A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF A METHODOLOGY FOR THE CREATION OF TECHNICAL PROGRAMS IN COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGES

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ABSTRACT

A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF A METHODOLOGY FOR THE CREATION OF TECHNICAL PROGRAMS IN COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGES

by Richard E. Wilson

The purpose of this study is to develop a methodology for creating technical programs in community junior colleges. Technical programs are designed to educate a full-time student within two years for an occupational position that requires more cognitive knowledge than manipulative skills. The need for technicians is widely proclaimed. Community junior colleges are capable of providing technical programs, programs that have the status of higher education.

To better understand the community junior college, it is sociologically analyzed from seven perspectives. It is viewed as 1) a comprehensive college, 2) an "open-door" college, 3) an externally authority-oriented organization, 4) a development organization, 5) a bureaucratic organization, 6) a social organization, and 7) a social system. The analyses indicate that the community junior college lacks considerable control over its staff and environment, but it must nevertheless make accommodations with other social systems in order to create change. The analyses further indicate that the effectiveness of an organization is directly related to the integration of its sub-systems.

A brief historical examination of the attitudes and beliefs of American society toward change reveals a movement from a strong faith in automatic adjustment to esteem for planned change. Books by Ronald Lippitt, et al., and Christopher Sower, et al., present models of planned change that the authors claim are applicable to all change situations. Both of the models focus attention on a change-agent that is external to the client-system. This study is concerned with a change-agent, the community junior college, that is a part of the client-system, the community. Sower's model contains five analytical elements, and these are used as the basis for a methodology to create technical programs in community junior colleges. The methodology has seven analytical elements. They are:

1. Assignment of responsibility for gathering and evaluating possible technical programs.
2. Formation of linkages with external systems.
3. Establishment of an initiating set for a suggested technical program or an area of closely related technical programs.
4. Legitimation and sponsorship for a technical program.
5. Establishment of an execution set for a technical program.
6. Inclusion of the technical program in the curriculum.
7. Evaluation of the technical program.

The St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College District is presented as a case study to provide data for testing and illustrating the analytical elements and properties of a change process. The creation of the college involved four action processes, and these processes are analyzed by using Sower's model. The author of this study was an administrative intern in the St. Louis junior college the first three months of 1963. He participated in the creation of technical programs, attended all of the board, staff and curriculum development meetings, and interviewed board members, staff members and citizens who had worked for the creation of the college. Ten technical programs were created during the internship period, and five of the programs provide considerable data that test the analytical elements and properties and illustrate the collaborative action process.

The case study approach is especially valuable for analyzing social systems. A case study points out the interdependencies among sub-systems and systems, and it reveals how the consequences of a decision spread throughout a social system and its environment.

The methodology provides a tool for planning and analyzing the processes that create technical programs. Some action processes may not involve all of the analytical elements, but this does not nullify the value of the methodology. It is hoped that the experiences of those engaged in creating technical programs and the theories developed in related

disciplines will elaborate and improve the methodology. The methodology is of value so long as it assists in creating successful technical programs.

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By

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The intern experiences in St. Louis and the data obtained with the help of staff members made this thesis possible. Thanks to the candor and co-operation of people associated with the St. Louis junior college, sufficient data was obtained for the case study. Dr. John E. Tirrell, vice-president for instruction, and President Joseph P. Cosand furnished information and offered suggestions after reading the thesis prospectus. The author is also especially indebted to Dr. Robert Jones, James Hobson, Vincent Freeman and Glynn Clark for providing considerable information and many ideas.

It is impossible to mention the many ways my wife assisted in producing this paper. Aside from the obvious examples of typing and proof reading, she provided the more important functions of constructive criticism, morale improvement, and encouragement. Without her assistance, the thesis would never have been written.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is commonplace nowadays to introduce educational papers with references to increasing numbers of social and technological changes and the implications of these changes for educators. This study is no exception, but this study is not concerned with adjustment to such changes. This study is concerned with the creation of changes. An argument can be made that activities of educational institutions, rather than causes of change, are essentially consequences of activities in other areas of society. Morris Ginsberg, a British sociologist, offers a rebuttal to this argument.

> Changes in the system of education lead to changes in economic and political structure and these in turn modify the system of education. The "cause" does not disappear when the "effect" is produced but continues and is modified by its effects.[1]

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to develop a methodology for creating technical programs in community junior colleges. Technical programs are designed to educate a full-time student within two years or less for a position that "places stronger

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[1]Morris Ginsberg, "Social Change," The British Journal of Sociology, IX (September, 1958), 224.

demands on cognitive knowledge and less on manipulative skills."[1] The direct and obvious changes would be: 1) the offering of programs for entry into technical occupations, 2) the education of students for technical occupations, and 3) the filling of technical positions in organizations. These are only the formal, anticipated changes, changes that can be translated into an economic means-ends chain. That is, a college creates a new product, a technical program, which it furnishes to its clientele, students, who use their capital investment, formal education, to obtain a position in an organization requiring technicians of their ilk. These changes are certainly important and the ramifications in only the economic aspect of society are infinite.

Because of the integration of society, e.g., occupation helps determine social status, there are other changes, changes that influence many aspects of society, including the social structure. The influence of higher education on the economic and social aspects of society has been consistently increasing in American society.

> In the mediaeval and industrial periods the history of the universities in relation to the economy is one of imperfect and usually belated adaptation to the occupational demands of a culture gradually increasing in its complexity. In the technological society the system of higher education no longer plays a passive role: it becomes a determinant of economic development and hence of stratification and other aspects of social structure.[2]

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[1] William P. McLure, "The Challenge of Vocational and Technical Education," Phi Delta Kappan, XLIII (February, 1962), 215.

[2] A. H. Halsey, "The Changing Functions of Universities in Advanced Industrial Societies," Harvard Educational Review, XXX (Spring, 1960), 119.

A methodology is a procedural arrangement. This study will develop a systematic approach to creating technical programs. Procedures will be defined and arranged in a manner most likely to create technical programs that will have sufficient support and resources to continue so long as a need for such programs exists. The methodology will do more than describe steps for creating technical programs, it will concomitantly describe procedures that will furnish access to sources of continuing support for technical programs.

Need for the Study

Justification for developing the methodology automatically implies showing a need for technical programs in community junior colleges. There is little reason for concern with procedures for creating technical programs, if there is no legitimate reason for their creation.

There are two broad reasons for needing an increasing number of technical programs in community junior colleges. They are economic and social. Economically, more organizations have been and are requiring a greater number of engineering, industrial, health service and public service technicians.

> Of all the workers that make up our labor force of approximately 70 million persons, those classified as professional, technical and kindred workers increased more percentage-wise during the 1950's than

> any other group, and within this broad classification, technicians increased the fastest of all.[1]

During this period electrical and electronic technicians increased 679.2 per cent, other engineering and physical science technicians increased 101.8 per cent, and health service technicians increased 80.2 per cent.[2] "The number of professional and technical workers needed in 1970 is estimated to be about 40 per cent greater than the number employed in 1960."[3]

Many current magazines and newspapers carry accounts of the increasing national need for semi-professional and professional people and the concurrent problem of too many unskilled workers. Localities differ as to their specific numerical needs and types of technicians required. Communities with few industries require technicians in various areas, e.g., food service, medicine and dentistry. Because of the underlying philosophy of the community junior college, it is the responsibility of the locally controlled and concerned community junior colleges to identify the specific needs of their communities.

A widespread need for technicians does not prescribe more technical programs in community junior colleges. Other

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[1]H. H. London, Technical Education: The Job To Be Done and Means Of Doing It, A paper read at the Midwest Community College Leadership Program (Columbia, Missouri: U. of Missouri, March 26, 1963), p. 2.

[2]Ibid.

[3]McLure, p. 212.

alternatives are available.[1] In 1962, proposals for a vast new system of area vocational-technical institutes were submitted to Congress. Professor Harris, the technical education consultant at the University of Michigan, points out that the construction of such a system of vocational-technical institutes would be extravagant, because hundreds of community junior colleges already exist, and that postponement of technical education until such institutions are approved and constructed would endanger our society.[2] There would also be a problem of acceptance. Would people accept the educational endeavors of vocational-technical institutes as higher education or would they disparagingly label such endeavors glorified secondary education? The answer to this question would have important consequences for the other reason, the social reason for creating more technical programs.

The role of formal education in determining social status directly and indirectly, primarily by determining occupation, is becoming increasingly important. In 1939 T. H. Marshall wrote:

> Social structure, in so far as it reflects occupational structure, is frozen as soon as it emerges from the fluid preparatory stage of schooling. Mobility between generations is increased, but mobility during the working life of one generation is diminished. That appears to be the direction in which

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[1] J. Chester Swanson, "Education for Occupational Competence," Phi Delta Kappan, XLIV (April, 1963), 325.

[2] Norman C. Harris, The Community Junior College - A Solution to the Skilled Manpower Problem, A paper read at the Seventeenth National Conference on Higher Education (Chicago: March 5, 1962), p. 6.

> things are moving today, toward the transfer of individual competitiveness from the economic to the educational world, from the office and workship to the school and university.[1]

Ely Chinoy, writing in 1955, stated:

> The mass of available evidence demonstrates clearly the existence of a high correlation between occupation and the various criteria of class: prestige, income, wealth, style of life, and power. Although there is some disagreement on the relative importance of each of these variables within the total system, there seems ample warrant for concluding that in American society, at least, occupation is probably the most significant, that is, it is more likely to influence other variables than to be influenced by them.[2]

If education is the primary determinant of occupation and, consequently, social status, access to higher education is necessary for higher occupational and social status. Technical programs offered by community junior colleges are different from, but as demanding as, liberal arts programs. Both types of programs are higher education with the eventual consequences of higher occupational and social status for the graduates of such programs. If the programs are confined to educational institutions with less prestige, the social effects are altered. Community junior colleges lack the clear identity and prestige of senior institutions, but senior institutions have not had the ability or desire to offer technical programs. Community junior colleges do offer college parallel courses and these common offerings place community junior colleges academically closer to four year institutions than vocational-technical

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[1] T. H. Marshall, Man, Work, and Society, ed. Simond Nosow and William Form (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1962), p. 234.

[2] Ely Chinoy, ibid., p. 354.

institutes which may have no course offerings in common with four year colleges.[1] In a democratic society where opportunities for social mobility are valued, technical programs afford another opportunity.

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[1]In line with Ginsberg's remarks on the first page, there is a circular arrangement of cause and effect. Occupations with high status often require higher education. Does the prestige associated with high status occupations attach itself to institutions offering prerequisite education to those occupations, or vice versa? Regardless of how the cycle originally started, prestige is attached to programs leading to high status occupations and this prestige is generalized in some degree to the educational institution and all of its offerings. A comprehensive community junior college has programs leading to many professional occupations whereas vocational-technical institutes confine their offerings to semi-professional areas. The comprehensive nature of community junior colleges may be a status disadvantage when comparisons are made with senior institutions, but it is an advantage when comparisons are made with vocational-technical institutes.

CHAPTER II

RELATED STUDIES AND ASSUMPTIONS

Related Studies

A review of periodical literature and books concerned with community junior colleges discloses a dearth of studies concerned with a systematic method of developing and instituting technical programs. One article pointed to the need for a study in this area.[1] Israel Light is concerned with the growing demand for medical technicians and suggests a survey be made of successful technical programs in an effort to discover "tips" that could help other communities.[2] Light's proposal is certainly worthwhile, but a survey with no theoretical framework, to be thorough and generalizable, requires considerable time and makes analysis difficult. A methodology is also more refined than "tips," and more systematic in its approach.

Most articles concerned with the development of technical programs are devoted to discussing what courses should be included. The determination of courses and course content is a major concern of instructors, so consequently little space and thought is devoted to other groups. Some articles seem to imply that a college is the domain of professionals, instructors

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[1] Israel Light, "Training for Health Occupations," Junior College Journal, XXXIII (March, 1963), 16-21.

[2] Ibid., p. 20.

and administrators, and little consideration need be given to those individuals and groups outside of a college's organizational boundaries. One article describing the development of a two year nursing program almost completely ignored the environment of the community junior college, including professional nursing groups and hospital administrators.[1] The authors did mention the importance of appearing before groups to inform people and to recruit students.[2] There was always the implication that the public was to be informed but not consulted. Higher education for nurses is expected and required, and little explanation and discussion is necessary.[3] The same argument does not apply in the case of many other technical programs. Would technical programs in law enforcement and management of restaurants and hotels be as readily accepted?

A recent study by Poland criticizes professional educators for not establishing procedures that would articulate community junior colleges with their communities. Poland surveyed the business programs offered by Michigan community junior colleges and concluded that "the business programs in the public community colleges of Michigan were not reflecting the changes

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[1] Georgeen D. Chow et al., "Planning and Organizing a Nursing Education Program in the Junior College," Junior College Journal, XXXI (April, 1961), 447-50.

