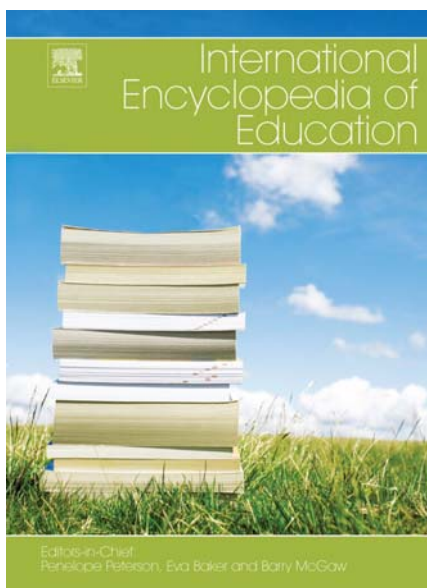


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Evaluating Education in Three Policy Eras

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Introduction: Education Policy and Policy Evaluation

In this article, we demonstrate that the question of how to analyze the relationship between educational policy and policy evaluation leads directly into the heart of theoretical positions in policy science and into historical reconstructions of knowledge and rationalities underlying educational policy and evaluation. We show that evaluation is not a neutral knowledge, just a methodological and technical knowledge for betterment in general, “designed and conducted to assist some audience to judge and improve the worth of some educational object” (Stufflebeam and Webster, 1980: 6). The word value directly raises the question of whose value? and immediately steps into the political dimension. Carol Weiss (1988a, 1988b) an early voice in the field of evaluation argued for critical perspectives, taking the context conditions and the political dimension into account.

Over the past 50 years, criteria and the question of interests, multiperspectivity, and the political dimension has increasingly come in our view (House, 1990: 24). This article shows that according to different rationalities of governing the state and the present, the knowledge base, methodology, conceptualizations and use of evaluation differ. We demonstrate this, analyzing three relationship patterns between concepts of governing the state and evaluation knowledge. Three political eras are differentiated: the welfare-state model, which is oriented toward equality and security of its citizens; the neoliberalism model of the state, where the notion of freedom implies a loss of state-based securing systems and rising levels of individual risks; and knowledge capitalism, where new mixes and practices of knowledge are to be identified. Seen from a Foucauldian perspective (Foucault, 1992, 2004), evaluation has to be analyzed as power knowledge (Bröckling, 2004; Höhne, 2006), creating specific knowledge orders, knowledge architectures, and structures of attention. In a governmentality perspective (Peters *et al.*, 2009), knowledge is analyzed as discursive, social, and political practice – taking the activity of the state and the rationality of steering and governing into account. Following this perspective, we analyze evaluation as power/knowledge within three specific policy eras of the welfare state, neoliberalism, and knowledge capitalism. It becomes clear that within three political eras, different relationships to truth, to power, to practice, and

to experience are observed in the way in which evaluation is being seen and used (see Table 1 for summary).

The first pattern shows the relationship between education policy and policy evaluation as spheres of autonomy. Evaluation is, mostly, regard as neutral scientific knowledge, supplying needed information and findings to society in general. In a delivery relationship, policy is donor to evaluation and customer of findings. In this relationship pattern, evaluation transfers scientific expert knowledge to society, supplying policy with relevant information. The concept of neutral science supplying society with relevant data for means of legitimation is inherent in the guiding image of the welfare state.

In a second pattern of relationship between educational policy and policy evaluation, conditions and interdependence become crucial: In this perspective, policy is to be seen as a condition and framework for evaluation activities. The function of evaluation activity changes into an active measurement function. The relationship between evaluation and policy analysis becomes closer and more intense; evaluation knowledge shifts from legitimation to control and measurement. Relevant information and findings are not primarily oriented toward the past (legitimation), but directed toward a steering function.

