then shift to a need for learning more about administration or working with colleagues. The next step is a need for a clearer sense of a larger context. After years of working, many professionals ask for a broader orientation to see how their profession fits into the world (Houle, 1967).

The business literature provides some ideas about how careers develop. Schein (1975) described five stages of professional development: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. The first two stages, usually completed during childhood, lay the foundation for the three stages in adulthood. Schein describes how career paths are "anchored" by a fundamental motivation that shapes development. He found five anchors: managerial competence, technical-functional competence, security, creativity, and autonomy-independence. These anchors are one way of understanding how professionals approach their careers (Schein, 1975). Some new work in medicine gives us one more model. In a study on how physicians change and learn, three stages of professional development were identified: breaking in, fitting in, and getting out, which span the time of practice in medicine (Bennett and Hotvedt, 1989).

Professionals in Society

Today we are surrounded by changes in technology and society. These changes have had both positive and negative effects on the way professionals work and on the way CPE is delivered. For example, professionals can provide improved services to their clients because of new, sophisticated technologies. However, these services can also be more expensive for clients. Professional now have more information, but as a result must make more complex decisions. It is here that CPE can step in and play an integral role in how professionals work.

One purpose of CPE is to provide information about changes in the professions: the newest drug therapies, the latest computer software, current research findings, and the like. CPE can have far-reaching effects when it is designed to address the impact that these changes have on professional practice, relationships with colleagues, organizational culture, the professional-client relationship, and personal lives.

The sections that follow focus on four areas that have implications for CPE program planning: the shift in the way we work, economic change, movement between positions and occupations, and the changing population of professionals.

Technological Changes

Most of us can quickly point to the impact that technological change has on our daily lives. In many professions, technology has transformed practice by creating the need for individuals who can do tasks that could not even be imagined ten years ago. To remain current in their practice, many professionals must master new skills such as using a computer to do spreadsheets rather than relying on ledgers and adding machines. Especially in highly technical professions, this "knowledge explosion" has shortened the time that information remains useful and up-to-date. One study estimated that half of the information that physicians and engineers use is obsolete five years after graduation from professional school (Lindsay, Morrison, and Kelley, 1974). Not staying up-to-date can have negative consequences for both professionals and their clients.

We know one dentist who estimates that only 30 percent of what he learned in dental school sixteen years ago is relevant to his practice today. With the introduction of fluoride in water and toothpaste as well as bonding sealants for teeth, tooth decay has been cut by 50 percent. Children have little need for old-fashioned dental work. His practice has changed from one of filling cavities to preventing them. Prevention of health risks to dental staff has become important because of the AIDS and hepatitis problems.

For the fire service, technology has significantly expanded the services provided. Because 80 percent of fire service personnel throughout the United States are volunteers, providing continuing education for them may be a special challenge. Fighting fires no longer involves merely spraying water on burning buildings, but calls for working with hazardous chemicals and wastes as well as toxic fumes. Staying up-to-date therefore demands a substantial amount of learning on a voluntary basis.

Technological and societal changes have altered the nature of professional practice. In the past, many professionals were general practitioners working across all aspects of their field; today, specialists and subspecialists are common. For example, within the legal profession, specialities related to environmental, employee benefit, and intellectual property law are joining well-established areas related to local government, school, immigration, labor, federal tax, family, and criminal law. A subspecialty can have its own professional association, practice standards, publications, and professional certification. Professions such as technology managers and hazardous waste managers are emerging with new areas of expertise to deal with today's problems, issues, and opportunities. In the process, these groups struggle with standards of competence, ethical practice, and similar concerns—many of the issues that drive CPE.

Economic Changes

Changing economic conditions in the United States have created a shift in the way many professionals practice. These conditions include the movement from primarily a manufacturing to a service economy, decreased governmental funding, increased regulation in some sectors, deregulation in others, and an emerging global economy.

Problems in state funding, for example, have forced social workers to cope with fewer resources in such areas as family and children services. At the same time, problems in the general population have increased dramatically. Adding to these complications, state regulatory agencies have enacted increased guidelines and paper work to regulate how services should be provided. Their professional practice has been complicated by balancing increased caseloads, threats of liability, shortages of funding, heightened public awareness and criticism, and their own commitment to social responsibility.

For other professionals, what happens in other countries can have as big an impact on their daily jobs as what happens across town. After a steel corporation was purchased by an international firm, metallurgical engineers had to shift their entire style of management and the way they practiced their profession. The use of robotics in the company has increased 250 percent, making it necessary for many of the engineers to take advanced courses at the regional university and through a national satellite network to adapt to the changes in the steel industry.

Occupational Changes

Some professionals have moved into corporations, while others have become entrepreneurs. Continuing professional education in this context moves beyond information dissemination to learning to work in a new system for delivery of services.

Corporate cultures have changed the way some professionals practice—company regulations have replaced many independent practices. In health care many autonomous pharmacists have moved from corner drugstores to corporate chains. Many physicians have moved from private practice to health maintenance organizations. Some traditionally autonomous professional groups such as university professors are now members of labor unions. These professionals need to change from making independent decisions to adopting organizational criteria for practice.

Many people in technical and business fields such as computer science, engineering, and business administration are moving into entrepreneurial roles. Professionals who are becoming consultants in order to respond quickly to outside needs believe that organizations are sometimes unable to react efficiently to change.

Because of these shifts, professionals are increasingly making significant career moves between jobs and occupations. Many people move from one occupation to another each year, a change that requires significant educational preparation. Many of these individuals are professionals, and CPE is one way to help them adapt to career transitions. In addition to having to update their knowledge within a profession, some people are preparing for new positions.

Changes in Professional Populations

Some sectors of professionals such as women and the older population are growing and are using CPE in different ways. One important social change in the past quarter century is the increasing number of women in the workforce and in traditionally male-dominated professions. Women now hold a larger share of managerial and professional jobs (Jaffe, 1987), although their salaries still lag behind those of men. As more women become professionals, their need for education and credentials also increases, and they can use CPE more aggressively to assist in career advancement. In addition, women who reenter the professional workforce will need to acquire new knowledge and skills or brush up on old ones. For example, the increasing need for nurses has stimulated the development of programs to recruit and reeducate women returning to practice after a number of years.

As the "baby boom" generation grows older and birth rates continue to decline, our society is aging (Jaffe, 1987). The birth rate is lower today than at any other time since the 1930s. Consequently, fewer young workers will be entering the workforce. Therefore, the mean age of the workforce will climb to 39 years by the year 2000. Continuing professional educators will need to find creative ways to help the growing group of older professionals learn and adapt.

The United States is becoming increasingly culturally diverse. A greater percentage of the general population is represented by blacks, Hispanics, and other ethnic and minority groups (Jaffe, 1987). However, these groups are severely underrepresented in the professions, creating the likelihood that this segment of American society will not be adequately served. Even worse, the percentage of blacks and Hispanics seeking educational advancement through enrollment in higher education peaked in 1976 and has steadily declined since then (Jaynes and Williams, 1989). Those involved in CPE have an ethical charge not only to serve these general populations professionally, but also to increase the ranks of professionals representing these groups. Strategies need to be developed to recruit and retain minority people, and individuals involved in CPE may have a powerful influence in doing so.

It is against this backdrop that CPE has become a critical part of the continued growth of every professional.

Chapter 2
Regulations

As a planner of programs for continuing professional education, you will be confronted with many different terms, rules, and issues about regulation in the professions. Often continuing education fulfills the requirements of a variety of mandates from organizations. An important part of your role is knowing the rules and keeping the appropriate records to comply with the regulations for professionals involved in educational activities.

LICENSURE, CERTIFICATION, REGISTRATION, ACCREDITATION

To start, we need some definitions. Common types of regulation are licensure, certification, professional certification, registration, and accreditation (Galbraith and Gilley, 1986).

Licensure is designed and monitored by a political body such as a state legislature. The purpose is to allow those professionals to practice who are deemed competent in the eyes of the profession as interpreted by legislators. The intent is to protect the public from incompetence. When licensing is required, professionals hold the license and cannot legally practice without it. Licenses can be awarded to people who graduate from preparation programs, take courses to fulfill established requirements, or successfully complete a test. Physicians and dentists are examples of professionals who must have a license to practice.

Certification is a form of regulating professional practice in public education and some of the trades. Like licensure, certification is also awarded by legislative groups, usually after individuals complete certain requirements. In many states, teachers and educational administrators must have a certificate to work in public schools. The certificate is awarded upon completion of a specific number and type of higher education courses. Sometimes teachers must also pass examinations related to basic skills or to knowledge of the U.S. Constitution. Illinois has three types of certification for education administrators: one for department head in schools; another for assistant principal, principal, central office administrator, and assistant superintendent; and a third for superintendent. The appropriate certificate is necessary before individuals can be hired in these positions.

Professional certification, on the other hand, is awarded by professional associations, and participation in a certification program is voluntary. Its use and popularity have grown rapidly since the 1960s. Each association has its own requirements such as possessing specific academic degrees, successfully completing examinations, and participating in continuing education activities. For example, in 1986 the American Home Economics Association instituted a program requiring certified professionals to have a baccalaureate degree in home economics from an accredited institution of higher education, pass an examination, participate in 75 hours of accredited continuing education activities every three years, and pay an annual fee to the association.

Registration is designated by a professional group upon completion of requirements. Often, successfully completing an examination is necessary. Medical technologists may be registered with the Board of Registry of the American Society of Clinical Pathologists and/or by the National Certification Agency for Medical Laboratory Personnel under the American Society for Medical Technologists. Both groups require that professionals take an examination after they have successfully completed an accredited program. Medical technologists may also join several other professional associations. Dietitians may be registered with the American Dietetic Association upon completion of their requirements, including an examination. Both groups may use the designation as part of a listing of professional credentials.

Accreditation is intended to evaluate instructional programs, unlike licensure, certification, and registration, which regulate individual professionals. Professional associations such as the Accreditation Council on Graduate Medical Education and agencies such as the North Central Accreditation Association define criteria necessary to offer educational programs and to monitor progress. Accreditation is voluntary; however, programs that are not accredited are often perceived to be of poorer quality.

History of Regulation

Let's put regulation in the context of the planning you will do. Regulation grew in response to a desire and a demand for accountability. Public disillusionment with professionals and a desire on the part of professionals themselves to demonstrate competence resulted in a new era of regulation. With the push and pull of the accountability issue came some complex and tough questions: How can you tell if professionals are competent? What makes a difference in maintaining that competence? Is staying up-to-date tied to continuing education? Who should mandate continued learning? Who has the authority to make demands that professionals must meet? Who pays the cost of learning? And is there a conflict of interest if those who provide continuing education also accredit the mandated programs they give?

These questions are just one part of the complexity of regulation, which is highly political and has been complicated by many changes. We will use a brief history of one profession as an example. The medical profession has long talked about mandating participation in some form of lifelong education. The American Association of Medical Colleges reports a study, directed by Rappleye, of the need for a learning plan that begins in medical school and ends with retirement. According to the report, it might be necessary to mandate continuing education in order to serve the public interest (Richards, 1978).

Accountability in medicine became a focus in the early 1960s. In response to many demands, New Mexico legislated that physicians must participate in continuing education to maintain their licenses to practice in that state. Other states quickly followed, until almost half of the states had passed similar legislation. These mandates are still in effect today. All of the medical specialty boards likewise have programs for participation in continuing education, ranging from mandatory to voluntary.

There are four purposes for mandatory or voluntary continuing education requirements in medicine. The first is for membership in an organization. State medical societies often require or suggest continuing education participation as a voluntary or mandatory requisite of membership. The American Medical Association, as a professional association, suggests guidelines for participation in CME based on a three-year program. Second, certification is sometimes linked to CME. The American Academy of Family Practice is one example. After completing an initial exam to designate specialty status, physicians must participate in CME and complete the exam every five years to maintain that specialty status. Third, some licensure is tied to CME; state medical licenses are one example. And, fourth, privileges such as admission to practice at a given hospital or clinic may be contingent on CME participation.

The process is complicated by the fact that an individual physician must meet certain requirements and may also choose to participate in other groups. Family practitioners, for example, must complete training and exam requirements and maintain their family practitioner status by participating in continuing education activities and taking the exam again in five years. They may choose to join the state medical society, which may mandate a different set of continuing education regulations for membership, and may join one or two professional societies or associations, each of which mandates or recommends a set of regulations. Some family practitioners also work with government agencies that mandate or recommend yet another set of regulations. While there is often heavy overlap among the groups, individuals must know the requirements and maintain records for each group.

As a planner, you are not responsible for keeping the records for each person. But you must know not only the professional regulations for your potential audience; you must also provide attendance documentation that is consistent with various regulations. With careful planning, you can usually design one certificate or form with appropriate wording to document attendance.

Before we talk about how to fill out the forms to get approval for a program, some background information may be helpful. Several difficult questions arise in this area: Who provides the programs, and who sets the rules that mandate participation? What are the pros and cons of mandating participation in continuing education? And what other learning options are available?

Standards for Practice

First, standards for professional practice are suggested by various groups, many of which provide programs to describe optimal practice. Standards for practice embodied in continuing education programs may be presented by colleges and universities, hospitals and other health care agencies, professional organizations, regulatory agencies including states, and for-profit continuing education companies. Because several groups may share in determining standards or stances on professional issues, programs may be cosponsored when appropriate.

The content of programs will vary from group to group, but the learning activities provided should clarify and expand the standards for practice and the decisions that professionals are asked to make. Continuing education is intended to improve professional practice and maintain high standards for providing services.

Second, participants have to satisfy diverse requirements. The state may mandate continuing education participation, and professional groups may make it a prerequisite of membership. Individuals who have a state license, obtained either by successful completion of an exam or by application, may have to participate in continuing education to renew their license. Professional organizations may mandate or merely suggest appropriate ways, such as continued learning, to meet professional obligations. Furthermore, individuals may need to comply with mandates or recommended standards in more than one area.

Tips for Ensuring Proper CPE Credit

1. Become familiar with the regulations and standards of the profession for which you are planning a CPE program.
2. Make sure that the program you develop addresses these regulations and standards.
3. Obtain approval for the program from the appropriate agency or agencies by carefully filling out the required forms and submitting them on a timely basis.
4. Design a certificate or form—preferably one that satisfies several groups—to document attendance so that participants can obtain credit.