[2] Ibid., pp. 449-50.

[3] This does not include individuals and groups who advocate nursing programs of three years and longer. It will take more than lectures to convince them a two year program is sufficient.

taking place within the community and society."[1] As a source of assistance and support in planning, creating, and updating business technical programs, Poland recommended working with the National Office Management Association, the National Secretaries Association, local business advisory committees, and by exchanging information with other community junior colleges in Michigan and throughout the country.

Technical programs, being relatively recent additions to educational institutions, do not have wide acceptance and prestige.[2] This is sufficient reason for cultivating supporting relationships with other community groups. Ralph Wenrich, Professor of Vocational Education at the University of Michigan, identifies another factor that heightens the need for such relationships. Technical programs are generally more expensive than college parallel programs.[3] To get support for technical programs, "the community college must maintain and further develop community relations, which can be facilitated through advisory committees."[4]

Another study is a book by Fields. He examines four community junior colleges and presents their methods of developing

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[1]Robert Poland, "Implications of Certain Social, Economic, and Technical Trends on Business Curricula in the Public Community Colleges of Michigan" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, College of Education, Michigan State University), p. 153.

[2]Swanson, p. 324.

[3]Ralph C. Wenrich, "The Community College and Technical Education," School and Society (February 9, 1963), p. 54.

[4]Ralph C. Wenrich, "Administration of Technical Education in Junior Community Colleges," Technical Education News, XXII (April, 1963), 17.

programs. One of the colleges, Long Beach City College, places importance on involving lay people in technical program development. For this reason more than forty lay advisory committees assist in developing technical programs.[1] These committees are especially helpful in providing "information regarding the need for workers and suggestions with respect to processes and equipment."[2] Another college, the Junior College of Connecticut, uses special committees of lay citizens to assist in planning programs in business, nursing, engineering, and other fields.[3] Tyler Junior College in Texas also stresses co-operation between the college and other organizations in the development of programs.[4] Orange County Community College in New York also works with lay advisory groups in developing programs. Several of the original technical programs established at Orange County Community College failed, perhaps because they were developed without community support and lay co-operation. Since the early failures, lay groups have been intensively used in the development of technical programs.[5] Fields considers all four colleges to be illustrations of successful comprehensive community junior colleges. Informants at the four colleges indicate that concern with lay people has contributed to

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[1]Ralph R. Fields, The Community College Movement (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962), p. 169-70.

[2]Ibid., p. 170.

[3]Ibid., p. 181.

[4]Ibid., p. 218.

[5]Ibid., p. 129.

the success of their respective colleges. The effects of a college's offerings go beyond its boundaries, it is only reasonable that the same boundaries can be breached from the opposite side. Control of a college can be maintained by an administrator who uses the breaches to form supporting relationships. Ignoring or contesting with those who attempt to influence a college may avoid commitments, but it threatens the objectives of a comprehensive community junior college.

The brevity of this review of literature reflects the lack of methodological study in the area of technical program development. There are many studies concerned with general curriculum development, primarily on the elementary and secondary levels. Most curriculum studies assume community support and legitimation for the courses and programs developed and offered. Those are dangerous assumptions to make when planning technical programs in community junior colleges.

Assumptions

The community junior college is a social system.[1] This focuses attention on social processes. Can social processes be scientifically described, explained and predicted? Social processes are composed of individuals' behavior, and individuals are idiosyncratic. You can never tell what a person will do, so the argument goes. And yet, most people agree that

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[1]The next chapter will examine the concept of community junior college, including the definition of social system, in considerable detail. For a basis of discussion in this chapter it is sufficient to know that social processes are necessary to a social system.

human behavior is usually purposive and rational in terms of the person behaving. Behavior is caused, an individual behaves as he does for specific reasons or causes. There is logic to behavior, and it is capable of scientific analysis because it is determined by a causal order. Another argument attacking the scientific claims of social scientists asserts that only those people who feel deeply, who intuitively understand others, can genuinely explain and predict with any certainty the behavior of people.[1] If this is true, how can the intuitive approach be evaluated? On what basis can "understanding" people be identified? On their personal claims? On indiscriminate observation? Only the scientific method can measure the validity and reliability of the intuitive approach. On the basis of these arguments and counter arguments, it is assumed that sociology is a science and that individual behavior can be scientifically observed and classified under general concepts.

Science is sometimes dichotomized into pure and applied science. To clarify the concept, it is best to view pure and applied as opposite ends of a science continuum. The distinction between the two is not always clear because they blend into each other. Pure science develops theories, provides concepts, and furnishes interpretations of phenomena, all of which can be utilized by applied science. Applied science initiates new hypotheses, clarifies concepts, and tests theories, all of

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[1]This paragraph is taken largely from the thesis of Gwen Andrew, "Criteria for Systems Models and Their Application to a Sociological Theory of Organizations" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Dept. of Sociology and Anthropology, Michigan State University), pp. 13-23.

which provide assistance to pure science. Applied social scientists are less abstract than pure social scientists and more concerned with the implications of research for a specific situation or type of situation instead of the implications for highly abstract generalizations. "Applied social science is characterized by an orientation to the values of laymen, as well as of scientists."[1] This study will be concerned with one value-foci held by lay people - "The improvement of the efficiency or effectiveness with which diverse lay goals are pursued."[2] Effectiveness can be improved by developing a methodology that identifies and systematically arranges essential steps. "Methodological advancement is a necessary and productive pursuit for the scientist and concern with methodology is a prerequisite to advance although methodology per se does not produce substantive knowledge."[3]

Sociological phenomena are complex and it is difficult to identify crucial variables.[4] When developing a methodology and attempting to identify significant variables, applied social scientists must be concerned with how accessible to control the variables are, as well as the predictive power of the

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[1]Alvin W. Gouldner, "Theoretical Requirements of the Applied Social Sciences," The Planning of Change, ed. Warren Bennis, Kenneth Benne, and Robert Chin (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), p. 83.

[2]Ibid., p. 84.

[3]Andrew, p. 22.

[4]Ibid.

variables.[1] Applied social scientists must also consider values and costs. Management of an independent variable may violate certain values and the cost may be excessive according to those who control the resources.[2] These circumstances further complicate the task.

Sociologists are currently devoting considerable attention to models. Models can be divided into analytic and concrete,[3] divisions that are similar to pure and applied science. Models are useful for several reasons. Mills views models of society as sources of many theories. Models focus attention on elements and relations among elements, a necessary prerequisite to understanding.[4] Gwen Andrew sees models as assistants in deriving hypotheses from substantive social theories.[5] Chin emphasizes the analytical usage of models. Models help "the theorist to recognize what factors are being taken into account and what relationships among them are assumed."[6] A "model is a constructed simplification of some part of reality that retains only those features regarded as essential for relating similar processes whenever and wherever they occur."[7] Models focus on

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[1]Gouldner, p. 86.

[2]Ibid., pp. 89-90.

[3]Chin, ibid., p. 202.

[4]C. Wright Mills, Images of Man (New York: George Braziller, Inc., 1960), p. 3.

[5]Andrew, p. 22.

[6]Chin, p. 202.

[7]Ibid.

certain elements, processes and relationships, and models ignore other possible considerations. Mills points out that the value of a model is determined by its usefulness, not by the testing of theories and hypotheses derived from the model. A model can be useful so long as it provokes thinking and hypothesizing, and a model may be altered to more accurately portray reality.

This study is somewhat unorthodox in that it attempts to achieve two research goals. The primary goal is the development of a methodology for creating technical programs in a community junior college and the other goal is to identify some of the properties of the change processes that create technical programs. In connection with the primary goal, it is assumed that the methodology developed will also have some application for other change processes. The creation of technical programs was selected for a methodological study because of the urgent and continued need for such programs and because technical programs can illustrate how both groups within and without the organizational boundaries of a college can influence change.

Although there is a dearth of material directly related to the primary goal of this study, there is considerable data and theory relevant to social systems and the process of change. The following chapter reports some of these results and develops a frame of reference for the community junior college. While this researcher was reading numerous articles and books, and while organizing his notes, he found theoretical, and in many studies empirical, support for the identification

of certain properties as being crucial to the change process. This led to a second goal, the examination of several properties that were generated by the frame of reference and the models of planned change.

The St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College is used as a case study for several reasons. The development of a methodology for creating technical programs is a relatively unexplored area. The lack of previous studies indicated an intensive study: a study that would focus primarily on seeking or discovery instead of testing.[1] Two methods of gathering data for an intensive study are unstructured interviews and participant observation. An intensive study attempts to explain the unique features of a case and the commonalities of a case with other cases. In an intensive study, "cases with 'striking features' are more rewarding."[2]

For three months the researcher was in an excellent position to be a participant observer and to have unstructured interviews. As part of the Kellogg Junior College Leadership Program at Michigan State University, the researcher was an administrative intern at the St. Louis junior college for the first three months of 1963. He worked primarily with the vice-president for instruction, who is responsible for the development of technical programs. As an intern, the researcher

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[1]The type of research described in this paragraph is called "insight-stimulating" and is found in: Claire Seltiz et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1959), pp. 59-60.

[2]Ibid., p. 60.

attended all Board, staff and curriculum planning meetings during the three month period. The researcher kept notes of the meetings he attended and maintained a diary. The researcher also received and saved minutes of Board and staff meetings held during this internship. He collected all of the press releases ever issued by the college, saved newspaper clippings, examined all of the Board minutes, saved copies of various reports, and read the back issues of newspapers. While an intern, the researcher interviewed some of the citizens that helped create the junior college, Board members, and members of the junior college staff. From his experiences, interviews and printed sources of information, the researcher has accumulated considerable data concerning the creation of the St. Louis junior college and technical programs that will be offered by the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College District.

The St. Louis junior college was not only accessible, it was also a new college. The college board had appointed a president only four months prior to the arrival of the researcher. Five months after the president assumed his duties, students started attending classes. The community junior college was created by a citizens group that could trace its beginnings to a study of higher education completed four years previously. This group of citizens had surprised the observers of Missouri politics by pushing through enabling legislation in record time. The Board of Trustees was infected with the same urgency, and the members transmitted this sense of urgency to the staff by the process of selection and by example.

There are other "striking features" to the St. Louis college and they will be discussed in a later chapter. The purpose of these examples is to present another reason for using the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College as an intensive case study.

Briefly stated, the researcher assumes that:

1. Social processes can be scientifically described, explained and predicted.
2. Applied social science can contribute directly to the improvement of society and to the advancement of pure research.
3. The development of a methodology is a valid concern of science.
4. Models are valuable tools of scientists.
5. The community junior college is a social system capable of being scientifically analyzed.
6. Planned change is a consequence of social processes.
7. The creation of technical programs in a community junior college is one example of planned change.
8. An intensive case study is a profitable approach to developing a methodology and identifying properties.
9. The analysis of the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College is a worthwhile case study for developing the methodology for creating technical programs in community junior colleges and for identifying properties crucial to the change processes.

CHAPTER III

A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF THE COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

This chapter will examine the "change agent," the community junior college, from several perspectives. Each perspective will widen the scene and reveal more factors of possible significance. The community junior college will be sociologically analyzed as 1) a comprehensive college, 2) an "open door" college, 3) an externally authority-oriented organization, 4) a development organization, 5) a bureaucratic organization, 6) a social organization, and 7) a social system. Each perspective will present another dimension of the community junior college. The purpose of this categorical analysis is to gain a better understanding of the organization, and to identify important elements whose variations influence the ability to engender planned change.

A Comprehensive College

Two year colleges, variously called community junior colleges, junior colleges, and community colleges, are not a recent educational innovation. The "Gay Nineties" of the Nineteenth Century were still lively when the first junior college started matriculating students.[1] The earliest junior colleges

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[1] James W. Thornton, Jr., The Community Junior College (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1960), p. 47.

were "feeder colleges," colleges only offering courses transferable to senior institutions. Every student enrolled in early junior colleges intended to transfer and complete a baccalaureate degree. This was a major reason for labeling them junior colleges.

The concept of the comprehensive community junior college is more recent. It is a consequence of the Great Depression and World War II, events that fostered adult and technical education. Comprehensive colleges are usually assigned five functions. They are: 1) transfer programs, 2) technical programs, 3) general education, 4) community service, and 5) guidance.[1] Each college is unique in the amount of emphasis it places on each function, but to be a truly comprehensive college it must assume responsibility for providing all five functions.

Clark and Selznick, two sociologists currently in California, the leading state in both number of comprehensive community junior colleges and number of students enrolled, have expressed skepticism about the effectiveness[2] of comprehensive colleges. In a study of adult education Burton Clark observed that "the more diffuse the goals of action agencies, the more an over-all institutional evolution will tend to be governed by emergent phenomena. Goal specificity, however, contributes to

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[1] Ibid., pp. 59-69.