The third relationship pattern between educational policy and policy evaluation is to be drawn as overlapping rationality: policy rationalities shape the modeling of evaluation approaches and empirical research and in a reflexive view become visible as an epistemological relationship of power/knowledge. Evaluation is becoming a mix of visibility and learning, of quantitative ranking, and of creative and future-oriented knowledge creation.

Table 1 indicates the rationality shifts of the three eras in which evaluation practices are not necessarily empirically replacing each other totally, but overlap and coexist, and change their position, importance, and acceptance within predominant patterns of evaluation regimes.

Era of Keynesian Welfare State

The beginning of the political era of the welfare state differs according to the specific historical national backgrounds, but in a very broad perspective can be dated to the end of the nineteenth and the beginning

Table 1 The evaluation of education in three policy eras

	<i>Welfare-state era of policy evaluation</i>	<i>Neoliberal era of policy evaluation</i>	<i>Knowledge-economy era of policy evaluation</i>
Main levels of action of evaluation programs	Local National	National International	Local National Regional Global
Predominant epistemology of evaluation programs	Objectivist technocratic reproduction theory	Objectivist marginalized social-constructivist approach	Social-constructivist approach
Predominant methodology of evaluation programs	Description and measurement of input and effects	Accountability and large-scale assessment	Hermeneutic inquiry and collective truth production by inquiry and negotiation of truth and results
Predominant orientation of evaluators	Research/knowledge production	Performance measurement	Learning/collaborative knowledge production
Main objectives of policy evaluation	Legitimation Research	Legitimation Control Allocation of resources	Legitimation Policy learning Policy change

and throughout the twentieth century. The political model of the welfare state is oriented toward prevention or solution of poverty, social security, and aims at diminishing social inequalities by money transfers as well as social services, health services, labor politics, legal regulations, and restrictions. This approach goes along with the concept of a state-steered economy, developed by John Maynard Keynes. Esping-Anderson (1990) differentiates three types or regimes of welfare states: liberal regimes (USA, Canada, Switzerland, and Japan), conservative regimes (France, Italy, Germany, and Austria), and social democrat regimes (Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Finland). In this classical categorization, the relationships between state and market differ with regard to the transfers of social services, the mode and quality of services, and the effects of social policy on social stratification and power in society. The welfare state in its ideal type should offer social security to every citizen. Welfare states are securing societies establishing complex strategies to care for their citizens, formal education of citizens being part of those strategies.

In a Foucauldian notion we can see that the steering rationality of the welfare state has been based on hegemonic disciplinary knowledge (Peters *et al.*, 2009), like, for example, psychological knowledge of testing and measurement. This disciplinary knowledge produces specific relationships of the subject of the diagnosis and diagnostics. Survey rationality became the prominent movement of the 1920s and 1930s. It grew along with the rise of psychology as a discipline and it was based within a specific concept of science as natural science, where experimental and causal logic rationality is promoted. Linear thinking, test theoretical approaches, and the notion of measurement were institutionalized in education – for example, in the Cincinnati public schools as early

as 1929 (Felix, 1979). Evaluation as measurement was proposed by Tyler (1950), viewing educational objectives as changes in behavior and following the concepts of behaviorism.

The rise of the welfare state grew along with the rationality of planning and measurement, and in the discourse of human capital, education was regarded as a matter of investment and predictable prosperity. Education was seen as both a capital and a consumer good (Kogan, 1979: 20), as functional investment for social equality and economic growth. In this phase of optimism and rationalism, educational policymaking followed an expansionist idea (Kogan, 1975). For example, US investment in education grew around 20 times and investment in social politics like housing in 1980 was 129 times higher than in 1950, while the United States population increased only by half. Given the extraordinary input in the phase of 1950–1980, Murray (1994: 14) calls it a generous revolution. This phase of massive welfare states' financial investment was true for other Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) areas as well. OECD, World Bank, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) supported the world expansion of education. In OECD reviews, remarkable parallelisms of national development are observed, although countries had adopted various policy/planning approaches and operational strategies (Kogan, 1979:16).