Pros and Cons of Mandatory Continuing Education

As with most issues, there are at least two sides to the argument for mandatory continuing education. Regulation was intended to create a visible system with clear standards for protecting the public from poor practice. The intent was to offer incentives to meet standards to demonstrate learning and emphasize the importance of staying up-to-date. As an added benefit, it was hoped that standards would stimulate new creative activities and add to the number of educational options and sites. With more focus on continuing education, it was assumed that baseline standards for practice would be outlined.

On the positive side, planners and professionals have developed some innovative programs that fill a need in their communities. More learning opportunities have become available in some areas. Professional groups have become more active in providing learning activities. Some professionals have focused more attention on continuing education. Institutions are now more involved in the continued learning of employees and have even used continuing education as part of job assessment. Regulation has thus helped some professionals stay up-to-date.

The results vary, however, and some questions about the system are very troublesome. On the negative side, innovative responses from individuals to keeping up-to-date often fail to meet regulations for continuing education credit. Most credit is based on group activities presented in a formal setting. Self-directed learning projects, which may be more useful for some professionals, are not eligible to receive some kinds of continuing education credit.

Because most regulation is only by attendance at programs rather than by an exam or a test, the incompetent practitioner who attends programs may continue to practice. A few groups require an exam as part of a program. But paper and pencil responses may not translate to practice, and the author of the exam may not be an expert in writing questions. Superior practitioners, innovators, or leaders may actually be held back by a system that does not meet their needs but insists on attendance at programs that are not useful.

Learning may not translate to something that can be demonstrated in a work setting. The costs may prohibit policing the system or researching the effects. Geographical constraints may create difficulties for those who must travel long distances. Limited resources can mean that faculty may not be available. Even learners who are good at designing their own projects to meet their own needs may be required to attend enough accredited programs to meet the mandates of regulation.

One of the key issues for planners is the lack of evidence linking acquired knowledge to skills used in the appropriate work situation. Underlying some planning is a sense that there is a "right" way to approach and solve a problem in practice. That is often not the case. There may be several solutions, or no good solution, or no solution at all. For example, in medicine some diseases cannot be cured. Learning to manage a patient with a chronic or terminal disease may be a matter of striking a balance between quality of life for the patient, according to that patient, and what medical treatment is currently available. The participants' actual cases may not match those discussed in the program, or the participants may be unable to make the connection. Often, well-designed, appropriate learning materials are unavailable.

Other Options

Other options for continuing education include a system for accrediting self-directed learning with more emphasis on rewarding those who devise an individualized system for staying abreast of new developments. There is a demand for more techniques to assess necessary skills. Currently, defining and analyzing necessary skills is costly in terms of time, money, and expertise. Some professions have found the task to be beyond their resources.

More techniques are also needed to link development of skills to use on the job. How often and when do we expect professionals to apply new learning to real situations as they work? What CPE teaching techniques are most useful to help professionals apply good practice? For example, teachers sent by their administrators to a seminar on discipline in the classroom explored a new system suggested by research in a major university.

This system was based on extensive research with clear results. Several of the teachers decided to implement the system. Others did not. Should the administrators working with the CPE planners expect all teachers to use the system? What teaching techniques are most useful to help application of good practice? Should we demand that continuing education activities include homework with follow-up sessions to practice what is taught? Do we expect the professionals to take tests to demonstrate that they know and can apply what is learned in our programs? Should professionals report back to outline what is adopted and what is not?

New evaluation procedures or easier access to evaluation could allow better testing for the learner and teacher. Research efforts could give us more information about the ways adults learn and the most effective methods for developing skills on the job.

Approval of Programs

Approved programs may begin in one of three ways: (1) sponsors of programs may be accredited as an institution to offer approved programs over a period of time, usually several years; (2) individual programs may be approved by a sponsor or home base of an organization; and (3) individuals may submit specific programs to their professional organizations for approval.

If an institution is to be accredited, generally approval is given for at least one year. The institution must provide information as requested using the appropriate forms. A fee may be required as part of the application process. Sometimes an institution must demonstrate that it has the resources to plan and provide programs. Resources may include personnel and a budget consistent with the level of continuing education programming.

The American Council of Pharmaceutical Education (ACPE) evaluates providers of continuing pharmacy education. Providers are required to demonstrate that they can and do offer quality continuing education as defined by the criteria of the association. They can be awarded provider status for up to six years before renewal is required. Periodic monitoring reviews using "participant surveys, provider self-assessment, in-depth review of selected educational activities, and third party/peer review" are made to assure continuing quality in programming (Approved Providers of Pharmaceutical Education, 1990). The provider must demonstrate that the administrator of its programs is qualified to develop continuing education programs.

As part of the documentation process, providers must keep accurate, permanent records of participants and details about the program, such as the objectives, content, and schedule. ACPE assigns each provider a number, and the provider assigns an individual number to each program. This number must appear on all promotional materials and handouts. In addition, the ACPE logo must be displayed with a standard paragraph. All program participants should receive a certificate that is a duplicate of a record kept in the office of the provider. In addition to awarding credit for their own programs, designated providers can work with other groups to accredit their programs. Failure to comply with the standards can result in loss of provider approval status.

Individual programs may be approved. For example, planners of nursing continuing education may apply to the state nursing association. Correct forms and complete information are absolutely necessary. You must demonstrate the use of educational principles in planning, including well-written objectives, appropriate instructional technique, and an evaluation. There may be a fee. For some professions, an approved agency will accredit programs from other sources so that their members may receive credit for attendance.

The forms to gain approval of an individual program generally request a description of the program's purpose and objectives, a schedule with specific times for each presentation, information about the faculty, an evaluation, and, at times, a budget. The course description provides an overview of the course. The objectives provide specific information about what learners can accomplish by attending the program. And an evaluation helps you determine whether you have met the objectives, either by having participants demonstrate their skills or knowledge, or by having them assess the program's usefulness.

Read the application forms carefully and provide exactly what is requested. Leave plenty of time in the planning process to submit the forms for receiving credit. The time lag between submission and approval may be considerable. Rewriting and resubmitting may be a tiresome task, but credit for attendance may be very important to the potential audience. Look at prior submissions for help. Those may be available from colleagues or the professional organization granting credit. A review of how to write objectives may be helpful.

Credit may be granted in several ways. Professional associations often use an hour-for-hour system for the educational part of a program. Each hour of direct instruction equals one hour of credit. For example, dietitians may obtain one hour of American Dietetic Association credit for each hour of the program. Breaks, lunch, and social events are not included. Continuing education units (CEUs) were developed as one attempt to standardize credit.

One CEU equals 10 hours of learning. The system has not become as widespread as its developers had hoped, however.

Professionals can use an accounting of continuing education credit to obtain membership in an organization, keep a certificate or license to practice up-to-date, or maintain voluntary standards of participation. Some employers keep records of continuing education participation in personnel folders for the purpose of documenting efforts to maintain expertise and as part of future promotion. For employees to be able to use new expertise on the job, they may be required to document successful completion of some form of education. That documentation may also be part of a personnel folder.

Chapter 3
Providers of Continuing Professional Education

Continuing professional education is planned by four major groups of organizations: higher education, including universities, colleges, and professional schools; professional associations; employing agencies; and independent providers. The contexts and characteristics of each type of provider present CPE planners with both opportunities and constraints for planning (Cervero, 1988).

Higher Education Institutions

Institutions of higher education tend to be viewed as a credible source for CPE (Cervero, 1988; Nowlen, 1988). Because research and teaching are the primary missions of colleges, universities, and professional schools, these institutions are typically considered to be reliable sources of professional knowledge and pools of expertise. In addition, because many professionals have received their prepractice education there, they are generally familiar with the environment and feel comfortable with the format of the instruction they receive.

In higher education institutions, professionals can take courses for academic credit or participate in noncredit programs. Credit programs generally have examination requirements for people who are working toward a degree. Noncredit programs, on the other hand, tend to focus on individual topic areas of interest to audiences. They often last only a day or two, are presented in the format of conferences, seminars, lecture series, workshops, and symposia, and can take place on or off campus.

As a CPE planner in higher education, you have access to resources such as faculty members and facilities. Available to serve on planning committees and to teach courses, full-time and part-time faculty members represent various disciplines and specialties that enable you to plan interdisciplinary programs. You can therefore plan many diverse programs in a variety of topic areas. You may work with a single department, a group of schools and colleges within a university, or agencies collaborating both inside and outside of professional schools. For example, as a CPE planner in a large university, you might plan a program on the crisis of malpractice in hospital administration. Faculty members can be drawn from the school of law, business administration, public administration, medicine, nursing, and allied health professions.

You may have access to many types of facilities, including classrooms, dormitories, conference centers, auditoriums, and other meeting rooms. The wide range of media services available on campuses sometimes cannot be replicated at other sites. These services can include integrated technology classrooms, computer laboratories, language laboratories, satellite uplinks and downlinks, biology laboratories, and networking capacities for technologies.

In this setting, you may find that access to faculty resources is both easy and difficult. Many faculty members do not regard teaching in CPE programs as their primary or even their secondary role. Often they see it as taking time away from their main teaching and research responsibilities, which lead to promotion and tenure. Regulations within universities and professional schools often dissuade the use of adjunct faculty members from outside the institution. This can place constraints on the type of programming that can be provided. You will have to be a persuasive and creative planner to encourage some faculty members to become involved in CPE activities.

Many faculty members experience conflict in their commitments and may not have time to become involved in continuing professional education. For example, we know one junior faculty member in engineering who is considered an authority in her area of expertise. She finds that several demands compete for her time: teaching, student advisement, research, writing, and grant proposals. Because these activities are more highly rewarded in the tenure and promotion process of her university, she finds scheduling time to teach in CPE difficult. Successful CPE planners in higher education look for ways to tie CPE into the main reward system of their institutions.

As a CPE planner in higher education, you may not always be able to respond to the needs of the professionals you serve. Programs may be constrained by the faculty, academic programs, and the regulations of the institution. Finally, unlike providers such as organizations that have large professional memberships or employers having a workforce to receive educational programming, you may have no "natural" audience except alumni to whom to market your programs (Cervero, 1988). However, because universities encompass the major source of impartial and expert opinion, they can be attractive to a large audience of professionals.

Professional Associations

There are an estimated 3,000 national professional associations with many more state and local affiliates (Nowlen, 1988). These associations are organized primarily to serve the professions they represent. Requirements for membership vary from one association to another. Some memberships are open to any professional who wishes to participate and to pay the fees. Others are closed except to those who have met specific requirements. If you are a CPE planner in a professional association, you may be fortunate to have a membership that provides a ready-made audience of professionals who are committed to their own profession. Because of this affiliation, you may already be familiar with the profession's general learning needs.

Professional associations have a variety of missions, structures, and interests. Often one of these missions is to address the competence of individual professionals by establishing standards of practice and recommendations for achieving them. CPE is only one of many methods used to assure the public that professionals are competent. Other methods include accreditation of professional schools and programs, publications, and certificate, licensure, or degree programs.

An issue for professional associations is whether to mandate continuing education for their members. Some associations require continuing education participation to maintain certification; others accredit specific programs of outside providers to award credit to individual professionals. Still other associations favor voluntary participation on the part of their members. Each professional association's stance on the role of continued learning for professionals will influence planning requirements, such as how CPE activities are confirmed and recorded.

When planning programs within professional associations, you have a large pool of talent from which to select the faculty, because many professionals belong to associations. Programs can be replicated at the national, state, and local levels of organization (Nowlen, 1988). Because its members are committed to continuing education, professional associations may have this advantage over other providers in marketing programs and attracting participants.

Even with these benefits, however, planning in this environment can be challenging. CPE planners tend to work with volunteer committees that change membership often. You may therefore have difficulty developing long-term plans. We know one CPE planner who must work with thirty lawyers to develop a yearly strategic plan and individual programs. Because this committee represents a diversity of opinions, program planning is very complex.

Major Providers of CPE: Advantages and Disadvantages

Institutions of higher education

Advantages

1. Reliable source of knowledge and expertise
2. Familiar and comfortable setting for professionals
3. Potential for interdisciplinary programming
4. Easy access to facilities, faculty, and media services
5. Credit and noncredit courses offered

Disadvantages

1. Reluctance of some faculty members to teach in CPE programs
2. Institutional constraints on programs
3. No natural market except alumni

Professional associations

Advantages

1. Ready-made audience; therefore, may be easier marketing
2. Familiarity with learning needs of the profession
3. Many talented members who can serve as faculty
4. Replication of programs at local, state, and national levels

Disadvantages

1. Difficulty of long-term planning because of changing membership on volunteer committees
2. Delays in reaching consensus in large committees

Employers

Advantages

1. Familiarity with day-to-day performance needs of professionals
2. Close tie between program content and application
3. Less emphasis placed on academic credentials of faculty

Disadvantages

1. Secondary importance of CPE to corporate goals
2. Irregular support of CPE

Independent providers

Advantages

1. Quick response to learners' requests and needs
2. Less need for committee approval and faculty involvement
3. Flexibility to experiment with formats and methods

Disadvantages

1. Credibility not backed by a traditional parent organization
2. Some abuse of the system
3. Lack of facilities, libraries, faculty, and other resources
4. Susceptible to changes in the marketplace and the economy

EMPLOYERS

Organizations that employ professionals range from small offices and businesses to large-scale, multinational corporations. About one third of all formal CPE programming is offered in these settings (Craig, 1976), which is probably greater than the programming offered by higher education (Cervero, 1988). For example, The Carnegie Foundation's special report "Corporate Classrooms" estimated that approximately 250,000 full-time faculty members and 500,000 adjunct faculty members provide corporate training annually (Eurich, 1985). In 1987, the annual estimated expenditure on corporate training and education was $32 million (Geber, 1987). Individuals with higher levels of education are more likely than less educated employees to participate in corporate education. For example, professionals and managers account for only 50 percent of the workforce, yet they receive an estimated 75 percent of corporate continuing education (Hofstader and Munger, 1990).