[2] Chester I. Barnard's definition of effectiveness will be used throughout this study. Effectiveness is the attainment of a desired end or ends. The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard U. Press, 1960), p. 19.

control over change."[1] This observation, if generally accurate, poses a serious problem for an organization that views controlled change as both ends and means to further development.

The inclusion of a program in a college bulletin does not assure wide acceptance, for a priority is usually attached to each program. Programs with low priority will have low status and consequently will be insecure. Whenever funds become short, the austere budget will omit such programs. This insecurity adversely affects the morale of employees engaged in low priority programs, makes it difficult to recruit qualified people, and discourages long range planning.[2] One way of reducing insecurity is to make commitments to other groups in exchange for support. The price often paid is loss of control over offerings and objectives.

Another problem associated with the comprehensive nature of a college is the level of course content in a specific class.[3] This is the same problem that has caused some elementary and secondary schools to group students according to ability. Clark may have exaggerated this problem. Students with different objectives, e.g., liberal arts and technical education, will seldom have more than one-third of their classes together. There is also the option of having honors classes for students prepared and qualified for more demanding academic work.

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[1]Burton R. Clark, Adult Education in Transition (Berkeley: U. of California Press, 1956), p. 146.

[2]Ibid., pp. 148-49.

[3]Burton R. Clark, The Open Door College, A Case Study (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), p. 81.

Philip Selznick is not as specific as Clark in pointing to potential problems, but his tentative conclusion as to the feasibility of effective comprehensive colleges is clear.

> On theoretical grounds, it is hard to believe that, in the long run, we can combine the true transfer student with the true vocational student, and then lump together a serious effort to educate these two classes of students with the entirely different function of counseling. . . . Offhand and for purposes of discussion I wonder whether we will not have to reverse the trend toward the general community college.[1]

Unfortunately Selznick did not identify the theoretical grounds he had in mind. It is hoped that subsequent perspectives in this chapter will identify those and other theoretical grounds, some that may lead to different conclusions.

An Open Door College

The importance of formal education in the determination of social status is evident to most people. Parents who are anxious to see their children "move ahead," i.e., improve their social status, urge them to continue their education. Lipset and Bendix state: "education . . . has become the principal avenue for upward mobility in most industrialized societies."[2] In a democratic society the opportunity to improve one's status is a right. If education is the foremost opportunity, then

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[1]Philip Selznick, "A Sociologist Views Junior College Administration," Journal of Secondary Education, XXXVI (January, 1961), 38.

[2]Seymour Lipset and Reinhard Bendix, Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Los Angeles: U. of California Press, 1959), p. 91.

every citizen is entitled to education so long as he may profit from it.

How does one determine if a particular person will profit from college education? Jeffersonian philosophy would support restrictive admission standards, e.g., test results and high school grades. Jacksonian philosphy would support the "open door" policy whereby all high school graduates are allowed to enter and remain so long as they do satisfactory work. Jacksonian philosophy assumes the only fair test is an actual test.

In American society it is difficult to say which philosophy is currently in ascendancy. With no intention of cynicism, the same person will use both viewpoints, but he will use them in different situations. As a tax payer he will criticize publicly supported colleges for admitting anyone who has a high school diploma, but as a parent he will criticize publicly supported colleges for not admitting his child and giving his child a chance. Nowadays, with the demand for higher education increasing, the problem of accomodating students has become acute.

> There are several sources of a build-up of a "must go to college" orientation in American youth. The general emphasis in our culture on individual achievement excites a pressing-on through education, because it is now apparently widely perceived that a college education is the main road to upward mobility. For an increasing number of professional, business, and scientific fields, college is the normal gateway. Aspirations of students, supported by the hopes of their parents, build a general pressure for higher education. Besides, the "equal rights" beliefs of a general democratic ethos become readily translated, as previously indicated, into a doctrine that all have a right to enter college.[1]

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[1]Clark, The Open Door, . . ., p. 161.

Until the last few years, most high school graduates that wanted a chance in college were able to gain admittance to a tax supported college. According to Lipset and Bendix, even this observation of the past is too optimistic for one large group of society, the lower-class. "Increased educational opportunities have opened the door to mobility for many of the sons of lower-class parents, [but] the larger majority are still not able to attend college."[1] Regardless of the number unable to attend in the past, the future is hardly promising unless more colleges with lower tuition and fees are created. State colleges are forced to turn away students and raise their fees. This combination of events reduces social mobility opportunities and wastes human resources.

Some tax supported colleges accept a large number of freshmen, but set extremely high standards in an effort to satisfy both philosophical factions. The consequence of this approach is what Clark calls "structured failure."

> The disjuncture between ends and means, between the open door and standards dooms large number of students to failure. A basic need is thus created in higher education, the need of knowing how to handle the induced failures. This need exists in varying degrees of intensity in different states according to (1) the magnitude and strength of the social pressure for college entry and (2) the concern for quality and high standards. When both are high, a potentially explosive situation exists for the public colleges.[2]

The community junior college "is a cutting edge of the democratization trend in American education because of its

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[1]Lipset, p. 99.

[2]Clark, The Open Door, . . ., p. 162.

abolition of formal barriers."[1] People holding Jacksonian beliefs hope this college will keep its fees and tuition low and its doors open so that it may furnish the opportunity of self-improvement.

> One of its primary functions is to give substance to the ideal of equal opportunity for appropriate education for all citizens. In carrying out this obligation, the community junior college is keenly aware that we do not know how to predict college success with anything approaching perfect accuracy; hence it plans to provide a chance for any applicant who, after competent counseling, insists that he would like to attempt a given course. It does not, of course, guarantee that every student will succeed. Its purpose is to make sure that every person is granted the opportunity to succeed or to fail by his own efforts.[2]

An Externally Authority-Oriented Organization

This perspective views a portion of a continuum of control - "the mastery of material and non-material resources to realize goals."[3] In his dissertation Preiss elaborated a typology of control to assist in explaining the seemingly inconsistent ratings given to county agents by their superiors in Cooperative Extension. With the aid of the typology and its theoretical implications, Preiss offered a logical explanation for the phenomenon of agents disregarding directives from

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[1] Ibid., p. 158.

[2] Thornton, p. 35.

[3] Jack J. Preiss, "The Functions of Relevant Power and Authority Groups in the Evaluation of County Agent Performance" (Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Dept. of Sociology and Anthropology, Michigan State University, 1954), p. 12.

superiors and subsequently being given high ratings by the same superiors.

An explanation of Preiss' typology of control employs two concepts that represent opposite ends of the continuum.

> It is proposed to treat "power" and "authority" as equi-level concepts which may be looked upon as the opposite ends of a continuum. Both are subsumed under the universal idea of control, as previously defined. It is realized that this arrangement is somewhat arbitrary, but an elementary arbitrariness is required for any systematization of observably recurrent behavior.[1]

Power and authority can best be defined by describing their crucial functional and formative factors. The following characteristics, although not claimed to be all of the essential ones, do clarify the concepts.[2]

Characteristics	Ideal Control Group Types	
	Power	Authority
Roles and interrelationships	Amorphous	Specifically defined
Internal structural arrangement of members	Variable and fluid	Hierarchical and rigid
Area and scope of group activity	Fluctuates according to external conditions and to desires of current membership	Fixed and continuous
Range and choice of action alternatives	Wide	Narrow

[1] Ibid., pp. 24-25.

[2] Ibid., pp. 30-32.

Characteristics	Ideal Control Group Types	
	Power	Authority
Legitimization	Self-legitimized	Legitimized by the larger society or ethical code in which groups exists
Group Orientation to conflict	Desire to promote conflict with other groups in areas of self-interest	Conscious avoidance of conflict situations
Intra-group relations	Stress and tension	Harmony
Inter-group relations	Competition and dominance	Cooperative and division of labor

"In terms of the above characteristics, it can be surmised that the internal and external orientations of groups may vary in terms of power and authority. This means that intra-groups and inter-group behavior will have to be evaluated separately in given situations."[1] "It is [also] suggested that if any single characteristic of groups observed in an interactive process can give clues as to the general polarity of each group it will be that of orientation to conflict."[2] "The term 'conflict' may best be described as an opposing action involving incompatibles, or divergent interests, in which the combatants vie for control."[3]

Americans are power-oriented because of the "American Ethic." "This is the conviction that the individual human

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[1] Ibid., pp. 32-33.

[2] Ibid., p. 37.

[3] Ibid., p. 36.

being can never be completely understood or mastered by finite methods or agencies. The faith in the free and independent spirit is a kind of fundamental postulate which permeates the entire society, and which is consciously eulogized and fostered as desirable for its own sake."[1] This places the community junior college in a precarious situation. The college is expected to be rationally organized and operated to achieve certain objectives desired by its community. The college is dependent on the community and consequently subject to its control. Groups within the community that are self-legitimized feel free to attack the college, but the college has the unenviable assignment of attempting to please everyone and of avoiding conflict.

A Development Organization

A development organization is defined as a bureaucratically arranged organization with at least one specifiable goal, a goal that involves developing another social system, e.g., a community. This goal cannot be achieved without the co-operation of at least one individual or organization not controlled by the bureaucratic command. A development organization needs access to other organizations and individuals as requisites for reaching its goals. A development organization is designed to create social changes by developing resources of various kinds. Since these resources are not controlled by the organization, co-operative arrangements must be made

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[1] Ibid., pp. 43-44.

between the development organization and the organizations and individuals that do control the necessary resources.

Community junior colleges are normally expected to develop the human resources of their communities. The college controls course offerings, but the students must apply for admission. Even when students apply, are admitted, and attend classes, the development of their resources, abilities in their case, requires co-operation from students. Students attend class, interact with instructors, and study educational materials because they view the processes as profitable for them. Homan's exchange theory of interaction explains this ubiquitous phenomenon. "Interaction between persons is an exchange of goods, material and non-material."[1] "Change in behavior is greatest when perceived profit is least."[2] Students that see no profit in attending class without learning course material and see profit in learning course material will co-operate by developing their abilities.

In the case of technical programs, what factors influence the perceptions of a student? Since technical programs are designed for specific occupational areas, the probability of

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[1]George C. Homans, "Social Behavior as Exchange," American Journal of Sociology, LXIII (May, 1958), 597.

[2]Ibid., p. 603.

obtaining a position for which a student is preparing is a major factor.[1] Indirectly, such factors as prestige, security, material rewards and opportunities for advancement would influence a student by furnishing criteria for evaluating and selecting an educational program and by determining the value attached to completion of the program. All of these factors can be viewed as resources belonging to other organizations and individuals. Community junior colleges will need to co-operate with organizations and individuals if they expect to maintain a high likelihood of their graduates being employed as technicians, and if they expect to influence prestige, security, material rewards and opportunities for advancement.

A Bureaucratic Organization

By definition a development organization is a bureaucratic organization. Blau lists four characteristics of bureaucratic organizations. They are: specialization, hierarchy of authority, a system of rules, and impersonality.[2] Williams lists eleven characteristics[3] and concludes that "size plus

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[1]This discussion will ignore the social classroom situation which also affects the behavior of students. Students who wish to impress instructors and academically oriented peers will be motivated to learn the course materials. Students who use non-academically oriented peers, i.e., students who place little value on learning the course material, as their reference group will not be motivated to learn the course material.

[2]Peter M. Blau, Bureaucracy in Modern Society (New York: Random House, 1956).

[3]Robin M. Williams, Jr. American Society: A Sociological Interpretation (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1959), pp. 177-78.

specialization . . . tend to produce bureaucracy."[1] As organizations grow larger, informal communications patterns are replaced by indirect, formal, lines of communication. "Specialization of function complicates the problem of co-ordination by necessitating both indirect communication and special co-ordinating centers."[2] "The notion of bureaucracy is an ideal type, which by definition never exactly fits any particular organizations. . . . There are differing kinds and degrees of bureaucracy."[3]

Community junior colleges are not identically organized. A large college with many specialized programs would likely have a high degree of bureaucratization whereas a small college with a few specialized programs would likely have a low degree of bureaucratization. That is, larger and more complex organizations will have more hierarchical levels and "action will be increasingly oriented to explicit and impersonal rules."[4]

Bureaucratization is not a frivolous process. Bureaucratic organizations are "the archetype of formal, functionally rational organizations."[5]

> Technological development, by requiring more specialization of personnel and equipment, adds to the heterogeneity of an organization. Related skills and knowledge formerly lodged in one person or one group are split. While such devisive developments

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[1] Ibid., p. 180.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 177.

[4] Ibid., p. 458.

[5] Ibid., p. 177.