In general, policy at that time was driven by a state approach, where political strategies were defined and driven by the state. Political strategies were input- and top-down oriented. At that point in time, strategies were not developed with the participation of citizens in a bottom-up mode. Peoples' acceptance of top-down strategies and their lack of participation in education were not

questioned. In this political climate of steering optimism, science and scientific methods for program planning and evaluation arose. Within the so-called war on poverty, large state programs were set up. In order to bring about large-scale effects, social action programs in social security, health and education (Rogers-Dillon, 2004: 8) like Elementary Secondary Education Act (ESEA), Headstart, or Follow Through were established. At that point in time, few OECD background reports linked their statements of goals to an evaluation of how they were implemented (Kogan, 1979: 27). At the national level in the US, legitimation for welfare and education programs was a need. Political strategies therefore needed evaluation. Following the rationalist model of planning, predominant evaluation concepts directly referred to the – already established – scientific-measurement movement with its attendant objectivity and reliability (Jemelka and Borich, 1979: 264). Assuming measurability of learning and change, until the 1970s, evaluation rationality followed a mechanist and objectivist input–output model.

Under the shock of economic recession, the political and economical climate shifted into uncertainty, pessimism (Kogan, 1979: 19), and into a second generation of evaluation (Ravitch, 1983), and bottom-up multiperspectivity and qualitative approaches became more acceptable. Legitimation-oriented evaluation ceased to be seen as producing the information required to alter either program or policy. As Ginsburg *et al.* (1992: 24) show, criticisms of large program evaluation are related to four points:

1. Evaluations showed a preoccupation with measuring overall program impacts, particularly test score changes.
2. Evaluations focused almost entirely on federally funded services and failed to recognize that federal programs are part of a larger service-delivery system.
3. Evaluation studies were frequently funded as single large-scale studies. Study findings were not well integrated into decision making. A common complaint from congressional staff was that studies were completed out of phase with the legislative cycle.
4. Evaluations were criticized as designed and operated without any involvement from staff in the program office. Therefore, in the 1970s, programs were asked to open up more to multiperspectivity. Comprehensive change started to be regarded as necessary (Ravitch, 1983: 258).

Disciplinary dominance of psychology and professional dominance of academia's program evaluators (Condliffe-Lagemann, 1997) began to be increasingly questioned. Scientists lost their status of being assumed as value-neutral experts. Between quantitative and qualitative advocates, battles were hard fought (Boruch and Riecken, 1975). In the expanding and professionalizing field

of evaluation, a discipline and profession of evaluation emerged. Although the evaluation market was still retained by powerful stakeholders, evaluation became publicly politicized, and the voice of qualitative approaches became louder, criticizing the troubles of this troubled crusade (Ravitch, 1983). Major differences in the field of evaluation were seen between qualitative versus quantitative methodology, accountability versus policy orientation, and client participation versus nonparticipation (House, 1990: 26). Even when representing stakeholders' views in evaluation became more common, the critical political question still remained – whose interests did the evaluation serve (Guba and Lincoln, 1982)? The political question of evaluation policy now became a topic to address (Braybrooke and Lindblom, 1970).

Due to the cuts in the social programs, 1980s was a quiet decade. Neutrality and objectivity became political priorities again. The formulated purpose of centralized accountability was renewed by hiring international evaluation staff and establishing standardized achievement testing. Evaluation knowledge shifted from legitimation of the past to controlling of the present. Testing and measurement once more showed to be instruments of discipline than of diagnosis (House, 1990: 24). International comparison studies like the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) contributed to establish a European space of modularized knowledge. Within the political climate of the activating state, transnationalization in educational policy accelerated. Within a transnational framework, pre-given political parameters and standards applied pressure on national states. The OECD and the World Bank emphasized the policy of neoliberal modernization from above and evaluation became an effect of globalization. Following House (House 1990: 25), “what had begun as an era of social consensus dissolved into an age of conflict and diversity.” It was seen that policy no longer orientated toward inclusion of marginalized groups. The function of evaluation changed toward a medium of exclusion and selection (Höhne, 2006).