In this setting, the intended impact of your educational activities is to improve the performance of professionals to meet the corporate goals. Organizations may make explicit their expectations for employee performance. Working in a corporate setting, rather than in higher education or professional associations, you may be more aware of the day-to-day performance needs of the professionals who attend your CPE programs. Because programming can be coordinated with the daily work of employees, there may be a closer tie between program content and its application to professional performance.

Like those of other providers, employer-sponsored programs can take place in various locations such as hotels and conference centers, but they can also be offered in the workplace, which may or may not be an advantage. Although this setting is convenient, keeping professionals' attention may be difficult. Some corporations have separate centers dedicated entirely to education and training.

CPE planners in a corporate setting are generally not restricted to a specific pool of faculty members for programming. Academic credentials such as doctoral degrees are usually less important than in higher education institutions. The only limitation may be the size of the budget available for programs. For example, CPE planners often hire faculty members who are affiliated with reputable organizations and who know banking, retail, manufacturing, or some other specific area of business. Another determining factor for selecting instructors is their track record for success and the reputation of the corporations for which they have worked in the past. Knowledge of these qualities is often passed along by word of mouth.

The type and amount of support for CPE vary by employer. Some employers permit professionals to determine their own educational needs and to select the courses they wish to attend, while other employers will only pay for education that directly affects the work their professionals are doing at the time. One corporation may give its engineers time off and pay for them to attend conferences, seminars, and graduate courses that they select to attend on the basis of their own interests. The topics may or may not be directly related to their corporate work, but can be considered professional development. Other corporations, however, will do so only for topics directly related to their work and selected by management.

In many organizations, CPE often does not receive regular and steady support because it is considered secondary to the main corporate goals. This uneven support may be changing, however, because of the growing realization that keeping our workforce well educated is becoming a necessity in our rapidly changing world.

Independent Providers

A growing sector in the CPE marketplace is independent providers whose primary purpose is education. These organizations offer seminars and training sessions on such topics as stress management, computer literacy, and marketing techniques. Some focus their programming in one regional area; others take programs nationally to many cities. Some are free-standing and operate strictly as business ventures, while others are nonprofit organizations, cooperative self-help groups, and philanthropic foundations (Cervero, 1988).

In this CPE setting, you may be able to respond more quickly than other providers to learners' requests and needs. These organizations are also likely to be freer from the structure of committee approvals and faculty involvement. You may also have greater flexibility to experiment with new formats and methods. As a planner in an independent organization, you may have greater freedom to create your own identity. In comparison, university CPE providers may be constrained by tradition, and a professional association's mission may be narrow in scope. Yet in an independent organization you can use faculty members from universities and professional associations in your programs.

In some areas, however, many independent providers are at a disadvantage compared with more "traditional" sources of CPE that have greater name recognition. For example, some providers have difficulty because they lack the credibility that a parent organization may give. With the growth of regulations requiring CPE, some providers have abused the system, casting an unfavorable light on other independent providers.

In addition to working for credibility, this segment must overcome what Nowlen (1988) calls "the full-time business of selling education." Lacking the facilities, libraries, faculty, and similar resources of other providers, independent providers must "buy" these services. They are also especially susceptible to changes in the marketplace and in the economy. Recently a computer education firm had to reduce its staff by 50 percent. Its main contracts were with industries greatly affected by significant economic changes as a result of global politics.

You can do a number of things to understand the various providers, the types of programs and services they offer, the groups or professionals they serve, and whether to become involved in planning programs with them. Get on the mailing lists of these organizations to receive calendars of events such as meetings and CPE programs, program promotional pieces, and newsletters. Look for advertisements and articles in newspapers and other publications. Visit libraries and browse through organizations' professional journals. Meet your colleagues in these organizations for informal conversation about planning. Call your counterparts in related groups in your area. In addition, professionals who have attended CPE programs offered by other providers can be a good source of information. Finally, several national and regional professional organizations are devoted exclusively to continuing professional education. These groups include the National University Continuing Education Association, the American Society of Training and Development, and sections of professional associations such as the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy.

Collaboration or Competition

With the variety of providers serving similar professional populations, a question arises: Should providers collaborate or compete in programming? Because resources are scarce and each provider has its own strengths and weaknesses, collaboration is an attractive alternative. Collaboration can range from lending an organizational name for support and promotion to actively being involved on planning committees from the beginning of an idea.

An advantage of collaboration is the sharing of resources that may be unavailable to one of the providers. For example, the universities' access to faculty resources can be complemented by employers' need for CPE for their professionals. Sharing the expenses of programming is also helpful. Each provider can put up venture capital and commit personnel resources to the development of programs. Providers can share risks or deficits, as well as divide program profits. Collaboration can also involve working together on a single program or contracting to establish a continuing relationship.

Consider these two cases that illustrate successful collaboration. In the first case, an airplane manufacturer routinely brings in faculty members from the aeronautical engineering department of a major university. These faculty members are on the cutting edge of research in the field, and they work with the manufacturer's research and development department.

In the second case, a continuing education (CE) department in a college of veterinary medicine worked with the state professional association on its annual conference. As a voluntary organization, the association did not have enough staff to plan and manage the conference. The CE department not only had the personnel, but also had access to well-known faculty members and to laboratories to conduct demonstration sessions. Having the members of an association as potential program participants was attractive to the department as well as to the new dean of the college, who was trying to rebuild relationships with veterinarians across the state. For this program, the association agreed to pay the department a $2,000 administration fee to develop and oversee the conference. The college agreed to pay its faculty members to present workshops. Beyond the direct program expenses and the administrative fee, the two groups agreed to split the profits or take the losses at the end of the program. The conference was so successful that the groups developed a long-term contract with the same agreements to permit the CE department to do not only the annual conference, but also its fall small-animal symposium and spring large-animal conference.

Collaboration can have problems, however. Working with more than one organization can be cumbersome in getting approvals for program content, speakers, and promotion. One provider may have policies that directly conflict with the policies of the collaborating organizations. For example, a university may restrict the way funds can be used for faculty travel

Tips for Collaborating

1. Make an inventory of all the resources available to you through your organization.
2. List other resources you might tap into from outside your organization.
3. Identify providers in your area who have the resources you lack.
4. Sound out these providers to determine whether collaboration is feasible.
5. Draw up the terms of collaboration: resources to be shared (personnel, equipment, facilities, and the like), scheduling, financial arrangements, agreement or contract.
6. Obtain written approval from your organization and the collaborating provider.
7. If a formal contract is considered necessary, have the appropriate resources draft it.
8. Remember: the terms of any agreement, even if relatively minor, should be put in writing and signed by the parties to the agreement.

reimbursement. Furthermore, some observers believe that without open-market competition the quality of CPE programming would decline. In this view, two CPE providers competing for the same group will develop superior programs more responsive to the needs of the professionals they serve.

Despite the problems, satisfactory agreements can be reached, as the following case illustrates. Through an informal conversation, the president of a prestigious computer manufacturing corporation contacted a colleague at a research university to see whether collaborating on a project would be of interest to her. Rather than the usual project, he proposed a venture that he believed would be mutually beneficial to the university and the corporation. The firm had developed an innovative software product for architects to project drawings in three dimensions. The new computer-assisted method was sure to revolutionize the way certain designs were executed.

After years of development, the software was ready to be marketed, but the president was increasingly concerned about whether architects would buy this expensive software. He thought of a way to give financial support to the university to develop a research program and its facilities as an education site for architects to learn the new design technique. Under his plan, architects would have the opportunity to learn the new technique, become committed to its promising contribution to design, and be encouraged to buy this product after using it.

In talking about the project with his colleague, the president could see several advantages and disadvantages. The advantages to his company were many. Company staff would gain expertise in teaching architects to use the product. Their interaction with university faculty members would give them valuable feedback about the software and their teaching approach. The university setting would give credibility. The software would have the support of a prestigious university and an informal endorsement by well-known faculty members who would teach the continuing education programs. The project could be tailored to their specifications. He did recognize the disadvantage of working with a group that was not committed to selling the product. It was possible the faculty members would show not only its positive but also its negative features.

His colleague, Dr. Anne Colbert, talked with her department chair and dean of continuing professional education. In her outline of the advantages to the university, she said that the financial support, which was no object to the corporation, would give the department a needed boost in light of the recent, severe budget cuts. The project would include creative and innovative work in testing the software's value in architectural design and continuing education program development. The generous resources for equipment purchases would be useful for faculty projects. Assistant professors could do research in the area of computer-assisted design that would result in the necessary publications for tenure.

Even with the many advantages, the department head and dean had reservations that attaching a corporate name to the department's programs would be viewed as the university endorsing and selling a product. There was also concern about the public's perception of a link with one company. Both sides talked about the need for detailing costs and expectations, the pros and cons of attaching a second name by collaborating, and the ethics of the project.

The alliance was formalized. The corporation agreed that the university should reveal positive and negative aspects of the software from their tests. The company asked that all results be given first to their development department with a specified lead time so that the problems could be corrected. The university would become a continuing education site for computer-assisted training partly funded by the corporation. All programs would include several software packages, and faculty members would discuss each one in detail.

All marketing pieces would include the statement, "This continuing education program is funded in part by a grant from the [company name]." Profits from continuing education programs would be retained by the continuing education department, and 50 percent of the losses would be covered by the company. It was agreed that all advertising that included any reference to the university would be cleared by the public affairs office of the university. Expectations about the time and effort involved in creating a teaching package were detailed. The company agreed to donate enough software for student use in two architectural design classes in the graduate school. The project was begun with great enthusiasm by both parties.

Motivating factors and costs will influence you and your organization in deciding whether to collaborate in CPE programming (Cervero, 1988). The motivators include (1) the pooling of scarce resources such as money, faculty, and facilities; (2) the attitude that collaboration is the "right thing to do"; and (3) forces outside the organization, such as a government mandate, that demand cooperation. The costs of collaboration are (1) demands and constraints from other providers, (2) image problems, and (3) added time and energy to develop and implement a cosponsored program. Knowing about these factors and costs will help you decide whether to collaborate with other providers of CPE.

Chapter 4
Program Planning

Each program has a personality and character of its own. Each is unique and special to those involved. No matter what shape the program takes when the curtain goes up, there are common elements in the planning. To make each program educationally strong and useful to professionals, you need to know and use certain basic program features that will strengthen the planning process.

Planning is not always neatly divided into steps. Nor for that matter does planning progress in a specific order. Decisions are intertwined and affect the choices you make for other steps. All of your choices are affected by the situation in which you plan. Underlying all of these decisions are two important considerations: (1) Who is your audience? and (2) Why are you doing the program, including who is sponsoring the effort and what is the setting for the program?

To get to the point of presentation, experienced CPE program developers usually consider the following components in planning:

1. The basic program idea or central theme
2. The objectives and purpose to describe the program idea
3. The format and methods to provide a vehicle for presenting the program
4. The faculty to present the program and guide the learner
5. Appropriate facilities to encourage learning
6. The marketing and promotion to match the learner with the program
7. The budget to generate income and pay the expenses
8. An evaluation to judge the merits of the program

The Program Idea: The Beginning

Ideas for CPE programs start as hunches, perceptions, images, or impressions of ideal practice. They may be based on the quantitative results of a project or on the qualitative assessment of ways to improve some aspect of professional practice. You can select an idea for a program in different ways, but no one method will guarantee a great idea, and no single method is always best. The idea must be appropriate for the situation in which the program is being planned.

Ideas Based on Documented Needs

In the early stages of program development, you may come up with many ideas from many sources and then combine, reject, consolidate, and toss these ideas around before one topic emerges. You may work with a committee, several colleagues, or representatives from a content area, or respond to a mandate. Whatever the source, the idea provides the framework for all subsequent planning. The concept must be suitable for an educational program for professionals and lie within the resources of the planner and the institution sponsoring the program.

Here are eight specific sources of CPE program ideas or ways to identify needs for courses.

Professional Standards

Some programs evolve from a systematic review of standard professional practices and may explain or illustrate practice as recommended by experts. On the basis of a review, you can work with professionals to assess the current practice, obstacles to good practice, and ways to improve what is often done. Advisers may note problems with each part of a practice, for example. If your exploration identifies a deficiency in knowledge or skill, a program can be planned to fill this gap. For example, a program might be planned to disseminate information about federal tax rules that accountants often forget. Without more knowledge of these rules or a reminder about appropriate use, accountants may miss ways to serve clients more competently.

New Information

New information may expand or alter current practice. This may be the case, for example, with a new interpretation of a law that regulates the range of services a school system must provide. The information may be critical to educational administrators, teachers, and academicians involved with education.

The passage of Public Law 94-142 changed the way special education programs were delivered by school districts. Under this law, each handicapped child is guaranteed that an appropriate free education is available. This education should be provided within the "least restrictive environment." State officials have interpreted this federal law to mean that these children should be "mainstreamed" into regular classrooms settings. The information is critical to administrators, teachers, and academicians involved with this special education. Many questions are open to interpretation: Can regular educators meet the needs of these students? What effect do these children have in the classroom? How does this situation affect the self-esteem of the handicapped children?

Requests from Professionals

Program ideas often originate with a specific request you receive from professionals who are excited about something new or different. They may approach their professional associations, universities, professional schools, or places of employment for a program to address a particular topic. A large insurance firm has received a number of requests from employees for more information about pending legislation, possible new regulations, and the company stance on whether there is discrimination by gender in life insurance. The firm asks you to develop a program that would explain the current policy, outline potential changes, including a description of the issues raised by the state and federal governments, and describe the organizational policy to clients.

Problems in Professional Practice

A specific problem in professional practice may lead to requests for new information or an interpretation of current understanding. A student was scheduled to return to elementary school after a medical leave for complications of AIDS. Some teachers requested more information about how to work with such students in the classroom. The group wanted information about infection, psychological aspects of terminal disease for the individual and the group, teaching techniques to introduce the topic to other students, and guidelines for creating a positive learning experience.

Outside Sources of Expertise

Sometimes professionals cannot state the source of a problem in their practice. As circular as it sounds, it is difficult to know what you don't know. Other sources such as experts, other groups of professionals, and academic departments can help provide ideas. You can lead in defining problems and recommending programs. A study on day care and development of children, just released from a major university, recommended policies for day care facilities. The study, based on research, demonstrated that some types of policies were in conflict with the best interests of the children. The chair of the department has asked you to help plan a program that would be of interest to practitioners.