> undoubtedly allow for greater precision within an area of activity, they also intensify the need for, and concern over, integration of the several activities.[1]

A bureaucratic organization is rationally structured, staffed, and managed to perform certain functions, to achieve certain goals. However, the "stuff" from which an organization is made, people, is not rational. Individuals are employed by a bureaucratic organization to perform operations that contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. The individuals' "willingness to co-operate"[2] is determined by their goals. More explicitly, individuals work for an organization because of personal goals. Their concern with organizational goals could run the gamut of antagonism to the organization's goals to a missionary zeal for achieving the organization's goals.

A community junior college has several technical functions, one of them being teaching. For this function professional people are required. Other professional people have different technical functions, e.g., administrators are expected to maintain the organization. The ultimate goal is the development of human resources. An operational goal of the organization could be the preparation of electronic technicians. Representatives of organizations employing electronic

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[1] James Thompson and Frederick Bates, "Technology, Organization, and Administration," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (December, 1957), 343.

[2] "Willingness to co-operate" is a phrase used by Chester I. Barnard. He defines willingness as "self-abnegation, the surrender of control of personal conduct, the depersonalization of personal action," p. 84.

technicians may work with instructors and administrators in determining what knowledge and skills prepare a student for an electronic technician position. Some of the instructors teaching courses included in the electronic technician program may have different opinions as to what the students need to learn. If an administrator asks the instructor to change his course content, the instructor may argue that the administrator is exceeding his authority and that the administrator is not qualified to determine course content. The instructor is not concerned with the opinions of administrators, his reference group is his profession. This breach, that often occurs between the goals of an organization, as interpreted by the administrators, and the goals of its professional members, has been amply described and illustrated by many writers, including Perrow[1], Katz[2], Wilensky[3], Becker[4] and Parsons.[5] Gouldner summarizes

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[1]Charles Perrow uses physicians to illustrate this point. Physicians look to the medical profession for validation of their work, not to hospital staff members. ("Organizational Prestige: Some Functions and Dysfunctions," American Journal of Sociology, LXVI [January, 1961], 340).

[2]Solomon Katz noted how this made college instructors in disciplinary fields of short supply "increasingly restless." (New Frontiers in Administration, papers presented at the 1962 conference for Junior College Administrators, Seattle, Washington, p. 11).

[3]Harold Wilensky, in his study of labor unions, developed several types of orientations toward a position within a labor union. For example, the "missionary" saw the union as a vehicle for social change whereas the "professional service expert" is concerned with his outside professional group. (Intellectuals in Labor Unions, Organizational Pressures on Professional Roles [Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press], 1956).

[4]Howard Becker and James Carper call the process that produces a commitment to occupational title "acquisition of ideology." ("The Development of Identification with an

the dilemma in this manner. "There seems to be some tension between an organization's bureaucratic needs for expertise and its social-systems needs for loyalty. The need for loyalty sets certain limits within which the need for expertise is pursued and vice versa."[1] Blau and Scott succinctly state it: "Although a professional orientation motivates a person to do better work in terms of professional standards, it also gives him a basis for ignoring administrative considerations and thus may lead to poorer performance in terms of the standards of the organization."[2]

Another characteristic of bureaucratic organizations that significantly influences their ability to achieve their goals is the hierarchy of authority and the rigidity of this structure. The hierarchy of authority is the

> subordinate-superiordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system. It is here, in these relationships, that the assignment of statuses, the provision of facilities, the organization of

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Occupation," American Journal of Sociology, LXI [January, 1956], 297).

[5]Talcott Parsons noted that educators who are members of the managerial organization may look to professional peers and colleagues instead of their "boss" in connection with judging their competence. (Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew W. Halpin [Chicago: U. of Chicago, 1958], p. 47).

[1]Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles - II," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (March, 1958), 466.

[2]Peter Blau and Richard Scott, Formal Organizations, A Comparative Approach (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 246.

> procedures, the regulation of activity, and the evaluation of performance takes place.[1]

In bureaucratic organizations "every office is a link in a chain of authority, and as a general rule communications . . . pass through all the offices intermediate to the positions of the communicants."[2] "Classical theories of management place primary emphasis on control, chain of command, and the downward flow of orders and influence. There is no corresponding emphasis on adequate and accurate upward communication."[3] Likert believes that management theories leading to rigid bureaucratic structures are based on a questionable assumption and repetitive work situations. "They assume that people work only or primarily for economic returns. More specifically, these theories assume that buying a man's time gives the employer control of the subordinate's behavior."[4]

A community junior college does not perform repetitive tasks that can be broken into well organized and precisely defined operational steps. That is why professionals are required. A community junior college needs individuals who, in an effort to understand the nuances of different assignments, have spent more time learning their occupation. The work of

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[1]Jacob W. Getzels, Administrative Theory in Education, . . ., p. 151.

[2]Williams, p. 178.

[3]Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961), p. 46.

[4]Ibid., p. 59.

professionals or experts is not amenable to the assembly line arrangement of repetitive, uncomplicated operations.

"High performance in varied jobs tends to be achieved more from enthusiasm and a high level of motivation than from better organization of the job."[1] Enthusiasm and a high level of motivation can be achieved when members believe the goals of their organization are important, and when they believe their efforts are necessary to achieving the goals. "Communicative and decision-making participation by subordinates with superiors"[2] is one method of achieving more co-operation, the anticipated consequence of high motivation and enthusiasm. It is the interactive processes that hold an organization together and enable it to achieve its goals.[3] Obviously, however, in a large organization everyone cannot interact with all others and everyone cannot participate in decision making. Dubin offers a compromise suggestion for organizational goal achievement. "What is crucial to organization effectiveness is not universal participation in decision making, but rather the adequacy of representation of operating groups in the decision-making process."[4]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Robert Dubin, "Human Relations in Formal Organizations," Review of Educational Research, XXIX (October, 1959), 357.

[3] Williams refers to Stouffer's famous study of American soldiers during W. W. II to show how the military organization, par excellence of hierarchy, was effective despite the rigid hierarchy. American soldiers fought because of loyalty to their comrades and because of internalized national goals. Williams, p. 414.

[4] Dubin, p. 361.

Some relevant studies in communication flow have recently been conducted. These studies were designed to test a hierarchical pattern against an equalitarian pattern. Henning, when reporting one such study, noted that "information-flows in an organization can be structured so as to determine who in the organization will become powerful."[1] Communication patterns not only are determined by authority attached to a position, but control of information reinforces the authority by furnishing a source of power to the position incumbent. A star pattern, similar to a hierarchical pattern in that all communications are directed to one position, immediately provides high efficiency, close control, and a minimum number of communications to solve simple, repetitive problems. A wheel pattern, an equalitarian pattern in that all individuals communicate with the two people occupying contiguous positions, provides creativity, high morale, and adaptability to change.[2] A study by Carzo used similar patterns of communication and more problem solving trials. Carzo hypothesized that:

> In structures that permit all members to participate, the additional skills and abilities applied to problems produce faster decisions than structures that depend heavily on one member for decisions. Moreover, the greater amount of participation permitted by loose structures will have psychological value (i.e., ego involvement) to group members.[3]

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[1] Dale A. Henning, New Frontiers in Administration . . ., p. 18.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Rocco Carzo Jr., "Some Effects of Organization Structure on Group Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, VII (March, 1963), 401.

As a consequence of more trials, Carzo's findings indicated that eventually "all groups, regardless of structure, will reach a level of performance that is approximately the same,"[1] if the same types of problems are continuously solved. His findings showed that groups structured hierarchically originally lagged behind other groups in solving complex problems and adjusting to different types of problems. Results of such experiments in communication patterns tend to support Likert's conclusions. A rigid hierarchical structure may be satisfactory for repititious work, but it is not as effective in adjusting to change and handling complex operations.

Blau and Scott also spend considerable time discussing the hierarchical structure and its consequences. The following quotations are some of the more interesting and concise statements they make in this regard.

> Comparing the significance of acute and obtuse pyramids of control, it appears that the latter exert several constraints on managers that are functional for effective supervision. The increased span of control prevents managers from engaging in certain practices - close supervision, dependence on superiors, involvement with subordinates - which may be tempting because of their short-range advantages but which prove to be detrimental to managerial effectiveness in the long run.[2]

> Managerial planning and coordination, the administrative staff they necessitate, and continuity of employment are not inherently incompatible with decision-making on the basis of professional expertness; only disciplined compliance with orders of

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[1] Ibid., p. 423.

[2] Blau and Scott, p. 168.

> hierarchical superiors entails a fundamental conflict with professionalism.[1]
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> The data suggest that a supervisor who expresses loyalty to his superior is less apt than another to command the loyalty of his own subordinates, to be detached in his relations with subordinates, and to exhibit hierarchical independence. If this suggestion is generally true, it would imply that a manager's ability to command his subordinates' loyalty impedes their effectiveness as supervisors in their own right. This implication, in turn, suggests that effective management can be expected to occur only on alternate levels in the hierarchy.[2]

Blau and Scott also see several problems inherent in a hierarchy. They advocate an obtuse pyramid to discourage too much supervision, and they urge less reliance on formal authority to obtain co-operation from professionals. The last quotation presents another interesting dilemma that may occur in a bureaucratic organization.

The conclusion reached by Wilensky after studying several labor unions may be appropriate for this discussion of the community junior college as a bureaucratic organization. Since the community junior college is a comprehensive college, an open door college and a development organization, perhaps it should be wary of bureaucratization and disciplinary professionalization.

> For the union . . . a low degree of bureaucratization may spell greater flexibility in the accomplishment of organizational goals. Devotion to the leader rather than to rules of procedure; partisanship rather than political neutrality; personal loyalty in staff-line-rank-and-file relations rather than depersonalization; loosely defined jobs, rather than

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[1] Ibid., p. 209.

[2] Ibid., pp. 163-64.

> airtight spheres of competence - these mean less pressure for conservatism, overconformity and technicism.[1]

A Social Organization

It is easy to forget that organizations, despite their legal position in American society, are abstractions. We observe concrete behavior of individuals, who are the components of organizations, from which organizations are abstracted.[2] In most organizations interaction occurs among individuals as a necessary process for accomplishing an assigned task. Interaction among individuals also forms informal organizations.

> If we consider a formally organized group to be one in which the members interact as occupants of explicitly defined and interrelated roles, performing prescribed functions, we can predict that continuing formal groupings will quickly develop an informal organization, simply as a by-product of action directed toward the formal objectives of the organization.[3]

Each person in an organization participates in informal groups for different reasons, the reasons being determined by individual backgrounds, perceptions and experiences. As individuals join and leave an organization, different informal groups are formed, persist and disappear. Becker and Geer offer one possible determinant of informal group arrangements -

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[1] Wilensky, p. 278.

[2] Williams, p. 489.

[3] Ibid., p. 457.

"latent culture."[1] "People carry culture with them; when they leave one group setting for another they do not shed the cultural premises of the first setting."[2] Latent cultural items may not be brought into play unless they are in some way mobilized in the daily interaction of group members.[3] The cultural items, if brought into play, could either support or operate against organizational effectiveness. "Latent identities and latent cultures associated with them are likely to furnish the bases for the formation of latent social structures"[4] or informal groups.

Informal groups cannot be ignored and they cannot be controlled directly. Administrators can indirectly control informal groups by considering latent cultural items when employing and assigning personnel. This is partially what Selznick had in mind when he wrote about an "institutional core."

> The creation of an institutional core is partly a matter of selective recruiting, and to this extent overlaps with the task of selecting a social base. By choosing key personnel from a particular social group, the earlier conditioning of the individuals can become a valuable resource for the new organization. Conversely, of course, just such conditioning is in question when a particular source of personnel is rejected. But core-building involves more than selective recruiting. Indoctrination and the sharing of key experiences - especially internal

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[1] Howard S. Becker and Blanche Geer, "Latent Culture: A Note on the Theory of Latent Social Roles," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (September, 1960), 304-313.

[2] Ibid., p. 305.

[3] Ibid., p. 306.

[4] Ibid., p. 310.

> conflicts and other crises - will help to create a unified group and give the organization a special identity.[1]

The concept of "latent culture" helps explain why certain individuals choose certain other individuals with whom to interact, but it does not explain why they interact. Informal groups exist in all organizations,[2] regardless of the members' past experiences and the organizational need for interaction among members. Since social interaction requires an expenditure of energy and time, individuals must interact because they perceive the process as being rewarding. Social interaction furnishes an opportunity to test their self esteem, to gain group approval and validation, and to reaffirm their individual worth and value. Both formal and informal social interaction furnish such opportunities, and both types of opportunities are usually exercised in varying degrees, depending on the individual.