Neoliberal Paradigm

As we have mentioned in the introduction, we explore the three eras of policy evaluation welfare, neoliberal, and knowledge economy. In this article, we follow Pollit's example of not ascribing hard edges to any of those broad periodizations. We can see that the origins of policy evaluation as a systematic and formalized practice of government activity can be traced to the early 1960s. Fischer (1995) indicates that the development of policy evaluation today is associated with the expansion of many of the governmental programs of this period. During this time,

the evaluation of policies became a formalized practice of public agencies, as policy-analysis studies increasingly influenced and informed the decision of policymakers and public-policy debates. The relevance that social research and policy analysis studies acquire in the public debate about education can be observed in the publication of the 1966 report *Equality of educational opportunity*, also known as the Coleman report (see [Coleman et al., 1966](#)). In the United States, Lyndon Johnson's Great Society and War-on-Poverty programs, as well as the expansion of other government bureaucracies, were driven by the common belief of policymakers that the "decision-making process could be effectively rationalized," through rigorous analysis enabling access to information capable of improving the decisions of public organizations ([Fischer, 1995: 4](#)).

The history of policy evaluation as a formalized government practice, informed by different philosophies of governance, has followed different trajectories across countries and agencies in different periods. However, the rationale for the implementation of public-policy-evaluation practices follows the common assumption that rigorous rational-policy analysis could improve the effectiveness of public organizations. In those terms, policy analysts then followed a technocratic approach to evaluation.

The advantages of the development and use of policy-analysis capabilities soon became clear, and policy evaluation rapidly became a common mandate for public agencies. For instance, in the 1970s, the US Congress legislated legally mandate program evaluations ([Fischer, 1995: 5](#)) for public agencies. It is during this period of expansion that we observe the transition toward the neoliberal era in policy evaluation.

The economic crisis of the 1970s not only signaled a profound crisis in the model of the welfare state and the ascension of its critics, but also triggered a criticism of the rationale of types of policy analysis associated with the implementation of welfare-state programs. Associated with this critique was a desire by opponents of the welfare-state model to create alternative uses for the tools of policy analysis. In the United States and United Kingdom, critics of the welfare-state government programs such as the Great Society began to develop and fund policy research and institutes suited to their own political needs ([Fischer, 1995: 5](#)) (e.g., in the US, the Heritage Foundation, American Enterprise Institute ([Fischer, 1995](#)) and in the UK, the Centre for Policy Studies and Adam Smith Foundation ([Pollitt, 1993](#))). In short, the same policy-analysis tools used for implementing and coordinating the 1960s' government programs were used for eliminating them in the 1980s.

The victories of Margaret Thatcher in 1979 and a year later the ascension of Ronald Reagan to the US presidency signaled 1980s as the opening of the neoliberal era of

policy evaluation. This was an era of evaluation dominated by the following philosophy of governance:

Government had taken on more than it could handle . . . decentralized decisions of the market-place should whenever possible replace the inevitably inadequate plans of central or local government ([Pollitt, 1993: 12](#)).

Following this philosophy, policy evaluation was to be concerned with measuring the effectiveness, in economic terms, of policy programs. In other words, the interest of the preceding era to identify effectiveness and impact was replaced with a focus on evaluating the efficiency and economy ([Pollitt, 1993: 13](#)) of policies. We would like to mention three main features of this evaluation era:

- First, there was a new concern with the management of the allocation of public resources, which in the case of education, serves to justify cuts in the direct financing of public programs, as well as to link educational outcomes to the requirements of the economy. Furthermore, this concern for the control of the allocation of resources affects not only the methods but also the purposes of evaluation. Evaluators increasingly became auditors rather than analysts, with a methodological emphasis on the measurement of the economic performance of the policies evaluated.
- Second, the new public management (NPM) school emerged as one of the most relevant evaluation approaches. Neoliberal government reforms looked for the emulation of business ideas and purposes in public sectors that required the modes of evaluation supported by NPM. In other words, the goal of the government reform was "transplanting business management ideas and practices in the public sector" ([Saint-Martin, 1998: 324](#)), thus allowing for the subsequent rationalization and privatization of state efforts. In that sense, it is not surprising that governments looked for the kind of skills and expertise that professionals educated in the NPM provided. It was an expertise that mirrored the expertise of managers, professionals who in the past were employed by private business consulting firms.
- Finally, the rapid globalization of this perspective on evaluation and governance in education can be associated with the increasing influence on international organizations (IOs) and the drive to implement international comparative studies. For instance, [Kellaghan and Greaney \(2001\)](#) describe the globalization of assessments of performance results across national educational systems in the last decades. Such assessments have become frequently associated with the provision of baseline data for educational reforms (p. 90), and their implementation has been actively supported by intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) such as the World Bank, UNESCO, and the OECD.

Those IOs were among the first institutions to shift toward neoliberal positions. For instance, Klaus Armingeon points out that the OECD “. . . from the mid-1970s until the end of the 1990s, . . . exerted a unidirectional effect on national welfare states, supporting the idea of welfare-state retrenchment and an increased burden on individuals and families to shoulder greater personal responsibilities for their security in times of need” (Armingeon, 2004: 227).

At the same time, in educational policy, the information supplied by IOs influenced national policymakers in specific directions. The common denominator was a shared instrumental view of education as serving the national economic development of countries, while linked to individual success in the global economy. Comparative assessment provided comparative quantitative indicators of the knowledge skills deemed economically competitive. An example of this type of assessment is the PISA.

The neoliberal era of policy evaluation is preeminently positivistic and economic, supporting what Fischer (1995) calls a technocratic world view that claims the value neutrality of the evaluation and the authority of the manager as policy expert. As an instrument of analysis, the objectives of the evaluations were limited to those outcomes considered of interest to the neoliberal paradigm – a paradigm that states that education is a private economic good. It was only in the mid-1990s that one started to observe a process of transition toward what appeared to be a new era in policy evaluation.

Era of Knowledge Economy

The focus of the OECD's (1996) influential view based on the early work of Machlup (1962), Porat (1977), and new growth theory (Romer, 1994) emphasized the importance of question of knowledge codification (know what, know why, know how, and know who), the dimension of tacit knowledge, the need for continuous learning, and the importance of knowledge networks with strong policy implications for employment policy. As the OECD report suggests: the economy becomes a hierarchy of networks, driven by the acceleration in the rate of change and the rate of learning. Accordingly, government policy and its evaluation should aim at (1) enhancing knowledge diffusion, (2) upgrading human capital, and, (3) promoting organizational change to increase flexibility, particularly relating to work arrangements, networking, multiskilling of the labor force, and decentralization. In this context, evaluation policies have focused on performance management and related research-performance-monitoring of staff in higher education together with increased global benchmarking and active management of knowledge-assets management including the careful audit of intellectual property. Much of the human-capital thrust has led to

the design of competency criteria both for teachers, teacher education, and for students. Student assessment increasingly emphasizes what is called competence-based assessment, focusing on the assessment of the competences to learn and to create new knowledge in the learning community, such as the ability to apply and create knowledge to solve problems, the ability to communicate domain knowledge to various audiences, and the ability to work with others of diverse backgrounds.

The OECD report is divided into three sections, focusing on trends and implications of the knowledge-based economy, the role of the science system in the knowledge-based economy, and indicators, essentially a section dealing with the question of measurement. In the summary, the OECD report discusses knowledge distribution (as well as knowledge investments) through formal and informal networks as being essential to economic performance, and hypothesizes the increasing codification of knowledge in the emerging information society. In the knowledge-based economy, innovation is driven by the interaction of producers and users in the exchange of both codified and tacit knowledge. The report points to an interactive model of innovation (replacing the old linear model) which consists of knowledge flows and relationships among industry, government, and academia in the development of science and technology. With increasing demand for more highly skilled knowledge workers, governments will need to enhance the capacity to learn and the knowledge-distribution power of the economy through collaborative networks and the diffusion of technology.