Unanticipated Issues

Some program requests are not quite what they seem at first glance. In working with professionals, you identify a problem and a program idea. Careful attention to description of a program idea may uncover unanticipated issues. For example, a regional professional association wants to offer a program on advanced nursing techniques in trauma care. The idea arose from the group's sense that rural hospitals in the area were experiencing serious problems in trauma care. The number of patients transferred from smaller hospitals to the regional trauma center seemed high. After interviewing nurses in the region, you discover that lack of knowledge about nursing care in the trauma unit is not the primary problem. Three issues come to light: lack of confidence in current expertise; communication problems among nurses, physicians, and administrators; and poor contacts with the regional center for advice and expertise. You refocus the program to address these problems.

Comparison of Activities and Practices

Program ideas may emerge when professionals compare continuing education activities in other locations. Setting up comparable programs in your area sounds appealing. A similar pattern of ideas may also emerge by comparing differences in professional practices. Literature is another source for comparison. At their national professional meeting, a small group of mental health workers heard the author of a new book talk about her innovative ideas for short-term psychotherapy. Because the book has been a topic of conversation and interest locally, you could invite the author to participate in a program in your area.

Future Needs of Professionals

An idea for a program may be triggered by an anticipated future need of a professional group. For example, office managers in a data processing company are anticipating the installation of a new phone and data system next year. As a consultant, you can work with the human resource department to develop and implement programs to teach staff members how to use the new technology.

These eight frames can help planners to "scan" for CPE program ideas, but you can build additional ways to look for ideas into your own routine. Using formal methods to scan the field, you can do the following:

1. Review the professional and popular literature.
2. Look at new policies or regulations.

3. Interpret practice audits or performance reviews.
4. Survey professionals.
5. Set up discussion time with groups of professionals.
6. Interview experts.
7. Poll past participants in similar programs.
8. Analyze job tasks.
9. Evaluate past programs.
10. Assess results of meetings.

These methods can be supplemented very powerfully by more informal methods. You can watch and listen, walk around, talk informally at work, and stay in touch with colleagues so that you can be aware of the professional environment as it shifts and changes. You can then use this information to identify ongoing problems, new techniques, new equipment, emerging trends, and interests and concerns, all of which lead to program ideas.

Not all ideas can be addressed by an educational program. Choosing the best approach is sometimes obvious; at other times the decision is more difficult. Some ideas must be addressed by administrative action or changes in regulations, for example. Not all ideas are of interest to the potential audience. Management may be interested in one thing for its workers, while the workers may be interested in something else. Issues may divide professionals in ways that make program planning difficult. To complicate planning situations, not all program ideas can be completed with local resources. Some ideas that require new learning may be best addressed by individuals in self-study, academic course work, research, or other learning activities.

Your background research filters out ideas. Here are some questions to use as checkpoints when you consider a new idea:

1. Can the idea be addressed by new learning?
2. If so, is it appropriate for a formal CPE activity? Would another form of learning match the idea better?
3. Are professionals in your area interested in participating? Is there a market?
4. Are other agencies interested in contributing to the development of the program? Would that be useful?
5. What aspects of the idea can be developed into a CPE program?

6. Is the idea appropriate for your organization to provide?

An idea begins with a need or interest expressed by the learner, planner, or organization. You can use many approaches, many angles or techniques for needs assessment when looking for a central theme (see appendix A). The next step in planning—stating the purpose and objectives—helps you shape the idea into what will evolve into the program.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of a program, clearly stated, allows planners, faculty members, learners, and resource people to work together with common expectations toward a common goal. Often the purpose is stated in a paragraph that provides an overview and conveys the program's focus to potential participants and their employers, who may fund participation. With a draft of the program purpose in hand, you or a planning group can begin to translate the program idea into specific presentations.

A needs assessment survey found that office personnel were interested in purchasing new equipment to typeset the departmental newsletter on a personal computer. The planning committee met to decide which questions related to the project could be answered by an educational offering. After much discussion among themselves and their colleagues, the group decided that a program needed to encompass a demonstration of the new equipment (hardware and software), a list of competing companies, and some of the pros and cons of typesetting within the office. The purpose was drafted as follows:

> This program is designed for participants to observe a demonstration of a newsletter layout, talk about the pros and cons of desktop publishing, and determine whether the system is appropriate for each individual's department. Participants will list differences among products.

To continue planning, you will usually develop objectives, which help to define the purpose of the program in specific terms. Objectives are statements about what participants can expect to learn by attending a program (see appendix B). The objectives not only help participants understand the program purpose, but are useful in helping faculty members understand what to do in their teaching. These statements promote the program and are an essential part of many accreditation documents sent to professional associations that control CPE credit.

Three objectives were drafted for the desktop publishing example above. Each participant will:

1. Observe a demonstration of a newsletter layout
2. Discuss the pros and cons of desktop publishing
3. Analyze the differences among the products of companies A, B, and C

Many sources of information describe how to write traditional educational objectives. Here is one way to begin. Objectives state in concrete, measurable terms what a professional will be able to do after participating in a CPE activity. Objectives are classified into three categories: (1) cognitive, (2) affective, and (3) psychomotor.

The *cognitive domain* includes knowledge, understanding, or thinking skills that are not necessarily readily observable by another individual. The following verbs are often used to write objectives: discover, predict, relate, solve, select, summarize, appraise, compare, criticize, discriminate, interpret. The *affective domain* describes attitudes and interests. Verbs for objectives include: choose, describe, identify, discuss, practice, differentiate, explain, justify, propose, synthesize, discriminate, perform, solve. The *psychomotor domain* describes physical and motor skills. Appropriate verbs for objectives include: build, calibrate, change, compose, correct, design, manipulate, sketch.

The desktop publishing example might address each domain as follows:

An example of a *cognitive* objective is: *Understand the layout system when used in developing newsletters.* In this case, participants will be expected to use knowledge or thought processes.

An example of an *affective* objective is: *Discriminate among products by stating three pros and cons for each software package.* On the basis of their knowledge, participants will select a product in a context. Going beyond just knowing, they will apply their knowledge in this situation.

An example of a *psychomotor* objective is: *Practice using the equipment to produce a newsletter that matches stated criteria.* Skills are usually important. Practice may be critical.

Within each domain there is a hierarchy of tasks in learning. Simply listing three pros and three cons for a system is not as complex as discriminating among products on the basis of the pros and cons for using the system in one's own department. In the end, objectives are useful for conveying and clarifying information so that planners, participants, and faculty begin a program with a common understanding.

The purpose and objectives clarify and shape the learning project on the basis of information gained in assessing needs and interests. They create common expectations for developing a program and the outcomes that may be expected from it.

Selecting a Format and Method

The program format is the method of presenting the program content. To be effective, the format must be consistent with the purpose and objectives of the program. Examples of formats include lecture, group discussion, panel discussion, case study, field or clinical experience, laboratory, and individualized program learning. Each is described in appendix C.

All formats have advantages and disadvantages in certain situations. For example, a lecture provides a great deal of information in a short time to a large number of professionals. A small group discussion can allow practice in problem-solving skills among professionals under the expert guidance of a faculty member. A laboratory or clinical session gives participants the opportunity to practice a new procedure. A lecture can be ineffective for learning a new procedure if practice is essential to the learning process.

In choosing a format, consider several factors. The purpose and objectives directly define some aspects of the format. The way professionals will use the learning in their practice also shapes your decision. "Demonstrate" implies watching the equipment or process or work in action. For example, engineers in a corporation who are expected to use computer-assisted design may find that watching an expert demonstrating the process, followed by time for each participant to practice, is often more useful than reading about a process. "Analyze" implies examining, discriminating, and judging. Judges may find a debate over the application of law on a specific case more useful than hearing a lecture about the potential use of a new law. Listening to a variety of interpretations from their colleagues may help judges to examine their own original interpretation.

Another point to think about is that professionals develop preferences for learning activities. Some faculty members and participants may be unwilling to experiment with different formats. Discuss with faculty members the various formats that will meet the needs of your audience.

Consider other questions as well. What is the size of your group? Do you have appropriate facilities such as a large lecture hall or laboratory space for using a particular method? What are the costs of the materials and the financial resources available? What are the preferences and expectations of the group you are working with? Are your faculty members skilled in the use of a selected method? How much time is scheduled? What is the skill level of your audience? What will be the basis for evaluating the program?

The format must be consistent with the purpose of the program and the available resources. Choice of format is based on several factors:

- *Purpose and objectives of the learning activity*
- *Expected outcomes or basis for evaluation*
- *Allotted time*
- *Available resources*

Faculty Selection

Selecting a faculty is one of the most critical factors in determining program success, because faculty members provide the expertise central to encouraging new learning. In the selection process, three criteria are critical:

1. Expertise in the subject area
2. Ability to convey the material in a style that is appropriate for the audience
3. Willingness, and even eagerness, to work with professionals as they learn

A faculty member's expertise in a subject area is essential. That expertise must include experience with practical application. To teach in higher education, faculty members typically have an advanced degree. In continuing education, faculty members are sometimes chosen for their experience in the field, rather than for their academic credentials. Look for expertise from both the academic community and the professional community. Search for faculty members by asking professionals on the planning committee and those in practice whom they consult when problems arise.

We know an agricultural economics professor who is not only an expert in his field of farm tax law, but is also committed to disseminating correct information about law changes and their effect for tax preparation to accountants. This professor's research is respected because of the mathematical theoretical models he has developed for predicting tax effects in the agricultural field. He is talented in translating these theories into very practical information and delivering it to practitioners. His style is lively and pragmatic, and his commitment is obvious. He is challenged and excited by accountants who wish to argue about application based on their extensive experience. His expertise and enthusiasm for teaching earns him high marks on evaluations.

Requirements for accreditation may influence the faculty selection process. Some accrediting agencies detail the types of credentials that faculty members must have. To obtain credit for a program, you must know what the requirements are for faculty members' credentials.

Many professionals are experts in their area, but have not developed the ability to convey information to program participants. Some professionals enjoy helping colleagues and have developed their teaching skills by informal contacts. Others become involved in teaching as a regular part of their professional activities. Planners can enlist professionals with varying degrees of expertise in teaching. For example, professionals who have content expertise but do not feel confident of their teaching ability or are not interested in teaching groups may be involved with one-on-one options or breakout sessions. As panel members, they can respond to questions. Professionals who are not comfortable speaking to large groups may wish to be part of an informal meet-the-professor session from 7:00 to 8:00 a.m. While coffee is served, participants can talk with these experts about individual problems.

On the other hand, some professionals may wish to develop their teaching ability. You can help them polish their teaching by including them in planning, giving them information about how adults learn, and talking about the variety of possible formats. A chance to meet with the planning committee or others in the field may help a faculty member to focus material more sharply for an audience.

Finally, effective faculty members must appreciate and understand participants as adult learners. A key consideration is the experience of the learners. A faculty expert with one teaching style and one set of teaching materials is probably not going to meet the specific needs of the participants in your program. An interest in how adults learn, a desire for more information about the audience for a specific program, past experiences in programming, and excitement about working with colleagues are all positive signs that an expert will be able to work well with a group. Planners can look for faculty members who are excited about the enthusiasm and commitment of professionals who continue to learn. Strong faculty members want more information rather than less.

To help ensure success for your program, you will work closely with faculty members. You must be sure they are clear about the format and teaching patterns that will meet the needs of your target audience. Help them with instructional techniques if you have the resources and if the faculty members request help. Participants like handouts. They provide an easy outline for notetaking and a way to review the course content later. They can also be shared with colleagues and serve as a source of informal advertising for your programs. Audiovisual requirements must be clear. Slides must be readable and to the point. Set a deadline to receive all teaching materials well in advance of the program to allow time for reproduction.

Many organizations require a curriculum vitae or resume to apply for credit. You may also use biographical information for promotional copy and introductions at the program. If an honorarium is offered, you will need to negotiate the amount and terms for payment. Details for travel are also important. Your institution may require limits for travel and a preference for who makes the arrangements. A letter outlining all of these details for the faculty member is essential.

Select faculty members for their expertise in the field, their ability to teach, and their interest in working with colleagues

Facilities

The facilities must fit the program. Having noted the obvious, what do you do? Professionals can learn in many settings and at varying times. A planner can enhance the learning process and eliminate distractions by selecting facilities appropriate for the program content, the faculty members, and the participants. Selecting a facility may seem of minor importance compared with the educational content of the program, but professionals have many competing roles. Busy schedules often result in stress, fatigue, divided interests, and unfinished business. A comfortable environment that is easily accessible with few distractions will help participants to focus on the program.

Do the facilities match the objectives of the program? If laboratory or practice areas are needed, an auditorium will not work. If small groups are necessary for discussing case studies, that same auditorium will still not work. The size of the room, the seating arrangement, and general comfort are part of the decision.

Elements of the learning environment include the sound system, lights, level of background noise, type of seats, and surrounding area. All participants must be able to hear and see the faculty members. Age, fatigue, and low interest level will all interfere with the ability to hear and see. A dark room makes it difficult to take notes and may be conducive to sleep rather than participation. The same room with dimmed lights may help. The ability to regulate the lights is just one of those small but important parts of selecting a facility.

Outside noises such as traffic, another meeting, or kitchen activities can interfere with learning. As the band strikes up to encourage higher sales next door, the group in your room may tune out. When making reservations, ask about the space around your meeting room. Is the space reserved? What type of groups will be in the rooms? How does the facility control noise? Where is the kitchen? When does the staff prepare the room for lunch? How are last-minute requests handled?

The format of the program dictates the seating arrangements, comfort of the seats, and the number of rooms needed. If participants are asked to sit for long periods of time, the seats must be comfortable. Is there a place to write? Is there space for tables? Pacing of the program is closely integrated with the available space. Appropriate rooms are needed to divide a day or several days of lectures with breakout sessions, labs, and practice sessions. (See appendix D for suggested seating arrangements.)