Likert has written about work groups and how their goals influence the effectiveness of an organization. In the studies he conducted, work groups were also informal groups and as work groups goals and organizational goals became more consistent, organizational effectiveness improved.[3] Likert places considerable emphasis on social interaction, the need to keep

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[1]Philip Selznick, "Critical Decisions in Organizational Development," Complex Organizations, A Sociological Reader, ed. Amitai Etzioni (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 357.

[2]Barnard, pp. 114-123.

[3]Likert, p. 30.

employees informed, and the value of affording opportunities for proving the worth of employees.

> The principle of supportive relationships points to a dimension essential for the success of every organization, namely, that the mission of the organization be seen by its members as genuinely important. To be highly motivated, each member of the organization must feel that the organization's objectives are of significance and that his own particular task contributes in an indispensable manner to the organization's achievement of its objectives. He should see his role as difficult, important, meaningful. This is necessary if the individual is to achieve and maintain a sense of personal worth and importance. When jobs do not meet this specification they should be reorganized so that they do.[1]

Likert and Blau appear at first reading to have different opinions as to the tendency of informal groups to produce conformity to group norms. Likert states that "loyalty to a group produces pressures toward conformity,"[2] whereas Blau writes "social acceptance among peers seems not be promote conformity but to increase resistance against group pressure."[3] Further examination reveals that both men have a qualification to their statements, the qualification being the importance attached to the norm by the group. "Norms that pertain to basic values of a group, such as output standards or the taboo on 'squealing,' are too significant to permit any member to violate them; hence, only outcasts are apt to do so."[4] Excessive conformity to informal group norms could preclude organizational

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[1] Ibid., p. 103.

[2] Ibid., p. 162.

[3] Blau and Scott, p. 106.

[4] Ibid. See also Likert, p. 166.

changes.[1] Conversely, an absence of conformity could destroy the organization. Membership in informal groups apparently furnishes social support for both conformity and experimentation.

Blau also sees three conflicts between the bureaucratic and social aspects of an organization that are deleterious to organizational effectiveness. They are:

> Explicit status distinctions tend to reduce social interaction and social support. . . . Several studies report a tendency for lower-status group members to direct their friendship choices disproportionately to upper-status members. Since upper-status members tend not to reciprocate but to direct their choices to others also high in status, lower-status members do not receive their share of the social support that is needed for stimulating thought and making suggestions.[2]
>
> Formally instituted status differences tend to undermine the process of competition for respect.[3]
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> Status differences distort the error-correcting function of social interaction. It is not easy to oppose the judgment of a person with superior power or prestige, and most people will think twice before doing so.[4]

Social interaction is a mechanism for correcting errors, a tool for problem solving, and a source of social support for individuals.

Social interaction can promote co-operative, constructive efforts by reducing misunderstanding and developing social

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[1]The current controversy between railroad companies and unions over the elimination of certain positions is an example of standard conditions too important to change.

[2]Blau and Scott, p. 122.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid., p. 123.

obligations. The degree and duration of social interaction are directly related to consensus among members as to what each person is expected to do.[1] Social obligations furnish another incentive for working toward the same goal. Members of the same informal group have obligations to one another[2] and these obligations are both the cause and effect of co-operative efforts.

Social interaction reduces alienation - "a feeling of powerlessness over one's own affairs."[3] Alienation can lower a person's self esteem, cause a person to show less interest in his work, and generally reduce his contribution to organizational effectiveness. People working alone are more subjected to such feelings.[4] "Alienation was found to be most exacerbated under conditions that minimize interaction between superiordinates and subordinates and, consequently, that reduce opportunities for the latter to influence informally the former."[5]

Clark, in his study of adult education, saw the weak, informal social structure and the lack of professionalism as the major causes of teacher apathy to educational goals and

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[1]Neal Gross et al., Explorations in Role Analysis (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1958), p. 177.

[2]Robert C. Hanson, "The Systemic Linkage Hypothesis and Role Consensus Patterns in Hospital - Community Relations," American Sociological Review, XXVII (June, 1962), 204-305.

[3]Leonard I. Pearlin, "Alienation from Work: A Study of Nursing Personnel," American Sociological Review, XXVII (June, 1962), 315.

[4]Ibid., p. 325.

[5]Ibid.

standards.[1] Likert theorizes that enthusiasm and interest in organizational goal achievement can be obtained by structuring the organization into functioning groups and linking or overlapping the groups to maintain communication throughout the organization.[2] Linking the groups together would also coordinate the various groups and integrate the organization.

A Social System

Social interaction includes individuals (actors), symbolic communication, duration, and objectives.[3] A social system is composed of systematic or patterned interaction of members, and identifiable, interdependent parts - a social structure. According to Loomis every social system contains nine elements: 1) belief (knowledge), 2) sentiment, 3) end, goal or objective, 4) norm, 5) status - role (position), 6) rank, 7) power, 8) sanction, and 9) facility. Each of the nine elements is articulated by a different process. There are also six master processes necessary to a social system. They are: 1) communication, 2) boundary maintenance, 3) systemic linkage, 4) socialization, 5) social control, and 6) institutionalization. "From a sociologist's standpoint, the two most important

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[1] Clark, Adult . . ., pp. 103-105.

[2] Likert, pp. 138-181.

[3] The first paragraph of this section draws heavily on Charles P. Loomis, Social Systems (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1960), pp. 3-6.

aspects of a 'system' are the 'interdependence' of a number of 'parts' and the tendency of them to maintain an 'equilibrium' in their relationships."[1]

A community junior college is both a social system and a part of a larger social system, e.g., the community. As a social system it must simultaneously attempt to maintain equilibrium[2] and interact with other social systems while its parts are interacting. The parts of a community junior college can be viewed as sub-systems. Instructors are the components of technical sub-systems, usually designated departments or divisions, and they perform the technical functions of the system. Administrators are the components of managerial sub-systems. They mediate between the system and other systems, and they manage or maintain the organization.[3] The administrative subsystem is anxious to maintain the system and therefore is "market oriented." This "market" orientation is concerned with furnishing a product in demand and the procurement of needed resources.

Another need of a social system is legitimation. Legitimation is the higher level support given by a wider social

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[1]Alvin W. Gouldner, "Reciprocity and Autonomy in Functional Theory," Symposium on Sociological Theory, ed. Llewellyn Gross (Evanston, Ill,: Row, Peterson and Co., 1959), p. 242.

[2]Equilibrium does not mean a return to a fixed level, but a shift to a new level or position to achieve a balance among various internal and external forces. See: Robert Chin, "The Utility of System Models and Developmental Models for Practitioners," The Planning of Change, ed. Warren Bennis, Kenneth Benne and Robert Chin (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp. 204-205.

[3]Talcott Parsons, Administrative Theory . . ., p. 43.

system.[1] Community junior colleges derive their support from law and the legal board of control. A college's board of trustees is the sub-system that controls the administrative sub-system and the board is one source of legitimation. The technical sub-systems furnish the output, e.g., instruction and counseling, the administrative sub-system obtains the inputs, e.g., instructors and equipment, and the institutional sub-system maintains the legitimacy of the college in the larger social system, the community.

Community support, and occasionally board of trustee support, can be jeopardized if the goal expectancies of the community are not satisfied. Etzioni attributes this recurrent problem to unreal expectancies derived from goal models.[2] Unlike system models, goal models ignore the necessary expenditure of resources for the maintenance of the organization. People that claim only instructors are needed in colleges and that administrators are dead weight, ignore other organizational requirements. Not all resources can be devoted to technical functions, if the organization is to continue. The allocation of resources to various sub-systems will always be a source of controversy among administrators, instructors and laymen.

A study of the effectiveness of a community junior college must "include an analysis of the environmental conditions

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[1] Ibid., p. 44.

[2] Amitai Etzioni, "Two Approaches to Organizational Analysis: A Critique and A Suggestion," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (September, 1960), 259-60.

and of the organization's orientation to them."[1] "No organization is ever wholly independent."[2] A community college will have what Gouldner calls "reciprocal exchanges."[3] Social systems exchange resources directly with each other, and indirectly through exchange arrangements involving other social systems.[4] A community junior college is important to industrial concerns as a consumer of goods and a producer of educated people needed by the industries. Governmental tax collecting systems are involved in the exchange because they collect money from industries and distribute money to community junior colleges. Organizations that are branches of a parent organization interact less with local organizations because they are less dependent on the community for resources.[5]

Some social systems have more autonomy or independence than other systems. (The same can be said for parts of social systems.)[6] "One of the many ways of controlling dependency is to create and maintain a favorable image of the organization in the salient publics."[7] The best method of developing a favorable image is to have a product that can stand public scrutiny.

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[1] Ibid., p. 262.

[2] Parsons, p. 44.

[3] Gouldner, "Reciprocity . . ., p. 249.

[4] Sol Levine and Paul White, "Exchange as a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Interorganizational Relationships," Administrative Science Quarterly, V (March, 1961), 583-601.

[5] Ibid., p. 590.

[6] Gouldner, "Reciprocity . . ., pp. 258-59.

[7] Perrow, p. 335.

Product prestige can also be improved by obtaining validation from other respected organizations, such as accreditation associations. One product of community junior colleges, liberal arts programs, has prestige and helps create a favorable image, but what about the other functions? Technical programs need more prestige so that they will be valued by the community instead of disdained as less rigorous education. Until technical programs have sufficient prestige to be supported by the total community, community junior colleges can obtain support by establishing mutual commitments with other social systems interested in technical programs. The disadvantage of this method of obtaining support is reduced autonomy. Commitments tend to accumulate and develop irrevocable patterns and ties to other systems.[1]

According to Clark the community junior college is considerably dominated by its environment.[2] Prior perspectives indicate the college is necessarily involved with many other organizations. The two broad "strategies for dealing with the organizational environment . . . are competitive and cooperative."[3] On the basis of Preiss' theory and assuming the community junior college is externally authority-oriented, competition would be an undesirable strategy. This leaves the cooperative strategy which has three sub-types - bargaining,

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[1]Clark, The Open Door, . . ., p. 191.

[2]Ibid., p. 175.

[3]James D. Thompson and William McEwen, "Organizational Goals and Environment: Goal-Setting as an Interaction Process," American Sociological Review, XXIII (February, 1958), 25.

co-optation and coalition.[1] Bargaining involves direct interaction with other organizations in an attempt to reach an arrangement mutually satisfactory. Co-optation is the process of averting threats to the organization by absorbing new elements into the administrative or institutional sub-systems. Coalition is the temporary combination of two organizations in order to achieve a mutual objective. All three co-operative methods will probably be used by the effective community junior college.

Summary

After examining the community college from seven perspectives, the most important element appears to be power, or the lack of it in this case. The community junior college has little control over its environment. Its comprehensive nature creates a blurred image, makes boundary maintenance difficult, and fosters internal strife and resentment. The "open door" denies control over its clientele and further detracts from its prestige. Its authority orientation virtually precludes a "good fight," that might unify its supporters and members, and forces the college to abandon projects or co-operate and sacrifice some autonomy. As a development organization it cannot afford to abandon many projects and drift with the social tide, it is expected to see problems, mobilize resources, and create changes designed to eliminate the problems. The college's

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[1] Ibid. The following definitions are taken from the same article.

bureaucratic needs for professionals, both instructional and administrative, and a hierarchy diminish loyalty to the organization and lengthen the time needed for adjustment to a new situation.

The social needs of individuals were discussed when analyzing the community junior college as a social organization. The resultant informal groups can support the organization, but the consequence is still another loss of organizational control. Instructors and administrators owe allegiance in varying degrees to numerous professional and informal organizations, besides the college. The last perspective exposes many other organizations that have direct control over the college and indirect control via personnel and other organizations. The community junior college is a social system which has at least three sub-systems, technical, administrative and institutional, and is itself a sub-system, a part, of a larger system. The college is one system in a vast web of interdependent systems; it is truly dependent and devoid of considerable power. And yet the community junior college does have a valued product - education. The community junior college may feel powerless, but the tide of technological changes and demands, the desire of individuals for more higher education, and the old democratic value of equal opportunities may be enough to give it influence and a honored place among institutions.

This analysis of the community junior college also supports a generalization concerning organizational effectiveness. The effectiveness of an organization appears to be directly

related to the integration of an organization. Informal groups based on latent culture, hierarchical differentiations, functional sub-systems, and the use of external groups for self-evaluation thwart integration. Two other aspects of the community junior college operate against integration. The "open door" amplifies the heterogeneity of student interests and objectives. The comprehensive offerings cause a proliferation of functional sub-systems. If the generalization is valid, those who support community junior colleges should be alert for critics both within and without.