The science system – public research laboratories and institutions of higher education – is seen as one of the key components of the knowledge economy, and the report identifies the major challenge as one of reconciling traditional functions of knowledge production and training of scientists with its newer role of collaborating with industry in the transfer of knowledge and technology. Economies are more strongly dependent on knowledge production, distribution, and use than ever before and that knowledge-intensive service sectors (especially education, communications, and information) are the fastest-growing parts of Western economies, which, in turn, are attracting high levels of public and private investment.

New growth theory, in particular, demonstrates that investment in knowledge is characterized by increasing rather than decreasing returns, a finding which modifies the neoclassical production function which argues that returns diminish as more capital is added to the economy. Knowledge also has spillover functions from one industry or firm to another; yet types of knowledge vary: some kinds can be easily reproduced and distributed at low cost, while others cannot be easily transferred from one organization to another or between individuals. Thus, knowledge (as a much broader concept than information) can be considered in terms of know what and know why,

broadly as what philosophers call propositional knowledge (knowledge that), embracing both factual knowledge and scientific knowledge, both of which come closest to being market commodities or economic resources that can be fitted into production functions. Other types of knowledge, what the OECD identifies as know how and know who, are forms of tacit knowledge (after Polanyi (1967); see also Polanyi (1958)), which are more difficult to codify and measure. The OECD report indicates that “Tacit knowledge in the form of skills needed to handle codified knowledge is more important than ever in labour markets” (p. 13) and reasons that, “Education will be the centre of the knowledge-based economy, and learning the tool of individual and organisational advancement” (p. 14), where learning by doing is paramount.

It is argued that the knowledge economy is different from the traditional industrial economy because knowledge is fundamentally different from other commodities, and that these differences, consequently, have fundamental implications both for public policy and for the mode of organization of a knowledge economy. Following the New Keynesian, Joseph Stiglitz (1999), we can analyze the knowledge economy in terms of the scarcity-defying characteristics of ideas. Stiglitz argues that knowledge is a public good because it is nonrivalrous, that is, knowledge, once discovered and made public, operates expansively to defy the normal law of scarcity that governs most commodity markets. Knowledge in its immaterial or conceptual forms – ideas, information, concepts, functions, and abstract objects of thought – is purely nonrivalrous, that is, there is essentially zero marginal costs to adding more users. While nonrivalrous, knowledge can be excluded – the other property of a pure public good – from certain users through various forms of legal protection. Yet, even though knowledge is not a pure public good, there are extensive externalities (spillovers) associated with innovations, which do not necessarily accrue to the innovators.

Higher education, and in particular, the universities, are at the heart of the new policy developments surrounding the concept of the knowledge economy. There is a move toward a system rationalization at all levels, with an accent on enhancing and rewarding the quality of research. The transformation of higher education in many Western countries from a universal welfare entitlement, first, into a private investment in human capital and, second, to a fully consumer-driven system, has followed a now-familiar pattern: a transparent alignment of the university system to reflect the needs of an emerging postindustrial economy, with increasing demands for highly trained, multiskilled, tertiary-educated workers; new forms of corporate managerialisms have been introduced with the emulation of private-sector management styles; and, the introduction of user charges, student loans, has led to the creeping privatization of the system as a whole.

The massification of higher education has been based on new funding mechanisms involving an everincreasing proportion of income from student fees and contestable research funding. Even with the diversification of funding sources, universities have struggled to cope financially. Increasingly, institutions have been forced not only to compete with each other in the market for student places but also to absorb the cost of providing extra, unfunded student places, at declining levels of state funding. With the emergence of the policy concept of the knowledge economy, universities are struggling to take competitive advantage in a new, complex environment that no longer privileges national or regional sites.