You need to consider other questions: Where will coffee be served, and how will the breaks be set up? Have you ordered enough stations to serve coffee, tea, and juice? Do members of the group have special dietary needs? Are restrooms and pay phones readily available? Is parking close by? What are the faculty's equipment needs (for example, audiovisual equipment, computers, laboratory provisions)?

Select facilities that fit the objectives of the program, the format, and the size of the group.

Evaluation

Evaluation is a systematic technique for judging the worth or merit of programs. An evaluation plan begins with the program idea and develops as the purpose and objectives become more detailed. Evaluation gives the planner a way to decide if the purpose and objectives were met, and it is usually required in the accreditation process.

The topic of evaluation is so complex that some educators specialize in this area. But a few guidelines will help you untangle the complexity so that you can get started on an evaluation plan.

1. Build the evaluation into the beginning of the planning process. As objectives are set, make decisions about the purpose, form, and feasibility of an evaluation. Start it as soon as you begin planning.

2. Make the evaluation fit the purpose of the program. Be clear about what you want to know. Precision in defining the questions on the form will strengthen the quality of the evaluation.

3. Know who wants the results. The audience for evaluation results may be broad. Funders, administrators, planners, consumers, accreditation

boards, and professional associations may all have questions they would like answered by an evaluation. Define the audience who will receive the evaluation.

4. Use evaluations to refine programs that will be presented again.

5. Think broadly. There are many measurement techniques. Evaluations need not only be used at the end of a program. For example, formative evaluations can be conducted during a program to make mid-course adjustments. Summative evaluations are conducted at the end of a program. Those results can be useful in revamping programs to be presented again.

There are many forms of evaluation and many measurement techniques. One of the most common is an assessment of participant satisfaction with the program. This type of evaluation is often required by accrediting agencies. Here are some questions that you might ask:

- Were the objectives met?
- Was the level of material appropriate for your needs?
- Were the lectures relevant to your practice?
- Was the meeting room comfortable?
- Was the schedule convenient?

Participant satisfaction provides information about future offerings, more detail about the audience, and a check of the planning process. Appendix E lists several examples of questions.

A second form of evaluation focuses on the learner's mastery of the content. Evaluating mastery may take the form of a knowledge test or a performance assessment. The purpose and objectives of the course, in the context of audience and budget, dictate the evaluation. If mastery of new knowledge or review of previously acquired knowledge is the issue, pre-tests and post-tests may be useful. These tests can be administered on paper, by learner demonstration, or in more elaborate computer-aided designs. Computer-assisted instruction may provide a more interesting and complex test that includes immediate feedback.

Performance assessment may be necessary to complete the program. Testing can occur at the program site through techniques such as simulation, case study discussion, paper tests, or laboratory sessions. In some cases, performance assessment at the work site may be feasible and more desirable than at the program site.

Sound evaluation can be a difficult process. Often the available resources and expertise may not match up with what you would like to do. In planning, evaluation is one point where your creativity may be particularly useful. For example, a telephone follow-up of a sample of participants over time may give you a new look into why a technique has or has not been successful. After the course, a postcard asking for the three most important points learned from the program may give you a new view of the audience. Observation during the program can give you valuable information about how participants are responding to the program content and format.

Evaluation judges the merits of a program.

Marketing and Promotion

The most carefully planned program has little value if all the seats are empty, or if the wrong people fill the seats. All programs require promotion. Promotion is the point at which the program is matched with the audience. Potential learners can consider only those programs they know about. Marketing is intended to provide the audience with enough information about a program to allow a choice about participation. When participants have no choice, but are required to attend a program mandated for employees, marketing may help shape their attitude and generate enthusiasm.

Information must be communicated to the potential audience in an effective manner. Some of the methods you can use are newsletters, notices on bulletin boards, computer networks, postcards, flyers, radio and TV announcements, and newspaper advertisements. One of the most common ways to convey information is the brochure.

Brochures

Brochures are often used to publicize a program because through them you can provide detailed information to the intended audience. Your brochure should begin with the purpose and objectives of the course. The schedule of presentations supplies the details. And a list or description of the faculty and resources rounds out the program information. Other critical information includes the location of facilities, cost, anda description of the intended audience. Details about deadlines, penalties, method of payment, prerequisites, limitations on the number of participants, and emergency phone numbers are also important.

You must develop the brochure early enough to allow time for distribution. Often the time frame is between ten and twenty weeks, but an international meeting might require a year's notice. Typically a local evening session requires a lead time of about ten or twelve weeks. Keep in mind that, although bulk mailing is less expensive, it takes more time.

The design of the brochure must reflect the purpose of the program. You need to select an appropriate size, shape, and layout design. One school of thought says that a flyer in an envelope enhances the chance that the flyer will be read because people will open the envelope. Another school of thought says that an attractive cover or a distinctive design will make the flyer stand out in a pile of mail. Simple experiments can help you work out the plan that suits your programs. Computer graphics are a new source of help for creating art work for brochures.

Draw up a checklist to ensure that nothing is forgotten. Create a list of the pieces of information essential to the brochure or marketing piece. Then check the final draft against the list.

Other ways to enhance marketing include having the course director write a personal letter describing the program, using comments from past participants in the advertising copy, listing advantages gained by attending, or including other good reasons for attending. An invitation to attend may be a welcome change. The combination of a letter and a brochure may encourage enrollment. Comments from past participants may catch attention, and the results of past evaluations may sway potential participants to attend.

As you develop the brochure, decide how you can find your intended audience. Are membership lists for local or national societies available? Will employers provide names of potential participants? Are registration lists from previous programs available for use? Can commercial mailing houses provide mailing labels of professionals who fit the profile of your intended audience? Can you determine the audience by their zip codes or states?

Other Marketing Strategies

The brochure can form the basis for developing other marketing strategies. Announcements for the media can be written from the brochure. In some cases, you can invite newspaper, radio, or TV reporters to attend part of the program. You can stir up interest with a few exciting program summaries, particularly about emerging ideas or technology. Community investment in professional programs can be a strong source of support. A cover letter outlining your purpose in providing the program, along with a brochure sent to leaders in the community or to influential people in the profession, can help you secure support from another source.

In the end, marketing is intended to present your program in its best, most exciting light without being inaccurate. Think creatively about what is important to the potential learners.

Marketing matches the program with the audience.

Budget

The budget looks at the financial resources necessary to provide a continuing education program. After selecting a topic and obtaining some agreement about faculty, schedule, and location, you must develop a plan to generate funds to cover the expenses. The easiest way to begin is in three steps:

1. Estimate how many participants will attend your program.
2. List necessary costs.
3. Design a plan to generate the income to cover the costs.

Step-by-step instructions for preparing a budget, a sample form, and a completed example are presented in appendix F. The advantage of carefully preparing a financial plan in the early stages is that you will have a good sense of how to control expenditures.

Estimates of Attendance

The first step is to estimate the number of participants likely to attend the program. Begin by carefully defining the intended audience. Will the audience be a general group, a specialty group, or an interdisciplinary group? Is the scope of the program local, regional, or national? For example, the nursing profession includes many people in a wide variety of positions, but neurosurgical nurses are a much smaller group. Similarly, data processing includes many people, but there is a great deal of specialization within the field. On the other hand, actuaries are at best few in number. Some programs will appeal to an interdisciplinary group. For example, a program was presented on innovative management of commercial real estate in a depressed market to an interdisciplinary group of insurance professionals, accountants, lawyers, and financial planners.

Next, put numbers by each group included. Mailing lists of professional associations and state and national organizations can help you estimate these numbers.

The size of the audience may be limited by the time of day, day of the week, size of the room, the costs of attending, and the format. Can a professional group attend during work hours, or are they willing to take a weekend for a program? A lab session or workshop will accommodate only a few at each session. A lecture with time for questions is limited only by the size of the room.

The enthusiasm of the planning group sometimes makes it difficult to think of reasons why everyone will not come. But you must be ruthless when trying to estimate attendance accurately. Chat with colleagues, check numbers from past programs, be aware of the volume of competing activities, and assess the attitude of employers.

Once you estimate the number of possible participants, add a low and a high estimate so that you have three attendance estimates: low, medium, and h (see budget forms in appendix F). If, for example, a group of 20 is anticipated, the estimates might be for 15, 20, and 25 participants. If the estimate is that 75 people will attend, budgeting might be worked out for 50, 75, and 100 participants. The projections are helpful in determining the point at which each program will break even financially. A cancellation point can be predetermined to lessen risk.

Costs

First make a list of all costs that will be part of the program. The list in the budget form in appendix F may be helpful. Fixed costs will remain constant regardless of the number of participants at the program. These costs include such expenses as brochure development, printing, and mailing, and speaker charges and travel. Variable costs change with the number of participants. These costs include meals, handouts, and notebooks.

Administrative costs for staff time are difficult to assess accurately. Services for correspondence, secretarial time, telephone calls to planning committee members, and committee meeting time are examples of administrative expenses. Two methods can be used to deal with administrative costs: (1) establish an administrative overhead charge for each instructional hour or for each participant, or (2) assess a percentage of the registration fee or program cost. There is a direct relationship between the size and scope of a program and the time necessary for administrative work. The cost may vary with the special needs of the program. Here are examples of each method:

Example 1

35 participants each pay $35 for a 3-hour evening session. The administrative charge is $1 per hour.

$35 \times 3 \times \$1 = \$105$ for administrative costs

Example 2

The administrative cost is 10 percent.
$35 \times \$35 \times 0.10 = \$122.50$

The income is $1,225 with $122.50 for administrative costs.

Sources of Income

The registration fee is the usual source of income to cover the cost of a program. Other possibilities include a grant from an employer or from industry, or dues from a professional society. To determine the registration fee, the program coordinator must have some sense of registration fees charged for other courses, the complexity of this particular program, and the costs. If you use three estimates (low, medium, and high), the midpoint may be used as the break-even point.

If the registration fee seems excessive for a local group, you might consider seeking alternative sources of funding to partly offset expenses. But careful thought is critical before you solicit and accept outside funds. Conflict of interest issues, even if they are only apparent but not real, may determine how potential participants view your program. Although you may be an impartial, authoritative source for a specific content issue, accepting commercial funds could alter participants' perceptions of your impartiality.

During the marketing and registration phase of program planning, watch expenses. Check estimates and update new charges. Have a predetermined cancellation date and point.

After the program, all bills must be collected as quickly as possible. The budget sheet can be used as an official record of actual attendance, expenses, and income. This information can, in turn, be used to budget more accurately for the next program.

The budget maps out the necessary financial resources to provide a CPE program.

Chapter 5
Putting Knowledge and Skills to Work

A professional who has been asked to plan the yearly educational program for his department was overheard to say, "Why does everyone think planning continuing education programs is so easy? Just because you're a professional in a field doesn't mean you can automatically plan a program for your colleagues." Many people think they know a great deal about education because they have experienced it. But those of us who have worked in the field know that effective program planning takes knowledge and skills that are developed over time.

As a CPE planner with expertise, you will increase the likelihood of helping to provide the highest quality continuing education. The intent of this book is to help individuals sort out the knowledge and skills needed in program planning. This final chapter focuses on what you need to know and when to use it.

The Range of CPE Situations

So far we have stressed the similarities in what CPE planners do. Two important areas are (1) the knowledge of the field of CPE or its theoretical and research base, and (2) the necessary skills and specific tasks that must be carried out. Having both a strong knowledge base and the skills are essential to planning quality programs.

Program planning is not just a recipe or a cookbook. An analysis and understanding of your specific situation and profession are critical pieces. Most programs require the same components, but, depending on your own situation, you will need to decide which proficiencies are the most useful and which ones you need to develop. A first step is to decide your level of commitment and interest. Will you be planning only one program, or will you be involved in many programs over a period of time? Are you the only person doing the planning, or are several other people planning programs with you?

Let's consider several types of situations. An accountant who has volunteered to plan and develop the annual tax law update for her regional professional society will be involved in only one program this year. It is not unusual, however, for professionals to be assigned CPE duties as part of their regular salaried position. For example, one nurse we know in a regional medical center is assigned 25 percent of her position to develop CPE programs for trauma care nurses through the Staff Development Office. Finally, some individuals have made a commitment to CPE as a career and work full time in planning and developing programs. One example is a minister who has left his congregation to develop midcareer renewal seminars at the national level for his religious organization.

Each of these situations may require different kinds of resources, including knowing when to call in other sorts of professionals to help you. If you are involved in only a small number of programs, you may wish to develop contacts to help you plan. A person with a strong background in adult learning or with expertise in developing objectives will make the planning process more efficient. If you have made the commitment to expand your expertise in these areas, you may want help in budgeting or marketing from someone with more experience than you have. Part of planning is knowing when you know something and when to get help.

Any number of people can be involved in planning CPE programs. If only one person is doing the planning, he or she will have to oversee all of the related tasks. However, when several people are involved, you may want to specialize or assign responsibilities on the basis of experience and level of expertise. One person can oversee the programming details such as carrying out the multiple tasks of CPE planning, handling continuing education credit-specific tasks, tracking the printing of brochures and instructional materials through the system, collecting curriculum vitae and handout materials from faculty members, negotiating program site arrangements, and registering participants.

Another individual might be responsible for a greater conceptualization of CPE planning such as working on a program idea to develop it as a CPE topic, leading an advisory committee, developing a promotion plan, crafting a program budget, contacting faculty members to negotiate program content and honoraria, and designing an evaluation. Yet another person can provide the necessary leadership for CPE planning by establishing an environment for planning, overseeing budgets, making staff assignments, working with external constituencies, and setting policies.

Knowledge Base of CPE

Depending on your own situation, you can decide what is important for you to know about CPE. One area to start with is a perspective of the field so that you and your colleagues will be using common definitions when you work together (Knox, 1979). CPE as a subset of the field of CE has its own knowledge base drawn from a variety of disciplines and fields.

In one study of continuing medical education, four broad types of competencies emerged: education, administration, business, and field-specific knowledge (Bennett and Mann, 1990). In the field of education, CPE as a subset of continuing education is relatively unique in the need for business, sometimes entrepreneurial, knowledge and skills. Because CPE programming is often self-supporting, knowledge in marketing, negotiating, and financial management are essential. You probably will need to develop some understanding in these areas. These skills often set those involved in CPE apart from other areas of the educational system.