CHAPTER IV

PLANNED CHANGE: A METHODOLOGY FOR CREATING TECHNICAL PROGRAMS

Automatic Adjustment

Planned change is a recent approach to the maintenance of equilibrium in a system, especially in the system known as American society. For many years the values and beliefs of American society clashed with any proposals implying that the behavior of people could be predicted and controlled, and suggesting that it was desirable to exercise some authority over individuals. Early Americans, such as Thomas Jefferson, when advocating democracy, often employed postulates of social atomism,[1] those being: 1) the individual is a solitary rather than social being, 2) governments are based on a social contract for the sole purpose of protecting individual rights, 3) voluntary arrangements handle social arrangements outside the narrow scope of government, 4) individuals are free to think, and 5) human affairs are governed by natural laws. "The acceptance of social atomism entails the substitution of automatic adjustment for any form of deliberate social control."[2]

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[1] Much of the material in this paragraph is derived from William O. Stanley, "The Collapse of Automatic Adjustment," The Planning . . ., pp. 28-34.

[2] Ibid., p. 29.

Automatic adjustment is the natural process that maintains equilibrium in societies and areas of societies. According to the concept of automatic adjustment, this process is inexorable and beyond the control of man. Automatic adjustment is the central tenet in classical economics. The laissez faire philosophy of Adam Smith was "true" and "good" in the minds of many Americans. The ideas of classical economists were not only applied to economics; they were used as arguments to support natural laws in all spheres of society. Not everyone believed in automatic adjustment and even those who subscribed to the laissez faire theory were not above requesting governmental intervention when such intervention was to their advantage. Since the time of the "muckrakers," automatic adjustment adherents have been gradually replaced by social planners. This does not suggest supporters of automatic adjustment have disappeared. On the contrary, they are still a voluble group that is made more influential by the fact many of them have considerable financial resources.

Before the reader becomes convinced that the author of this study believes social planning is inherently "good," it is wise to discuss briefly the dangers of planning. Social planning and automatic adjustment are processes, and they have no intrinsic value. Automatic adjustment assumes natural laws or an "invisible hand." Social planning assumes men have considerable control over events and each other. Social planning can move in the direction of giving authority to one person in a social system, or it can move in the direction of dividing

authority equally among all persons in a social system. Social planning can be conducted in either a democratic or an authoritarian manner. Social planning is advocated by the author because he believes the assumptions underlying automatic adjustment are invalid. Man is a product of his social milieu and therefore capable of being shaped and directed.

Planned Change

In this study, planned change is "a deliberate collaborative process."[1] The change-agent and client-system plan together. There is a mutual determination of goals, a spirit of inquiry, a voluntary relationship, and equal or almost equal opportunities to influence each other.[2] Change in the client-system is dependent on trust and willingness to co-operate. Change is often perceived by some individuals and sub-systems as a threat. Fearful of change, these groups and individuals will attempt to influence others, often by capitalizing on the ignorance of people. The collaborative process attempts to reduce ignorance and gain support by involving members of the client-system in all stages of planned change. The collaborative process cannot involve everyone in a large social system, and it will not eliminate all resistance to change. The complete elimination of opposition is not necessarily a desirable objective because criticism also plays a part in planning the most effective means and in identifying possible consequences. The collaborative process may seem slow and inefficient at times,

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[1] Warren Bennis, ibid., p. 12.

[2] Ibid.

but it is in harmony with democratic values and it is a developer of trust, factors that help produce effectiveness. "Real" life provides few purely collaborative relationships, but this does not preclude working toward such an arrangement.[1]

One of the earliest attempts to develop a generalized view of planned change was the book of Lippitt, Watson and Westley.[2] They identify three roles a change-agent may perform. 1) He may "serve as a neutral but friendly intermediary between the various subparts"[3] of a client-system and eventually establish direct communication among subparts. 2) He may furnish information that lists options available to the client-system.[4] 3) "The agent may concentrate on changing the distribution of power within the client-system, on altering its characteristic ways of mobilizing energy, or on correcting its patterns of communication."[5] Change-agents are usually concerned with two or three of these roles simultaneously.

At the beginning of the change process the change forces are likely to be rather general in character."[6] Perhaps people within the client-system are vaguely dissatisfied and feel something should be done. Perhaps they have identified the

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[1] Ibid., p. 13.

[2] Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958).

[3] Ibid., p. 47.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid., p. 48

[6] Ibid., p. 73.

problem and are searching for a solution. Perhaps a neighboring system has made recent changes and some members of the client-system want to know how they can create the same changes. "As the change enterprise proceeds, there is a gradual shift in the constellation of change forces."[1] New forces for change are: 1) the need to complete a job once it has been undertaken, and 2) the creation of mutual expectations involving people within the client-system and change-agent.[2] Social interaction creates expectancies, and the desire of people to have satisfying social relationships prods them into meeting the expectancies of others and, consequently, earning the respect and friendship of others.

A client-system is often not unanimously in favor of change. A change may satisfy the needs of some parts of the system, and concomitantly ignore the needs of other parts. Since a client-system does not have unlimited resources, it is impossible to meet all of the needs of the different parts simultaneously. For this reason it is exceedingly dangerous for a change-agent to become identified with only one or a small group of parts. Other parts will be suspicious and inclined to work against the change process. Change-agents often use multiple entries in large organizations to avoid having the change proposal associated exclusively with one part of a client-system.[3]

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[1] Ibid., p. 74.

[2] Ibid., pp. 75-76.

[3] Ibid., p. 82.

Multiple entry is a procedure that is designed to avoid being identified with a minority force. Besides being concerned with numerical or quantitative strength, change-agents must look for promising leverage points, the qualitative considerations of influence. Is a certain part accessible and can the change-agent influence the individuals who form that part of the client-system? If the change-agent can influence those individuals, do they have any influence on other parts of the client-system? The purpose of a change process will determine to a large extent the amount of influence a particular part may have. For example, medical groups would be expected to have more influence in fluoridation campaigns than in school bond campaigns. Sometimes a part of a system may be strongly motivated to create change, but its lack of influence on the other parts will prevent the desired change.

Lippitt and his collaborators identify seven phases of planned change. The phases should be familiar because they are essentially the steps in the scientific method plus a few added steps to handle the relationship between a client-system and a change-agent external to the client-system.

Phase 1: The client system discovers the need for help, sometimes with stimulation by the change agent.
Phase 2: The helping relationship is established and defined.
Phase 3: The change problem is identified and clarified.
Phase 4: Alternative possibilities for change are examined; change goals or intentions are established.
Phase 5: Change efforts in the "reality situation" are attempted.
Phase 6: Change is generalized and stabilized.

Phase 7: The helping relationship ends or a different type of continuing relationship is defined.[1]

Lippitt's book is one source of information for those interested in planned change. It does, however, lack a certain elegance in its seven phase presentation of planned change, and, of even more concern to this study, it pays little attention to the change-agent that is a part of the client-system. Client-systems often "contain the potential resources for creating their own planned change programs under certain conditions."[2] Some writers "contend that a client-system must build into its own structures a vigorous change-agent function, in order for it to adapt to a continually changing environment."[3]

Another analysis of the change process is found in a book by Sower, Holland, Tiedke and Freeman.[4] Sower points out that an action process is continuous, but this does not prevent "freezing" the process and attempting to identify elements that will aid in analyzing the process. By approaching the process of planned change in this manner, Sower identifies five analytical components. They are: 1) convergence of interest, 2) establishment of an initiating set, 3) legitimation and

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[1] Ibid., pp. 122-23.

[2] Bennis, p. 16.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Christopher Sower, et al., Community Involvement (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957).

sponsorship, 4) establishment of an execution set and mobilization of resources, and 5) fulfillment of charter.[1]

A convergence of interest of actors[2] who have appropriate sentiments, beliefs and goals, with reference to a particular problem, is necessary for action to occur. The motives of the actors may vary considerably, but this does not detract from their mutual interest. The phenomenon of actors, who are normally hostile to each other, co-operating on a particular issue is not uncommon. Change-agents may capitalize on many different motives in obtaining a convergence of interest. What is necessary for the action process is the achievement of a convergence of interest. Without this, the process of change will never start.

A convergence of interest leads into, and is the cause of, the establishment of an initiating set. "The establishment of . . . an initiating set leads to the development of a common frame of reference from which concrete action flows."[3] This requires that the actors who form the initiating set have relationships which will provide a basis for working together, reaching some common agreement, and performing certain tasks. This further requires "that common group ends or goals be established."[4] The common goals are the charter of the initiating set. The fulfillment of the charter is dependent on two

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[1] Ibid., p. 308.

[2] Actors are defined as either individuals or organizations.

[3] Ibid., p. 309.

[4] Ibid.

conditions. Members of the initiating set must believe fulfillment is objectively possible and the members must develop justifications for attempting to fulfill the charter. Justification provides external security and it may occur before or after agreement on goals.[1]

The third component is legitimation and sponsorship. Legitimation is public approval, or the approval of the individual or social system that has the authority to act on behalf of its public or constituency in certain situations. In some cases the initiating set may be self-legitimized, but this is usually not the case with voluntary, problem-oriented, and locally controlled action. In these cases authority to act is diffused throughout the community. The initiation set must obtain access to sources of sponsorship and legitimation. Access may be obtained directly through actors within the initiating set and indirectly through intervening actors. Within the community there are sources of support and opposition. The sources will vary from complete willingness to co-operate to total opposition. The initiating set ideally wants to obtain sufficient sponsorship to succeed with the minimum cost to the initiating set. In obtaining legitimation, members of the initiating set may make commitments on behalf of the initiating set, and they may obligate themselves to others. Legitimation from some groups may be obtained, but at the cost of altering the charter. A wide appeal for sponsorship may alert opposing groups, while a more restrained and directed appeal might gain

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[1] Ibid., p. 310.

support without arousing many opponents. From this brief discussion, the intricacies and difficulties of obtaining legitimation become apparent.

A fourth point of analysis is the establishment of an execution set and mobilization of resources. "The establishment of an execution set is analogous to the establishment of an initiating set. While the action process is developing, it is difficult to make valid empirical distinctions between the elements of that process."[1] In retrospect, the different relationships between actors become apparent. Initiation and execution sets involve different relationships, regardless of the membership overlap.

The execution set has several channels available for gaining assistance and resources. 1) Organizational sponsorship can obtain co-operation from members of an organization who may not care about the change goal but who will work on behalf of their organization. 2) Influentials who support the action group can use personal ties to persuade people to assist. 3) Friendship cliques can be the cause of some actors helping the action group. 4) Propinquity or neighborhood can be a source of support as actors call on those physically close to them for assistance. 5) Kinship is another basis for involvement in an action group. 6) There are other reasons for support, e.g., the desire for social interaction, and all are potential methods of obtaining aid.

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[1] Ibid., p. 311.

The final component, and the most obvious, is fulfillment of charter. This is the ultimate objective of the personal efforts and the mobilization of resources. How well and how completely the charter is fulfilled is a matter of individual expectations and perceptions. The model cannot furnish the answer, it can only roughly indicate the objective was or was not achieved. As in a game, according to the model you either win or lose. It does not say by how much you win or lose, nor does it indicate how well the available resources were utilized. It is a tactical view, a one-shot approach. This may be adequate for the ad hoc action group, but it ignores the lingering effects of the change process, effects that are strategically important for a permanent change organization that is a part of a client-system.

Robert Chin suggests analyzing the change process by using an intersystem model.[1] An intersystem model is an extension of system analysis and involves two or more systems connected to each other. The concept of a system with its subsystems stresses interdependence, whereas the intersystem model places more stress on a system's autonomy. The advantages to using the intersystem model are: 1) a change-agent system within a client-system is more clearly viewed as a system with connections to groups, such as professional organizations, outside of the client-system, 2) intersystem analysis shows the establishing, shifting, and severing of connections between systems, and 3) viewing the change-agent as a separate system

reveals its sub-systems and their interactions, interactions that are so important in determining goals and effectiveness. For these three reasons the intersystem model will be used for analysis. The author of this paper believes the intersystem model will clarify his presentation without detracting from the usefulness of models and theories associated with systemic analysis.

College and Community: Change-Agent and Client-System

A community junior college is a rationally organized, purposive social system. It is a change-agent and its major target or client-system is its community. The boundaries of its community are determined by the college's legal charter. The boundaries may encompass several counties or one city. The boundaries that specify the source of local control and local support do not specify where the interests and concern of a community junior college end. In various degrees, the client-systems of community junior colleges transcend the legal boundaries. Students from outside the college district are enrolled and ex-students find positions outside the boundaries. Since the community is also a part of larger systems, states and nation, these systems feel the effects of community changes, and the interests of larger systems also require consideration. A community junior college can benefit from its cognizance of, and willingness to co-operate with, social systems outside of its community, but there is also a danger. Communities are composed of people and, as in the case of an individual, they

can feel slighted and unappreciated. When a community views its college, the one it supports and whose board members it elects, as being overly concerned with external systems, it can make life uncomfortable for the college until the college more nearly satisfies the expectancies of the community.