Neoliberal market fundamentalism which holds that markets are self-correcting has been discredited and it is important to revisit the goals of knowledge-economy policies and their evaluation in the Obama era. The move to state-centric policies and to forms of federal regulation in the United States and elsewhere now seem almost inevitable. Government intervention is now suddenly back in fashion and on the books at the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. The move to federal regulation and a reform of the financial system seems to chime with the development of state capitalism elsewhere, especially in East Asia, and other forms of state centrism seen as necessary for job creation and national reinvestment in infrastructure (Peters, 2008a). The Obama administration is aware that investment in education and America's social infrastructure is an important part of the successful recipe for long-term growth and recovery. Obama's policy advisors are also aware that education policies and their successful evaluation now depend upon the recognition of alternative modes of social production and the developing international networks of collaboration that are important for the recovery and continued success of American science and technology.

Openness has emerged as an alternative mode of social production based on the growing and overlapping complexities of open source, open access and open archiving, and open publishing. It has become a leading source of innovation in the world global-digital economy increasingly adopted by world governments, international agencies, and multinationals as well as leading educational institutions. It is clear that the free software and open-source movements constitute a radical nonproprietary alternative to traditional methods of text production and distribution. This alternative nonproprietary method of cultural exchange threatens traditional models and the legal and institutional means used to restrict creativity, innovation, and the free exchange of ideas. In terms of a model of communication, there has been a gradual shift from content to code in the openness, access, use, reuse, and modification reflecting a radical personalization that has made these open characteristics and principles increasingly the basis of the cultural sphere (Peters, 2008b).

Increasingly, in this context, the evaluation of education policy must take into account the huge reversal of neoliberalism and the shift toward new Keynesianism and especially the connection between investment in education and its relation to high-skill job creation in the vital sectors of energy and new technologies. Evaluation of education policy therefore must acknowledge the changing conceptions of education in relation to dominant economic theories and take into account shifts in ideology. In the era of knowledge economy, policies must be designed with an understanding of the logic of networks and evaluation itself must be an indigenous part of the question of design.

Conclusion

In this article, we have described how evaluation of education policy differs according to policy era and in response to the main underlying policy values. We have analyzed the three main policy eras in education policy – the welfare state, the neoliberal era, and the era of the knowledge economy. In each of these policy eras, education has been seen as fulfilling different functions. Evaluation in each case differs accordingly. One of the metatheoretical questions for policy evaluators is the extent to which their theories and methodologies recognized macro policy changes and match the era and the policy evaluated.

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See also: Ability Testing; An Overview of Research in Curriculum Inquiry; Educational Measurement: Overview; Equity and Educational Effectiveness; Evaluation Methodology; Philosophy and Educational Research; Studies of School Improvement in Developing Countries; Theoretical Concepts in the Economics of Education; Understanding Approaches to Evaluation.

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Relevant Websites

<http://www.bc.edu/research> – Centre for the Study of Testing, Evaluation, and Educational Policy (CSTEED).

<http://www.cemcentre.org> – Curriculum, Evaluation and Management (CEM) Centre. The website of the Curriculum, Evaluation and Management Centre is based in Durham University in North-East England.

<http://www.intute.ac.uk> – Further Education Research Association (FERA).

It aims to help disseminate advances in good practice, research findings, and policy evaluation relevant to the further education and training sector.

<http://ies.ed.gov> – Institute of Education Sciences. The Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002 established a new organization within the US Department of Education, the Institute of Education Sciences.

<http://www.iea.nl> – International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

<http://www.nationalschool.gov.uk> – Policy Hub, Magenta Book is a website, developed by the Government Social Research Unit, which aims to improve the way public policy is shaped and delivered in UK.

<http://www.spear.govt.nz> – Social Policy Evaluation and Research Committee.

A cross-agency group established by the New Zealand Government in 2001 to oversee the government's investment in social policy research and evaluation.