CPE planners can draw upon the literature in sociology, history, psychology, and education to learn how groups have come to be considered professions and the process of how individuals become part of the group. Each profession has specific issues surrounding professionalization that contribute to its own culture. Growing out of this literature are specific issues related to education, accreditation, and regulation that are relevant for CPE planning. In addition, general theories about how adults learn have been applied specifically to professionals (Cervero, 1988; Cervero and Scanlan, 1985; Houle, 1980). Such fields as engineering, social work, nursing, and medicine have journals to disseminate research about CPE. A body of literature focusing on adult, career, and professional development helps us to understand the stages and phases in a professional's life and how learning and educational activities are relevant at these points (Knox, 1977; Kimmel, 1980; Schein, 1978).

The area of program development is a major focus of the knowledge base for continuing professional educators. CPE systems based on designing educational objectives are often the basis for accreditation in CPE (Tyler, 1950; Houle, 1972). A solid foundation in educational planning and evaluation is an important planner proficiency. Other areas you will find useful include marketing (Simerly and Assoc., 1989); the mechanics of meeting and conference planning, budgeting, and financing (Simerly, 1990); and alternative delivery systems such as satellite, correspondence study, and teleconferencing.

At all levels of CPE planning, knowing about organizations is valuable. The literature of organizational theory can be particularly useful. As an administrator of CPE programs you must know about leadership, strategic planning, and organizational environments and cultures.

General CPE Planner Skills

Simply knowing about specific areas in CPE is not enough unless you can translate that knowledge into action (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982). You will need skills to help you make the transition from theory to the actual program. For example, in all CPE planning we need to work effectively with others (Knox, 1979). Because planners often must depend upon others for resources such as faculty members, finances, services, and facilities, the ability to influence and work with people is essential. Communicating ideas about programs and negotiating differences about what will work best is critical.

One CPE planner we know was asked by a corporation to produce a series of videotapes on a complex area of tax planning. She was aware that the nationally renowned expert in the field at her university was not an effective instructor. In addition to speaking on the videotape about his subject matter, he insisted on being the narrator for the other presentations. In the best interest of the project, the planner had to work diplomatically with him to develop his presentation and instructional design skills. She also helped him to understand that the important role of the narrator needed to be filled by another person.

Paying close attention to details, being able to plan a project, and staying on a timetable will make a big difference. One program coordinator had planned a three-day conference for managers. He knew that the topic was very timely and popular and had estimated that 150 people would attend. He had contracted for the best conference facilities in town and had reserved a block of guest rooms that were to be held until three weeks before the conference. A week before the conference, the office was flooded with phone calls. When the last-minute registrants tried to make room reservations, they learned that not only were there no rooms in the conference hotel, but all other hotels in town were filled. One problem? The coordinator had failed to specify the deadline for hotel reservations in the brochure. One small error months earlier had cost the program a number of participants. Appendix G presents a list to help you plan the necessary tasks, a timetable, and an assignment checklist for CPE program planning.

Unique Planning Needs

In developing programs for professionals, CPE planners must be ready to respond to issues from various sources. Each situation presents its own unique needs and challenges for a different approach to planning and requires varying knowledge and skills. To construct excellent programs, we must sift through the issues.

A program often calls for keeping a group up-to-date. These programs may take place shortly after an event that has or will soon affect professional practice, or they can take place at regular times to update information. The introduction of a new regulation or the development of an innovation may be the focus for an update. The primary goal of this type of programming is to disseminate new information.

Examples of Program Needs

One state legislature has recently passed sweeping reforms in the state tax law that will affect small businesses. Accountants need this information to change the way they prepare tax returns of clients who own small businesses in the state. A CPE planner in a state university has been asked to develop a program disseminating information about the legislation, how small businesses must comply with the laws, and the types of forms each business will be required to file. In the update program, the planner needs to know which experts in the field are most knowledgeable about the topic, set objectives for the program, communicate the expectations to the faculty members, make meeting arrangements, and evaluate the program. Because accountants are required to participate in a specific number of hours of CPE programs annually to maintain their certification, the planner must apply for and receive the appropriate credit.

In another program, the state legislature has recently passed a regulation requiring all dentists to complete a course on AIDS and the dentists' role in detection, treatment, and prevention before July 1. As of December 1 (seven months before the deadline), the state subcommittee of health professions regulation had still not specified the type of course and the number of hours to be required for the dentists. Because the university has the only college of dentistry in the state, the office of continuing education has an obligation to respond quickly with a program to fulfill the state's requirements.

A variety of issues make this program a very difficult task. The planner needs to know how many hours are required for dentists to keep their licenses. Furthermore, it takes at least three or four months of planning to allow for facility booking, faculty negotiation, and printing and mailing brochures. The program planning must begin immediately to meet the state's requirement. The CPE planner faces some dilemmas: Should the office develop the program and take the risk that it may not satisfy the regulations? Or should the planners wait until the final details are available and take the risk that the program cannot be ready before the July 1 deadline?

The professional role of the pharmacist is rapidly changing, especially in hospitals. As drugs become more and more complex, the problems of drug interactions, overprescribing, and underprescribing are becoming critical.

In many health care institutions, pharmacists are moving from the role of simply dispensing drugs into the consultative role as a member of the health care team. They are recommending drug choices and dosage levels and are monitoring patients' responses and compliance with drug therapy.

Planning programs to assist with this new, expanded role is very different from updating information useful for the old role. A number of issues are important to pharmacists, such as helping patients understand their medication needs, working as consultants on the health care team, knowing about the effectiveness of commercial and generic drugs, outlining how medications are administered in each area of the hospital, discussing the ethics of, for example, dealing with pharmaceutical companies and the use of drugs in hospitals, and understanding new legal liabilities.

A manufacturing firm contacted a consulting organization because the corporation was having problems with improper use of a custom-designed computer system to process orders. In fact, the managers often did not use this system at all, favoring instead the old paper requisition system. Designed to save time and money, the system was installed to keep the company competitive. The vice president in charge of sales wanted a consultant to work with the managers to teach them and their staffs how to use the system to facilitate the work. But he also wanted the consultant to analyze the managers' resistance to the computer system, assist in selecting the best equipment and solutions, map out the workload, and set appropriate procedures for the organization.

Examples of Program Solutions

Each one of these situations presented a different challenge to CPE planners and called for different types of knowledge and skills. As the examples suggest, CPE has to meet many different goals (Scanlan, 1985) and serve various audiences. Goals may be set by the individual practitioner, regulatory agencies, state licensing boards, professional groups, or employers. In the first example, a CPE planner is trying to meet the information needs of accountants to help them remain competent and stay within the legal standards. The learning approach may be very straightforward: identify a faculty member to deliver an update lecture about the tax law. This is one of the most common formats in CPE. But to complete the program, you must also use business skills such as budgeting, negotiating contracts, arranging for facilities, and marketing.

In the AIDS regulation, the state presented the college of dentistry with an opportunity for programming that was filled with ambiguous demands and constraints. Political savvy and leadership are critical. To meet society's needs, working with government officials and key individuals in state dental associations may be the starting point for planning a CPE program. The office can deliver the programs through conferences, professional association meetings, or a home study video course, but needs additional clarification to proceed with planning. Planners may want to take the lead in providing an innovative response to the new regulation. If a program claims to meet the requirements for the new state regulation but fails to do so, the office could lose credibility.

Other programs must be directed toward the needs of the profession, as in the case of pharmacists' changing professional role. Didactic and lecture methods alone may not change behavior, especially when long-term patterns of professional practice are entrenched. To shift roles, pharmacists who are used to only dispensing drugs may need time to discuss issues about the new role, observe clinical pharmacists working on interprofessional teams in health care institutions, and test their new knowledge in supervised clinical practica. While pharmacists are redefining their role, so are the other professionals on the health care team.

After practicing the new role for several months, groups of pharmacists may need to come back together to reflect on this evolving change. For a CPE planner, a sound understanding of learning theory and educational program development can assist in creating an effective program that transcends the individual and the old method of merely giving information. An important feature of the program may be having faculty members model and discuss the role of the pharmacist on the health care team. A series of summer mini-residency, week-long sessions could be offered. Participants could be engaged in intensive study with experts at a university medical center; they could attend classes, role play, and learn critical incident techniques, as well as attend daily hospital rounds.

Another goal of CPE is focused upon the impact that professionals have on their employing organizations. In the case of the computer firm, the vice president of sales wants to use CPE to help the corporation remain competitive. Thus a solid understanding of organizations and the skill to work within them is the basis for successful planning in this case. Understanding the computer system and the distribution of workload and establishing policies are just as essential as purchasing the equipment for the managers to use. The CPE planner in this case may interview managers and their staffs, observe the use of the system, and read corporate documents to understand the goals of the organization before planning a program to address their needs. The program could be presented in the work setting itself to provide the strongest link with the actual use of the system.

These examples demonstrate the number of issues that present themselves to CPE planners. For what group and for what issues is the program being planned? Who should plan it and with which groups and individuals? What are the constraints, demands, and facilitating issues in planning? How would planning a program for one professional group affect other individuals, groups, and society in general? Each case calls upon a different knowledge base and skills.

CPE as an Art and a Science

We talk about the art and science of continuing professional education. A knowledge base and a skill base are critical parts of the science of CPE. Often, however, you will hear the comment that "he has a feel for the students," or "she seems to know when to shift gears while teaching." Thus you may wish to consider some of the characteristics related to the "art" of continuing education.

Successful planners are committed to developing activities that foster learning. This means that planners clearly understand the purpose of CPE and their role in it. Ethics and commitment go hand in hand. Successful planners are also flexible, creative, and adaptable. They look for new approaches, unique ways, or changes of pace to enhance learning. They are aware of their audience, interested in the outcome, and dedicated to helping learners attain their goals via learning activities. Even after all the work that goes into planning, planners are willing to serve coffee, move chairs, shift classrooms, or whatever is necessary at the last minute. When planning, they actively look for new ideas, suggestions from others, and recommendations from the literature or from colleagues to elaborate options available to learners.

Example 1

Inspired by reading about a new program in teaching emergency procedures, Robert Adams decided that practice was essential in situations where speed and stress were major components. To practice, however, would require the purchase of models and a lab setting. By coincidence, a representative of a major pharmaceutical company, Stan Draper, dropped in to catch up. During the informal conversation, Bob talked about his plan. Stan thought the idea might be of interest to his company, and ten days later, he forwarded a proposal to fund the course. The company would provide two of the three speakers carefully chosen from their list of experts, the models, and lunch. They would also print and mail the brochure.

Bob considered it a very generous proposal. With great enthusiasm, he presented the idea to his superior, Ann Calkin. She was clear that the program sounded superb, but expressed concern about the ethics of having the company fund the program, select two speakers, and provide the lunch. She was also concerned about how participants would perceive the course information. Would speakers provide information only about drugs from the company they represented? Would their view of competing drugs be biased? Would participants then hear misinformation, or would they lack confidence in what was presented? Would the lunch be accompanied by any form of subtle, or less subtle, sell for the company? Would the program be perceived as a push to support that company's products? Would the mailing list go first to people the company wanted to reach? Would the atmosphere allow criticism of the company's products when appropriate? The questions whirled around with no answers. The proposed program was good, people's intentions seemed good, but would it add up to a good program for the participants?

After much discussion and thought, Bob and Ann made a counterproposal, which included increasing the tuition to cover some of the added expenses, accepting the loan of the models, and agreeing that the company would receive an acknowledgment on the flyer, but the company was not to be present during the course. Although the new plan put the program in financial jeopardy, it clarified responsibility for the content. The compromise meant that if potential participants would not pay a higher than average fee, the program would not be held. The possible good for recipients of health care was balanced against the possible involvement by a vested interest.

The issues that were considered included the following: How do people perceive the relationship between an independent academic setting and a company's financial incentive to sell a product? Will the speakers provide impartial information? Will they be comfortable being critical of the company that is paying their stipend? What is the trade-off between lower tuition costs for participants and political involvement with the funding source? What is the role of social events in an educational program?

This example has no clear answers, and certainly not a single best answer. Each institution has different needs and goals. There may be many approaches to resolve the problem, with different stances taken by different groups. Education is designed to help professionals solve problems. The same is true of ethical issues. The planner often balances many interests. The ethical considerations may be difficult to sort out because the answers are not obvious or easily resolved.

Example 2

A new faculty member approached Judy Canetta to design a program about how to define *child abuse*. He suggested a lecture for 250 people from schools, churches, and recreational facilities. The fee would be modest, the topic of interest to the community, and the program easy to plan.

The brochure was mailed promptly. Attendance was as expected. The evaluations were poor, however. After talking with the faculty member and planning committee, Judy determined that lack of creativity had been at fault. The topic is one of high intensity with an emotional overlay that needed time for discussion. A lecture did not meet the needs demanded by the topic. Although the program contributed to the overall effort of the department, there was not enough creativity in the planning process.

In the final assessment, the program was of limited value in terms of what we know about how adults learn and change behavior. The case illustrates the balance between creative planning and being able to respond to requests. Failure is difficult to discuss because we would prefer to describe cases where we have done something particularly good or of high quality. The programmer was right about the importance of the topic, but failed to use creativity and adaptability to the extent possible.

How to Proceed

The ways you approach planning depend on how often you plan programs, what other responsibilities you have, and who your audience is. As a volunteer for your professional group, you may not be able to commit the time and energy it takes to become an expert in adult learning, program development, and evaluation. You may, however, consult with those who are experts. Look for those with experience and expertise. Establish contacts. Ask around. Here are some suggestions for finding the resources you need:

1. Think about your own experiences. Determine what is expected of you as a planner and reflect on your own experience as a planner.
2. Ask colleagues about their planning experience. In the process you may also want to use colleagues to comment as participants. Ask for critical feedback, suggestions for changes, or new ideas.
3. Look for reading sources. Some of these are listed in the bibliography in the back of this guide.
4. Consider attending workshops and meetings that have a focus on planning.
5. Contact the local professional schools in your discipline to develop formal and informal liaisons. Consider talking to faculty members in adult education at local colleges or universities.