A community usually has a low degree of organizational unity; it is composed of numerous, special-interest groups and specialized organizations. As a client-system it presents two special difficulties. It is slow in recognizing problems and accepting assistance. Secondly, the numerous groups and organizations have narrow social bases which force a change-agent into either forming a new, broader-based group from which to obtain support, or working closely with a few existent groups and risk the alienation of a large section of the community.[1]

A community junior college works with many individuals and groups in attempting to create various changes. The most obvious change process is the education of students. This is the primary function of a community junior college, and the one most readily accepted by the community. In this study education will include teaching and guidance functions. Both functions attempt to transmit knowledge, increase understanding and engender thinking. Both functions are almost entirely performed by instructors and counselors, members of the technical sub-systems.

Instructors and counselors are professionals who may belong to nationally organized, professional associations which

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[1]Lippitt, p. 182.

furnish support, norms and sources of prestige. Professional associations are used to legitimate the selection of certain methods and objectives. The arrangement is satisfactory so long as the assumptions and objectives of a nationally-oriented, professional organization are applicable in a particular situation. When the assumptions are invalid or the objectives conflict with the objectives of a particular community junior college, professional associations may be the cause of controversy and disloyalty. This discussion does not imply that controversy and professional associations are undesirable, but it does suggest that national assumptions and objectives are not universally correct and desirable.

Another change process is the development of programs. This process is especially interesting and challenging when the objective is not a traditional program, but a program to meet a new need, a need usually caused directly or indirectly by technological changes. The need may first be articulated by any individual or group, but the development of the program will involve someone representing the administrative sub-system. The administrative sub-system is responsible for obtaining inputs, resources required by the community junior college, and it is the administrative sub-system that attempts to determine the outputs needed by the community. Simply stated, the administrative sub-system is supposed to maintain the organization. The development of programs does not necessarily involve interested laymen or professionals. The administrative sub-system requests the assistance of lay professional people because the administrative sub-system sees the involvement of such people

as an aid in obtaining needed resources and improving the marketability of the product. Lay people and groups could conceivably furnish space, tools, money and community influence. Professional people and groups could assist by being more willing to co-operate and by affording some legitimation to the program. Both groups could help define the need, identify the characteristics of graduates who would fill the need, and evaluate the actual graduates in terms of how well they meet the real demands of the position.

There are many other possible change objectives of a community junior college. Perhaps there is the desire to elevate the social status of people and reduce the membership in the lower classes. There is the possible objective of improving understanding among the different elements so that the community will become more integrated. There may be the objective of informing people so that they know their rights, choices and responsibilities. The change processes involved in these examples all follow the same, rough guide lines, but the broader, deeper objectives take more perseverance, involve more resources, and demand more co-operation from more people. The integration of Negroes into an American city is a classical and current example of the broad, deep change objective. The creation of technical programs utilizes the same change process, but the operation is on a much smaller scale.

A Methodology of Planned Change

At the beginning of this section it is desirable to remind the reader of certain definitions and assumptions. The institution is comprehensive and it affords at least one opportunity to all high school graduates and those with an equivalent education. Technicial programs place more emphasis on cognitive knowledge and less on manipulative skills. It is assumed that most board members of the institution support technical programs and have a fairly clear idea of what a technical program entails. It is further assumed that the board has obtained administrators, who have in turn selected other faculty members, most of whom feel the community junior college has a legitimate and valuable role to play in providing technical education. The vagaries of language, the multiplicity of "frames of reference," and the consequent confusion make it safe to assume that the expectancies of different board, administrative and faculty members, concerning what constitutes technical programs and what programs are within the province of the institution, will differ on specific occasions. In the planning stage such differences can be useful because they can provoke thoughtful analysis and consideration of many options. In the execution stage differences can reduce the willingness of staff members to co-operate and therefore diminish the effectiveness of the program. Finally, it is assumed that the complexity of the work to be performed prevents regimentation and close supervision, control processes for obtaining co-operation, and requires

more faculty participation in decision making, an ego-involvement process for obtaining co-operation.

In this section seven analytical components or elements will be identified and described as the procedures which compose the methodology for creating technical programs. Most of the elements are variations of those listed in Sower's book. The added elements take into account the position of the change-agent within the client-system and the strategic concerns of such a change-agent as compared with an ad hoc group. Each element will be described within the more specific context of community junior colleges. The seven elements are:

1. Assignment of responsibility for gathering and evaluating possible technical programs.
2. Formation of linkages with external systems.
3. Establishment of an initiating set for a suggested technical program or an area of closely related technical programs.
4. Legitimation and sponsorship for a technical program.
5. Establishment of an execution set and mobilization of resources for a technical program.
6. Inclusion of the technical program in the curriculum.
7. Evaluation of the technical program.

Assignment of responsibility for gathering and evaluating possible technical programs. - A community junior college that intends to offer needed technical programs cannot rely on chance to identify the areas of need. A well organized college requires an individual or committee that deliberately gathers and

evaluates information relative to technical programs. The discovery of needed technical programs is one of the functions of the college, and this function, like other functions, is assigned to a certain position or committee in the organization. In small colleges, the function can be performed by one man. He may be assisted by others in that they pass on information to him. He may ask for advice in evaluating possible programs, but the decision is still the responsibility of one man. As a college grows larger, more potential resources are evident, and more information gathering is necessary. Performance of this function will then require more people. Because of bureaucratic and economic concerns with control, one man will normally head the committee and be held directly responsible, regardless of how many people are members of the committee.

The function of discovering needed technical programs is the responsibility of the administrative sub-system. This subsystem is expected to maintain the organization by obtaining needed resources and producing a salable product. Both of these considerations are crucial to evaluating possible technical programs. A salable product is a needed technical program, but there is no product unless requisite resources are available. Members of the technical sub-systems, instructors and counselors, can assist by gathering information, making suggestions, and offering advice. It is to the advantage of the college if all sub-systems are represented and consulted. Although committees are often criticized and sometimes adjudged as powerless, it is one attempt to involve the various sub-systems and

integrate the organization. Such a committee would be advisory and the responsibility for decision-making would be given to an administrator.

One administrative position well suited to handling the function of discovering needed technical programs is the position in the instructional-administrative sub-system directly responsible to the administrator who reports to the board. In a unified K - 14 district it would be the director or dean of instruction who reports to the superintendent of schools. In an independent district it would be the vice-president or dean of instruction who reports to the president. The president or superintendent is often a member of the institutional sub-system. He is primarily concerned with legitimating the total organization and less concerned with the need for specific technical programs. Determining the need for programs is also of more concern to administrators responsible for instruction than to administrators responsible for business or student affairs. This function is important, and it requires constant vigilance to anticipate and prepare for new demands for technicians. A person with the ability to view the total community junior college system and its relationship to other systems, plus a position with considerable authority, this is a desirable combination for a position incumbent responsible for discovering needed technical programs.

Formation of linkages with external systems. - Linking with external systems occurs early and continuously. Few technical programs, much less successful technical programs, will be

created without access to other social systems. There are many sources of ideas and suggestions for programs. Members of the technical and administrative sub-systems are often members of professional organizations that are sources of assistance. There are disciplinary associations that cut vertically through educational institutions, there are educational associations that divide educational institutions horizontally, and there are subdivisions of professional organizations bounded by both dimensions. Professional organizations often have local, state and national meetings, and publications which offer opportunities to exchange information and ideas. If a technical program is needed and successful in one location, perhaps other areas have similar needs. One way of exchanging experiences is through professional groups, and this is one reason for urging staff participation in such associations.

Professional groups offer an opportunity to tap geographically widespread sources, but this does not necessarily reflect the local situation. A locally controlled and supported college is hardly in a position to ignore the local setting, even if it so desired, and the character of the institution dictates local concern. How can local resources be developed if a college is not locally oriented? Even when a national goal is the objective of a community junior college, the college must still ascertain the local situation before it can successfully move toward the goal. By assuming conditions in a community are similar to conditions in other communities, staff members of the college may be making a serious mistake. A well

received and supported technical program in one community may not be needed in another community, and the local groups and citizens will reject it.

Connections or links with local systems can be established to discover needed technical programs and to exchange information concerning possible programs. Staff members, especially the administrator responsible for discovering needed programs and members of the advisory committee, can perform the linkage function by joining different associations and obtaining permission to attend meetings of groups and organizations that may have an interest in technical programs. To insure that all relevant organizations have representation in the discussion of possibly needed technical programs, the responsible college administrator can establish a special advisory lay group. This lay group could be large, perhaps fifty members, and it would not meet often, perhaps three times a year. The meetings would be concerned with the large picture of technical man power needs and the identification of local areas of need. Members of the committee would represent large employers, ethnic groups, political groups, educational institutions, public employment agencies, labor unions, professional associations, and other large elements of the community. The objective would be to utilize all sources of community interest in technical programs, and to activate new sources by presenting experiences in other areas of the nation and by discussing the local situation.

Establishment of an initiating set for a suggested technical program or an area of closely related technical programs. -

After an area of need has been identified, an initiating set is the next step in creating a technical program. The initiating set or committee will be a lay group and one or two staff members. The responsibile administrator or his substitute will be one of the staff members. The lay members should number about six to improve the likelihood of all members becoming actively involved. Desirable lay members would be interested in the area of need and would usually represent organizations or groups concerned with the area of need. The various methods discussed by Sower for persuading citizens to co-operate would be used, e.g., board members could call on friends; organizations and associations could be asked to send representatives. The lay members could be approved by the board of trustees as members of an advisory committee.

There are several advantages to giving formal approval and public notice of membership on an advisory committee. The members of an advisory committee obtain some recognition for their efforts and they may view their role as being more important than they would otherwise. Public notice identifies the members, and to some extent the organizations for whom they work or with whom they are associated, with the college, and public notice indicates the college's concern with the community. The advantages that accrue to the college also attach more value and prestige to technical programs. By formally naming members of lay advisory committees, the board can establish the length of membership and avert a situation where lay people feel they control certain programs and have the final word.

The initiating set examines the suggested program or area of need in some detail. This committee identifies the objectives of such a program and discusses possible courses. For example, how much mathematics should an electronic technician have or how much laboratory experience should a dental technician have. This committee could gather information about the number of technicians needed in their field, working conditions and salaries graduates could expect, characteristics of current successful technicians, and the preparation people in the field think a student should have before entering the program. Members of advisory committees should be selected with an eye toward the next step, obtaining legitimation and sponsorship. Desirable members of advisory committees will have access to organizations, besides their own, for purposes of obtaining information and support. When considering possible members, college administrators should attempt to discover a person's status within his profession and his organization, and also the status of the profession and organization. This is one approach to predicting how much access a person will have to other organizations in his field. From a college's standpoint, the best members of advisory committees are members who are willing to work and who have access to sources of information and support relevant to the technical programs being considered.

Legitimation and sponsorship for a technical program. - In general, a community junior college is always concerned with legitimation and sponsorship for technical programs. A specific program may require special machines or laboratories that a

local firm can provide, but the receipt of special facilities does not eliminate the general concerns. A tax supported institution is legitimized by the larger society, not by a small segment of the society. All of the local industries employing vacuum technicians may publicly support the offering of such a program at the local community junior college, but if most of the people feel industries should train their own technicians, there is little likelihood of a vacuum technology program being offered.

One obvious source of legitimation is the board of trustees. Board members are elected by the citizens and reflect the feelings of their constituents, and board members influence the feelings of their constituents. To what degree should board members be involved in college affairs? Administrators differ widely when answering that question. One line of reasoning goes: administrators and instructors are professional educators; professionals are best prepared to operate a college; board members represent the community; board members are best prepared to identify community objectives. Simply stated, board members determine general policy and professionals operate the college. The less the board members are involved in operating the college, the less they will interfere with professionals. This may give professionals more discretion and reduce the amount of time necessary for explanations to board members, but it detracts from the effectiveness of board members as legitimizers of a college. Board members cannot be confident and well-informed spokesmen if professionals

discourage their involvement and furnish them with a minimal amoung of information. Having the board approve advisory committees of lay citizens and informing the board of technical programs under consideration are two ways of obtaining more support from board members. The board is one source of legitimation that is readily available, and it seems a wasted opportunity if board members are not given more than the bare essentials of information.

Staff members of secondary schools, especially counselors and student advisors, are another source of legitimation. Beginning in the ninth grade, students are assigned to classes and homerooms where attention is focused on vocational opportunities and prerequisite education. If secondary school personnel are not familiar with technical programs and the positions assumed by graduates of technical programs, or if they attach little value to technical programs, many students will avoid technical programs in favor of transfer programs. Some of the students will experience failure in transfer programs and grudgingly enroll in technical programs. There are several undesirable consequences of this arrangement. The failures, frustrations, and bitterness could be avoided in many cases by advising certain students to enroll in technical programs. Technical programs, regardless of their rigor, will be seen as dumping grounds for failures of transfer programs and, therefore, as programs with less prestige. Failures in transfer programs and the forced lowering of expectancies may reduce the satisfactions derived from completing technical programs and

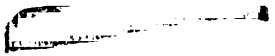
assuming technical positions. This may detract from technical graduates' occupational effectiveness, which can lead to their employers concluding the technical programs are inadequate. This lowers the value of technical graduates and the status of technical programs.