6. Collect brochures or ads in your field and in other fields. See what is happening in other places.
7. Become involved in research—formal or informal. Frame a question. Look for ways to answer it. Most research is not intended for publication, but to solve practical problems.
8. Join a group involved with providing CPE.

Armed with a system to approach planning, some background information, and ideas for expanding your expertise, you will be better able to plan programs. CPE will continue to expand as the world changes rapidly and professionals adapt to new demands in practice. It is critical for us as planners to increase our competence in developing programs for professionals. This guide is designed as a starting point. The field of CPE can benefit from your creative ideas and suggestions. We hope you will find this information helpful as you join us in planning and presenting continuing education for professionals.

Appendixes

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Appendix A
Needs Assessment Methods

Ideas or needs for programs often come from questionnaires that program planners design to get feedback from groups of professionals in the field or at other programs. Listed below are a few suggestions for the types of questions you might ask.

Ways to Collect Information

Poll supervisors or leaders for information:

1. What practices are most difficult to use effectively?
2. What consumes most of your time in terms of teaching good practice?
3. What types of practice most often create problems?
4. Rate the following (1 = inferior, 3 = average, 5 = superior):
   a. Practice A ____
   b. Practice B ____
   c. Practice C ____
   d. Practice D ____

Send a survey to members of a local professional group:

1. What programs would be of most interest to you in the next 12 months?
2. What areas of your practice would you like to improve?
3. What areas of your practice do you think your colleagues most need to improve?
4. Which new practices will become part of your practice in the next year?

During registration of another program (or at the end), pass out a form to request information:

1. Have you completed a skill test in the past 12 months?
2. Would you like an opportunity to take that test?
3. Do you think your colleagues would benefit from such a test?

Observe several professionals for a part of a day or week with a set of criteria.

Send out or distribute at a program:

The following are program ideas suggested by others in your field. Please rate (1 = will definitely attend, 2 = nice to know, 3 = not of interest):

1. Idea A ____
2. Idea B ____
3. Idea C ____
4. Idea D ____

Appendix B
Learning Objectives

Learning objectives are statements that make the program goals explicit. They outline what a participant can expect to learn from a program. Some objectives are written to demonstrate a behavior that can be observed. Other objectives are written to clearly describe what program material the participants need to understand.

One way to develop objectives is to write out the program goals or purpose, then select a verb that accurately conveys what the learning will provide. A few examples follow.

Verbs for discriminating

Choose	Detect	Identify
Define	Differentiate	Select
Describe	Distinguish	Separate

Verbs for interactive learning

Answer	Discuss
Argue	Interact
Communicate	Participate

Verbs for thinking about new ideas

Categorize	Find	Reproduce
Chart	Locate	Search
Compile	Organize	Sort

Verbs for complex behaviors

Analyze	Criticize	Explain
Compare	Decide	Generate
Conclude	Evaluate	Plan

To write an objective, do the following:

1. Think about the theme or purpose of the program.
2. Select verbs that convey the appropriate behavior.
3. Write a statement.

Examples of statements

Participants will analyze and evaluate new findings in the basic sciences as they relate to epidemiology.

Attendees will review criteria for selecting teaching formats for adults participating in continuing education programs.

Using discussion, participants will clarify critical points in decision making and list appropriate factors for selecting a management style consistent with organizational goals.

Participants will distinguish between costs and benefits in types of legal aid.

New findings and recent advances in data processing will be discussed to include. . . .

All of these objectives are quite broad. One school of thought says that you can be much more specific if you break down each behavior to be learned. For example:

1. The learner will write a definition of epidemiology.
2. The learner will list four examples of epidemiologic studies.
3. The learner will describe three ways in which epidemiology is important for practice in. . . .

Objectives may be written in behavioral terms or to demonstrate specific behaviors. For example:

1. The learner will draw an accurate reproduction of. . . .
2. Using a word-processing package, the learner will create four styles of tables from the data provided.
3. The learner will identify three specimens within two hours, using the laboratory techniques designated in the handouts. Accuracy will be 100 percent.

Objectives may be written to designate a broad objective with specific learning outcomes. For example, the learner can critically review literature in the field to

1. Distinguish between opinion and fact
2. Identify study design
3. Analyze design in terms of appropriate use
4. Generate conclusions from the data
5. Compare own conclusions with stated findings

Some educators feel it is very important that objectives be written to describe each behavior that is intended as an outcome for the program. Others think that more global statements convey the purpose of the program. You, with others involved in the planning, will need to develop your own style and preference for the use of objectives. Whatever format you choose, objectives are intended to clarify expectations among planners, faculty, and learners.

Suggested Readings

Gronlund, N. E. (1970). *Stating behavioral objectives for classroom instruction*. New York: Macmillan.

Mager, R. F. (1975). *Preparing instructional objectives*. Belmont, CA: Pitman Management and Training.

Appendix C
Categories of Instructional Formats

LECTURE

A lecture's main purpose is to allow an expert to disseminate information through a formal presentation. It is an especially useful method when information is so new that it is not available in print. Lectures can be enhanced with audiovisuals such as overhead transparencies and slides. These aids allow learners both to visualize important points in a presentation and to hear a discussion of how they can solve professional problems. A question and answer period encourages audience participation.

Lectures are an efficient way to deliver information in a short period of time. An advantage is that a faculty member has maximum control over the pace, direction, and scope of the lecture. The size of the group does not affect the quality of the method; therefore, it can be cost-effective. Presentations can be placed on audiotape or videotape or can be televised relatively easily. Lectures on tape can be used at any time with other groups. The lecture format is usually the most familiar to professionals and the one many people feel most comfortable using. Faculty members can use it to stimulate thinking and challenge learners. A skilled lecturer can be inspirational.

Unless a lecture is accompanied by discussion, however, it may encourage passive rather than active learning. It is difficult for learners to achieve higher levels of thought and to learn problem-solving. Also, lectures are not very effective in changing attitudes and values. Successful learning using the lecture method is dependent on a well-organized and an interesting faculty member. Boredom in learners is the enemy of the lecture. Although some competent, knowledgeable professionals do not have natural skills as lecturers, CPE planners can work with them to develop the ability to give effective lectures.

PANEL DISCUSSION

Panel discussions feature two or more speakers who present differing aspects of the same topic. Usually a moderator introduces the session and individual speakers. Once the presenters have completed their presentations, there is often a discussion between the panelists and the audience. Related formats are panel-forum, symposium, debate, and seminar.

For panel discussions to be successful, the presider must keep the discussion on the topic, make certain each panelist does not use more than his or her allotted time, and manage the flow of interaction. In contrast to debates, speakers in a panel discussion offer varying viewpoints on a topic, emphasizing one point. A panel can encourage audience interaction with more than one expert.

Group Discussion

The group discussion is planned so that learners can share ideas face to face on a topic of interest. Learners are encouraged to discuss topics from their own point of view. Groups may or may not have a designated leader; however, to reach a desired learning outcome, planning to structure the discussion is advisable. Discussion leaders help groups stay on task and on the topic. Related formats are the buzz group, brainstorming, and the focus group.

An advantage of the group discussion is that learners become active participants and resources for each other. Discussion is most effective with a relatively small group. Large groups can be broken down into smaller ones. Groups can be divided by interest, knowledge levels, and type of expertise. Sometimes similarity within groups is effective; at other times group diversity is more favorable. Group discussion is a useful way for participants to get answers to their questions and interact with faculty members. It may therefore be time-consuming, so careful scheduling is important.

Case Study

Learners discuss a simulated case or one drawn from real life. Using questions provided with the case, they solve problems and make decisions about the situation after considering alternatives and consequences. The main purpose is to give learners the opportunity to apply their new knowledge and skill to something that is similar to professional practice. This format emphasizes active learning through problem solving and decision making. Related formats are simulation, critical incident, minicase, and in-basket exercises.

The main advantage of the case study format is the opportunity for learners to use new knowledge and skills under the guidance of a faculty member. Passive learning methods such as lecture and reading can easily be integrated with case studies. To maximize learning, case studies need to be carefully conceived and executed. Good case studies take a long time to prepare and then cover in a group. Effective faculty members know how to get a group to work together and foster discussion to illustrate and cover important points in the case. Therefore, allowing adequate time in a program schedule for learners to consider a case is recommended. Since cases can be time-consuming, scheduling may be difficult.

Because they are taking a risk publicly in front of colleagues, many professionals find case studies threatening. Therefore, they may be anxious about participating in them. Finding ways to make learners more comfortable with case studies strengthens their effectiveness.

Field or Clinical Experiences

Field or clinical experiences are planned to take place in natural settings such as work environments like corporations, schools, hospitals, and social service agencies. The purpose is to allow learners to experience as realistically as possible professional work in a practice setting. For example, a new veterinary surgical technique can be learned in the operating room of a college of veterinary medicine. In this method, faculty members guide the learners by observation and coaching. Because of its intensive nature, the method usually cannot accommodate large numbers of learners. Related formats include the field trip, internship, apprenticeship, practicum, and community problem solving.

This method allows learners to understand professional work within the culture of practice. While actively using the CPE program content, they are learning in a setting similar to what they will experience in practice. Field experiences help to bridge the gap between learning in and out of the classroom. Feedback about learning is immediately provided not only by the faculty members, but also by the events in the practice setting.

A disadvantage is that the content and activities are highly dependent upon the events in the field setting. Faculty members, therefore, cannot always control the learning situation. Events may or may not occur in a sequence best suited for participant learning. In addition, field and clinical experiences require faculty and learner flexibility. Management and evaluation may therefore be difficult.

Laboratory

Laboratory exercises allow participants to practice what is learned in CPE programs in a controlled setting. The consequences of professional performances are regulated by the faculty member. For example, hospital medical technologists practice a new technique in a university laboratory. In this environment they are not subjected to the daily hospital pressures and can concentrate on the specific procedure to be learned. Related formats are demonstration alone and demonstration with practice.

This method works well when learners cannot practice in professional settings because of the potential risk to clients. If planned, exact procedures are shown in a step-by-step sequence, with the opportunity for learners to become actively involved. The method can simulate real life and be effective in promoting application to professional practice. To achieve this objective, careful planning is necessary. Special facilities may often be necessary to have laboratory sessions.

INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAMMED LEARNING

Materials are prepared to allow learners to proceed at their own pace. Instruction is often highly structured and planned to encourage the learner to master materials in small segments. Usually feedback such as informing the learner of incorrect responses is built into the instruction. A variety of aids such as paper, workbooks, and computers can be used. Related formats include programmed instruction and modularized instruction.

Learners using this method can set their own pace and thus be flexible in their learning. Activities can also be varied. For this method to be effective, however, costs in instructor time and money may be relatively high. Individualized learning can also be difficult to design. These disadvantages must be weighed against the long-term benefits of selecting and using this method.

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Davis, L. N. (1974). *Planning, conducting, and evaluating workshops*. Austin, TX: Learning Concepts.

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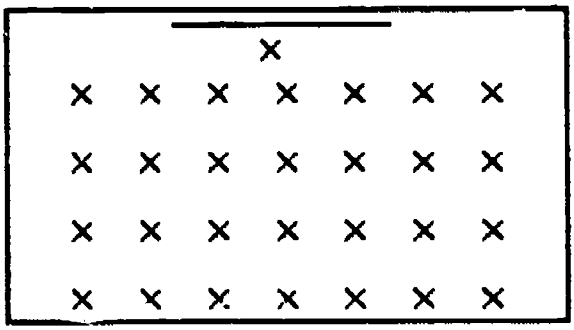
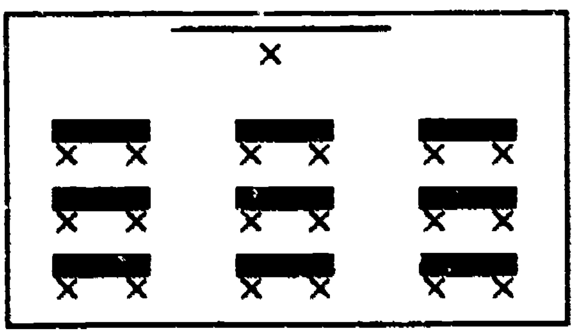
Appendix D
Seating Arrangements

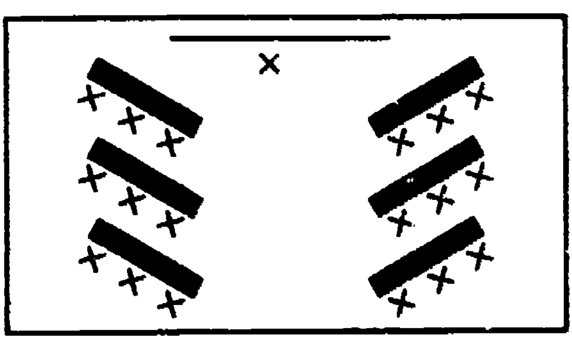
Examples of seating arrangements to promote learning by professionals:



Theater style: all chairs, no tables.

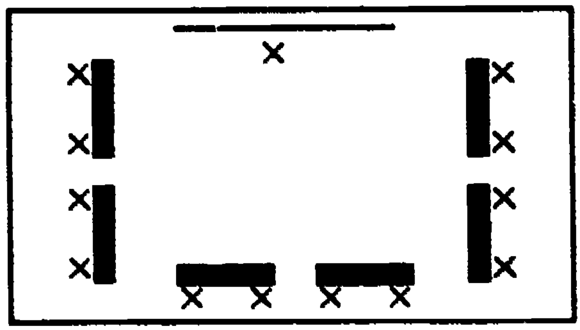


Classroom style: tables and chairs.

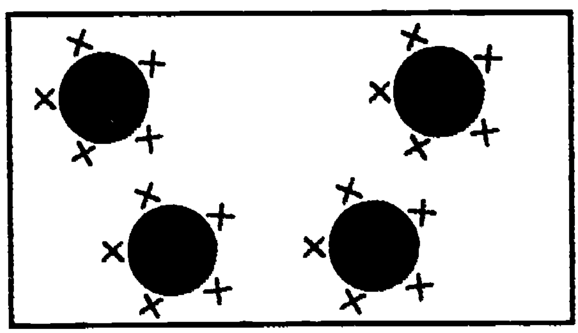


Echelon style: tables and chairs, to promote interaction.

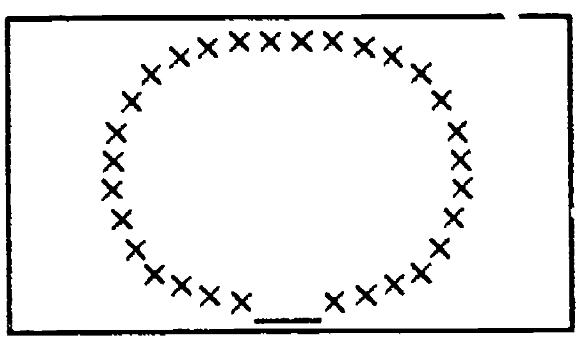
Examples of room arrangements to promote discussion:



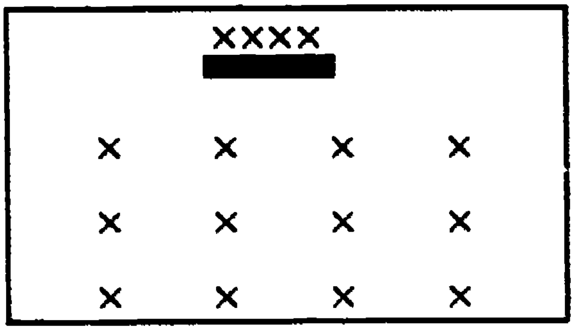
U-shaped with table.



Round-table interactive discussion.



Discussion circle.



Panel discussion.

Suggested Reading

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education*. Chicago: Association Press.

Appendix E
Sample Evaluation Questions

These questions are intended to be used on evaluation questionnaires distributed to participants at a CPE program. For your own needs, select and tailor questions that are consistent with the purpose and objectives of the program.

Closed Questions Using Scales

1. Overall, how relevant was this program to your practice? [Question]

Not relevant				Very relevant
1	2	3	4	5

2. How would you rate the quality of the audiovisual materials used at this CPE program? [Question]

Poor				Excellent
1	2	3	4	5

3. How would you rate the length of the program? [Question]

Too long		About right		Too short
1	2	3	4	5

4. The amount of material covered in this program was: [Statement]

Too little		About right		Too much
1	2	3	4	5

5. This program met the stated objectives. [Agree/disagree statement]

Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Example of "Group" Items

Please evaluate the following sections using the rating scale below (circle your response).

	Poor		Satisfactory		Excellent
Educational materials:					
• Handouts	1	2	3	4	5
• Audiovisuals	1	2	3	4	5
• Syllabus	1	2	3	4	5
Program site:					
• Registration procedures	1	2	3	4	5
• Room arrangements	1	2	3	4	5
• Food	1	2	3	4	5
• Program staff	1	2	3	4	5
Program:					
• Content	1	2	3	4	5
• Format	1	2	3	4	5
• Chance for discussion	1	2	3	4	5
• Instructional methods	1	2	3	4	5

Open-ended Questions

1. How will you use the program content in your practice?
2. Suggestions for future topics:
3. How could this program be improved?
4. Other comments:

Grid for Evaluating Faculty Members

Speaker/Program Evaluation Form

Your thoughtful appraisal is essential for improving future continuing pharmacy education activities. After the program, please complete this confidential questionnaire and give it to the program facilitator, or leave it on the program registration table.

Speaker Evaluation

Please evaluate each speaker on the following dimensions, using the rating scale below. (Center the number reflecting your rating in the grid.)

Strongly disagree		Neutral		Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Material was well organized	Knowledgeable about subject	Communicated clearly	Content was substantitive	Had relevance to my practice	Challenged my thinking	Met my learning objectives
Speaker A							
Speaker B							
Speaker C							
Speaker D							
Speaker E							
Speaker F							

Appendix F
Building a Program Budget

A program budget form can serve as a record of estimated and actual income, costs, and program balances. The purpose of the budget is to estimate program expenses and plan income as accurately as possible to arrive at a registration fee. The first page of the budget form is the summary of the program budget based upon calculations from the second, third, and fourth pages. The approval section is for signatures of individuals who must endorse the budget before the planners can proceed with the planning and delivery of the CPE program.

All CPE programs have fixed costs and variable costs. Fixed costs are those expenses that will not change no matter how many people register for the program. Examples of fixed costs are faculty expenses, brochures, and room reservation fees. Variable costs, on the other hand, are calculated on a per person basis. The total expenses change with the number of participants. Meals, notebooks, and handouts are examples of these expenses. The second, third, and fourth pages of the budget worksheet are used to calculate the fixed and variable costs.

Step 1. Estimate the fixed costs as accurately as possible.

Find the total fixed costs by adding the specific fixed budget items and their costs. Using this total, calculate a percentage, for example 10 percent, to cover miscellaneous expenses that may not be foreseen at the outset of planning; add this amount to the original figure. An expense that should be determined is the administrative fee for staff time in planning and delivering the CPE program. One method is to set a fee for instructional hour per participant; another is to calculate a percentage of the total program costs. This amount represents the total fixed costs for the program. Per person fixed fee is calculated by dividing the total fixed costs by the estimated break-even attendance figure. Place this figure in the "Per Person Registration Fee Summary" section on the first page of the budget form.

Step 2. Estimate the variable costs as accurately as possible.

Using a per person figure, estimate the variable costs and total (fourth page). Calculate a total by adding all per person expenses. Place this figure in the "Per Person Registration Fee Summary" on the first page of the budget form.

Step 3. Set the registration fee by completing the "Total Budget Breakdown" section (first page).

The total budget breakdown is intended to help set the registration fee and to serve as a record for making decisions about potential program profits and losses. Use the middle column of the estimated attendance as the break-even figure to calculate the necessary registration fee. Calculate both the fixed costs and the variable costs by multiplying the per person fees by the estimated attendance figure. Using each of these figures, calculate the total program costs. Identify and total the known sponsor contributions, from sources other than registration fees. Subtract the contribution total from the total program costs. To determine the registration fee, divide this total by the estimated attendance. Establish your fee to equal or exceed this figure. For the estimated attendance, total costs and income should be approximately equal.

Step 4. Establish a record for determining profits and losses.

A useful step is to base potential losses or profits on low and high attendance estimates. This step is especially useful in determining whether to cancel a program because of low registration and the liability to an organization. After estimating low and high attendance figures, use the same procedure as in step 3 to calculate total budget figures. These figures are useful in program decision making as registrations arrive before a CPE program.

Step 5. Use the budget form as a financial record of the program.

The budget form can be used as a record of actual expenditures and income.

Sample Budget Form

Submitted by: Preparation date:

Program title:

Date(s):

Location(s):

Per Person Registration Fee Summary

Fixed fee per person: ______ Variable fee per person: ______

Final registration fee: ______

Total Budget Breakdown

	Estimated Attendence			
	Low	Medium	High	Actual
	______	______	______	______
A. Total fixed costs	______	______	______	______
B. Variable fee × number of participants	______	______	______	______
C. Total program costs	______	______	______	______
D. Other contributions	______	______	______	______
E. Balance	______	______	______	______
F. Balance + estimated attendance	______	______	______	______
G. ____ % cushion	______	______	______	______
H. Registration fee × number of participants	______	______	______	______
I. Total income (D + H)	______	______	______	______
J. Profit (loss) (I – C)	______	______	______	______

Approvals

Worksheet

Faculty member	Travel	Honorarium	Other	Total	Date paid
____________	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
____________	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
____________	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
____________	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Total faculty expenses				_____	

Fixed Costs

	Estimated	Actual
Total faculty expenses	_____	_____
Planning committee		
Travel	_____	_____
Meals	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____
Promotion		
Brochure graphic design	_____	_____
Typesetting	_____	_____
Brochure printing	_____	_____
Brochure mailing	_____	_____
Other advertising	_____	_____

	Estimated	Actual
Evaluations		
Duplication	____	____
Analysis	____	____
On-site		
Facilities rental	____	____
Physical plant	____	____
A-V equipment	____	____
Equipment rental	____	____
Entertainment	____	____
Photography	____	____
General administrative expenses		
Administrative fee	____	____
Administrative travel	____	____
General duplicating	____	____
Telephone/FAX	____	____
Mailing	____	____
Other	____	____
Total fixed costs	____	____
Estimated attendance	____	____
Fixed fee per person (Total + estimated attendance)	____	____

Variable Costs Per Person

	Estimated	Actual
Participant confirmation	_____	_____
Participant handouts		
Duplicating	_____	_____
Notebook	_____	_____
Paper and pencils	_____	_____
Proceedings	_____	_____
Meals		
Breakfast	_____	_____
Lunch	_____	_____
Dinner	_____	_____
Banquet	_____	_____
Break(s)	_____	_____
Reception	_____	_____
Tax and gratuity	_____	_____
Credit card percentage (%)	_____	_____
Total per person variable	_____	_____

Completed Budget Form

Submitted by: *Jane Smith* Preparation date: *7/19/90*

Program title: *Southwestern Dental Hygiene Association-Annual Meeting*

Date(s): *11/9/90*

Location(s): *Hillside Conference Center*

Per Person Registration Fee Summary

Fixed fee per person: 39.60 Variable fee per person: 21.31

Final registration fee: $60.00

Total Budget Breakdown

	Estimated Attendence			
	Low	Medium	High	Actual
	125	150	175	
A. Total fixed costs	5,939.93	5,939.93	5,939.93	
B. Variable fee × number of participants	2,663.75	3,196.50	3,729.25	
C. Total program costs	8,603.68	9,136.43	9,669.18	
D. Other contributions*	1,000.00	1,000.00	1,000.00	
E. Balance		8,136.43		
F. Balance + estimated attendance		54.24		
G. ____ % cushion		5.00		
H. Registration fee × number of participants	7,500.00	9,000.00	10,500.00	
I. Total income (D + H)	8,500.00	10,000.00	11,500.00	
J. Profit (loss) (I – C)				

Approvals

Worksheet

Faculty member	Travel	Honorarium	Other	Total	Date paid
Dr. Johnson	$650	1,000	13.31	1,662.31	
Susan Gardner	$200	500	13.31	713.31	
Terry Mann	$350	300	13.31	663.31	
Total faculty expenses				$3,038.93	

Fixed Costs

	Estimated	Actual
Total faculty expenses	$3,038.93	
Planning committee		
Travel	--	
Meals	--	
Other	--	
Promotion		
Brochure graphic design	75.00	
Typesetting	100.00	
Brochure printing	600.00	
Brochure mailing	500.00	
Other advertising	--	

	Estimated	Actual
Evaluations		
Duplication	25.00	____
Analysis	--	____
On-site		
Facilities rental	150.00	____
Physical plant	--	____
A-V equipment	100.00	____
Equipment rental	150.00	____
Entertainment	--	____
Photography	--	____
General administrative expenses		
Administrative fee	900.00 (150 x 6 hrs x $1.00 per hr)	
Administrative travel	60.00 (2 staff x .20 per mi. x 150 mi.)	
General duplicating	50.00	____
Telephone/FAX	25.00	____
Mailing	25.00	____
Other	--	____
Total fixed costs	5,939.93	____
Estimated attendance	150	____
Fixed fee per person (Total + estimated attendance)	39.60	____

Variable Costs Per Person

		Estimated	Actual
Participant confirmation		$2.00	(letter, map, mailing)
Participant handouts			
Duplicating		5.00	
Notebook		--	
Paper and pencils		1.00	
Proceedings		--	
Meals			
Breakfast		--	
Lunch		9.00	
Dinner		--	
Banquet		--	
Break(s)	(1 @ $2.00)	2.00	
Reception		--	
Tax and gratuity	(21%)	2.31	
Credit card percentage (%)		--	
Total per person variable		21.31	

SUGGESTED READING

Simerly, R. G. (1990). *Planning and marketing conferences and workshops.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Appendix G
Timetable for Program Development Activities

	Deadline	Responsible staff member	Date completed	Staff member	Notes
Planning Committee					
Selection of committee members					
Contacts with committee members					
Initial meeting of planning committee					
Selection and negotiation with cosponsors					
Development of Program Idea					
Needs assessment					
Selection of program topic					
Program schedule					
Program objectives					
Selection of faculty members					
Selection of program location					
Evaluation plan					
Faculty Members					
Initial contact					
Negotiation of educational content					
Negotiation of honoraria					
Communications about travel guidelines					

	Deadline	Responsible staff member	Date completed	Staff member	Notes
Request for CVs, A-V, handouts, test materials					
Confirmation letter					
Reservation for travel arrangements					
Received materials from faculty members					
Preparation of handouts, A-V materials					
Site Arrangements					
Contact and visit the facility					
Decide about room and set-up					
Negotiate, review, and sign contract					
Reserve A-V equipment					
Select the menu					
Promotion Plan					
Design promotion plan					
Draft promotion piece					
Select design					
Arrange for typesetting (contact, proof, revise)					
Arrange for printing					
Select mailing labels					
Arrangements for mailing					

	Deadline	Responsible staff member	Date completed	Staff member	Notes
Budget					
Prepare planning budget					
Set registration fees					
Obtain signatures for approvals					
Solicit financial sponsorship					
Credit					
Initial contacts for credit					
Appropriate credit forms					
Form completion					
Receipt of letter of approval					
Certificate forms for participants					
Registration					
Prepare registration system					
Process registrations					
Send confirmation letters					
Deposit income					
Pre-Program Arrangements					
Prepare name tags					
Make copies of handouts					
Prepare participant packets					
Move materials to site					

	Deadline	Responsible staff member	Date completed	Staff member	Notes
Make final arrangements for speakers					
Take final head count					
On-Site Delivery					
Meeting room checkout					
A-V equipment checkout					
Monitor, troubleshoot					
On-site registration					
Participant credit verification					
Evaluation and test collection					
Materials returned to office					
Post-Meeting Activities					
Process on-site registrations					
Prepare and send CE certificates					
Prepare final class list					
Return unused supplies to inventory					
Prepare and send thank you letters to:					
Faculty members					
Cosponsors					
Hotel					

	Deadline	Responsible staff member	Date completed	Staff member	Notes
Process payment for:					
Faculty members					
Meeting site					
Other					
Tabulate, summarize evaluations					
Prepare final report					
Distribute final report					
Other					

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