The importance of prestige and the status of technical programs cannot be over emphasized. How status is determined is a subject of controversy. It is a complex process that appears to be circular in arrangement. The previous paragraph discusses one possible series of causes and effects. 1) Counselors discourage students who might consider enrolling in technical programs. 2) Students, who might otherwise enroll in technical programs, follow the advice of counselors and enroll in transfer programs. 3) Many of those students fail in transfer programs and reluctantly enroll in technical programs. 4) Some graduates of technical programs still perceive themselves as occupational failures and have little respect for their occupations. 5) Such graduates become employees who do not test their self-esteem in terms of their work, they are not occupationally involved. 6) Such employees do low or average quality work and disappoint their employers. 7) Employers judge the community junior college, specifically technical programs, in terms of the graduates. 8) Graduates who are not occupationally involved lower the value of technical programs in the judgement of employers. 9) In various ways the judgements of employers become public knowledge. 10) Counselors, and the general public, attach a low status to technical programs, and

the circle has been completed. One way of interrupting the circle is to keep counselors informed as to the value and demands of technical programs. Periodic meetings and continuous written communications are two methods of exchanging information.

Entry into the cycle of status determination can be made at other points in other ways. One way is to establish admittance standards for each technical program. The "open door" would admit students into a general program but not specific technical programs. Test scores, high school records, grades in prerequisite courses, and recommendations from teachers are some of the various criteria used. Controlling who can be enrolled in technical programs indicates higher standards, and higher standards lead to higher status. Accreditation by professional associations is another way of improving technical program status. Publicity through mass media and public appearances of staff members, board members, and lay citizens who support technical programs is another way of improving status. The objective is to improve the prestige of technical programs because this is a major factor in legitimizing technical programs.

One of the best sources of legitimation and sponsorship is the organizations and individuals that employ, supervise and evaluate graduates of technical programs. Employers may not have a completely formed set of expectancies concerning what technicians should be able to do in a given period of time, but employers do have certain minimal sets of expectancies and



upward gradations of expectancies, or hopes, from those bases. Within this frame of reference graduates are evaluated, and the evaluations of graduates reflect on the value of technical programs and community junior colleges. Employers can help legitimate the development of technical programs by verifying the need for certain types of technicians and by expressing their belief that the offering of formal programs by the community junior college is the best way of meeting the need. Employers can use their satisfaction with graduates of other technical programs and the experiences of other employers to add further support. Employers can offer direct aid in the form of money, land, building space, equipment and personnel. By pointing to the need for technicians to staff local organizations and the importance of local organizations to the whole community, employers have a telling argument in an era of high unemployment and a growing number of entries into the labor market.

Graduates of technical programs are a source of legitimation that should not be overlooked. They are well situated to compare what they were taught in college with what is required on the job. Many students perceive a wide discrepancy between the two. Students may assume that the technical program is determined by the technical positions and therefore the college has failed to meet the requirements of the positions. There is certainly considerable validity to the assumption, but technical programs may also have the objectives of general education and the eventual advancement of technical graduates. Without a follow-up program, confusion and criticism will continue.

A follow-up program maintains communication which provides opportunities to clarify a college's viewpoint, to evaluate technical programs, and to psychologically involve graduates. The ego-involvement of graduates, giving them an opportunity to make judgements and offer suggestions, may win disciples for the college and furnish another source of legitimation for technical programs.

One of the favorite methods for obtaining legitimation is citing experiences and current offerings in other colleges. Often, when a proposal is made, people will ask what other people, communities and colleges have and are doing in that regard. There is a certain amount of security in the knowledge that other colleges are offering a given technical program and the program is considered successful. It is more than the desire for empirical evidence to support a technical program, it is also the desire for social support. In the minds of some people the only legitimate educational offerings in a college are traditional, liberal arts courses. These people may never support technical programs, but their influence can be nullified and their opposition neutralized by using other colleges as examples, as another method of gaining legitimation from other people in a community. There are other possible ways of getting legitimation or approval from the community. For example, members of the college faculty are members of the community. They belong to other groups, associate with individuals outside of the college staff, and generally influence other people. Since faculty members are a part of a college organization,

people outside the organization attach special significance to the statements of faculty members. Faculty members' attitudes toward technical programs are especially important. If many needed technical programs are established and become effective, most of the methods listed will be used.

Establishment of an execution set and mobilization of resources for a technical program. - Unlike Sower's example of community involvement, where many members of the initiation set were also members of the execution set, the two committees will differ greatly in terms of membership and focus. The execution set for a technical program will be predominantly professional members of the college staff. The same administrator will be involved, along with other staff representatives on the initiation committee, and lay members of the initiation set will be invited. The people who are members of both committees will maintain the continuity of the process and act as interpreters of objectives into operational course outlines and vice versa. Other members of the execution set will be representatives of technical sub-systems that will carry the burden of specialized education. An illustration would be mathematics instructors whenever explicit objectives of a technical program require a new course or series of courses. It would also be desirable to include a representative of the sub-system concerned with advising students and representatives of sub-systems that will instruct students in a technical program who are enrolled in heterogenous classes, e.g., English classes. This is another attempt to better integrate the organization and to clarify the

objectives of a technical program. As more sub-systems are linked together, involved in planning technical programs, and kept informed, the college will be more integrated, mutual obligations among faculty members and sub-systems will increase, and technical programs will receive more support from members of the college staff.

Execution sets will focus on course content, organization of course material, and methods of presentation. Initiation sets will develop objectives of technical programs and recommend certain courses for the achievement of the objectives. Seldom will a technical program be completely prescribed, students will have some choices to make. Initiation sets will suggest the number of courses to be taken in various areas, e.g., social science, physical science and a technical speciality, but members of the college staff will make the final decisions. Members of initiation sets should feel their efforts are important and their opinions are valued, but they should also realize that the responsibility for maintaining the college is placed on the staff and that only members of the staff have authority to make final decisions.

The same questions regarding control also arise in connection with execution sets. Do execution sets, comprised primarily of instructors, make the final decision or does the administrative sub-system have the final authority? This author contends the final decision is the responsibility of the administrative sub-system. The administrative sub-system is expected to view the total picture, which includes the

organization and its environment, to be sensitive to community demands and needs, to be cognizant of developments in other community junior colleges, and to obtain needed resources, including instructors for technical programs. The technical subsystems are more concerned with their respective disciplines, often on a national level, and are often hesitant to approve new programs because this may create another sub-system entitled to a share of the limited resources. Some relevant disciplines may not be represented in execution sets. These would be disciplines that currently have no members on the staff, but would have members on the staff if certain courses were included in a technical program. This situation is avoided when the administrative sub-system obtains professional people for certain technical programs after it has been decided to offer a technical program but before the execution set has been established. If the initiating set concludes that a nursing program is needed and the program appears to have sufficient support, the next step is obtaining a qualified professional nursing person to work on, and possibly serve as chairman of, the execution set. Regardless of who is chairman of an execution set, the final responsibility and authority for deciding the content of technical programs is assigned to the administrative sub-system.

It is one thing to assign control to the administrative level of the bureaucratic structure, but the exercising of control is another matter. The perspective of the community junior college as a bureaucratic organization clearly points to

the discrepancy between the ideal construct and an actual organization. Professionals perform complex operations and their knowledge of their discipline usually surpasses the administrators' knowledge of that discipline. How many administrators of community junior colleges know as much or more about professional nursing than professional nurses? There is also the fact that what happens in classrooms may be different from what is supposed to happen. Suppose a specific course is organized to suit an administrator, and the instructors disagree with the administrator's approach. The instructors may disregard the course sylabus and handle the class in accordance with their judgements, or the instructors may do a lackluster job of teaching, perhaps with the intent of embarrassing the administrator.

Administrators are considerably dependent on instructors. No amount of authority will give administrators complete control over what instructors do in the classroom. Successful administrators are those who can obtain co-operation from instructors. Instructor's willingness to co-operate is determined by many factors besides salaries, fringe benefits, and fear of sanctions. Involvement in execution sets furnishes many opportunities for instructors to have satisfying experiences, but these opportunities become meaningless if the instructors perceive their contributions as being unimportant. If execution sets are nothing more than rubber stamps for the preconceived notions of administrators, or if administrators appear to arbitrarily overrule the recommendations of execution sets,

the willingness of instructors to co-operate will be diminished. Although the administrative sub-system has the final decision, it would be imprudent to exercise the option very often to negate the recommendations of execution sets.

Inclusion of a technical program in the curriculum. - The creation of a technical program is symbolically represented and described in college catalogs and brochures. In terms of the objective of the change process, the program is implemented when students enroll in the program and graduates begin to assume technical positions. Sometimes there is considerable difference between the written presentations and the actual learning situations. This variation often occurs between course descriptions in catalogs and the actual courses. Nevertheless, catalogs do offer some accurate descriptions, identify prerequisites, furnish information, and function as salesmen for technical programs. Catalogs are one method of advertizing a college and its offerings. When a technical program is presented in a college's catalog, the program has been created.

Evaluation of the technical program. - The creation of a program can be defined as a process that ends with the inclusion of the program in the curriculum or as a continuous process so long as the program exists. Using the first definition, the evaluation of a technical program can be viewed as the first step in creating a revised technical program. Using the second definition, the evaluation of a technical program can be viewed as a last step in a process that will try to maintain the program's effectiveness as long as the program exists for

approximately the same objectives. If the objectives disappear, become more specialized or more generalized, the technical program will disappear, be divided into several programs or unified with other technical programs. Either definition provides for an ending of the process[1] and uses evaluation as one part of the process. Evaluation has already been discussed in connection with legitimation. Follow-up studies that involve graduates and employers are certainly realistic attempts to measure the effectiveness of a program. Information concerning jobs held by graduates, salaries, and advancement provides another source of evaluation. The amount of prestige attached to technical programs indicates that evaluation occurs. It may not be an unbiased approach but people will make judgements about the value of a program.

After a technical program has been created and evaluated, it still needs an initiation set to examine the data obtained from evaluating a technical program and to make recommendations for improving a program. The need for legitimation and sponsorship does not cease after a program is created, and evidence obtained from objectively evaluating a program is one of the best ways of informing the public and gaining support. Making known the fact a college does objectively evaluate its technical programs will help gain some support. An execution set can also learn much from the evaluation of technical programs, and

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[1]It is debatable if any process really ends because the end of a process becomes a means for another process. For purposes of analysis, it is desirable to identify beginning and ending elements in a process.

evaluation offers an objective basis for making alterations in course sylabuses and for changing course offerings available to students in a program. When the change-agent is a part of the client-system and when the change-agent is interested in making numerous changes, evaluation is a necessary part of the action process. People in the community are going to give or withhold support, partially on the basis of how effective a community junior college has been in the past. Evaluation of technical programs not only furnishes evidence, it provides another incentive for members of sub-systems that offer technical programs, it involves graduates and employers, and evaluation of technical programs indicates the desire of a college to provide effective programs.

Properties of the Planned Change Process

Properties are characteristic qualities, attributes common to all members of a class. Based on the studies, the concepts, the theories, and the definitions discussed in Chapters III and IV, the following properties appear to be common to all planned change processes to create technical programs in community junior colleges. Other properties may exist, and no claim of exhaustiveness is implied or intended.

Property I: A community junior college that desires to introduce technical programs will have a positive orientation toward other social systems in the community. Technical programs are not traditional educational offerings and lack community legitimation. To gain support and defenders of

technical programs, a community college can link with other organizations who also appreciate technical programs. A positive orientation could be indicated by the establishment of numerous links with other social systems. It is also possible that other social systems could take the initiative by establishing links with a community college and persuading it to introduce technical programs.

Property II: A community junior college will find local organizations more willing and able to co-operate than organizations that are sub-systems of non-local organizations. Local organizations are more dependent on the community for resources and legitimation than "branches" of organizations based in another community who look to the "home office" for support. Organizations are committed by individuals who have the authority to make such commitments. Managers of local plants often do not have such authority.

Property III: A community junior college will make decisions that may compromise or qualify the "open door" philosophy in an effort to gain more community and organizational support. American society places great value on public expenditures returning something of equal value. Furnishing education to students who cannot or will not learn is considered a waste of money and something to be avoided. Some qualifications and requirements that indicate the "earnestness" of students will satisfy some potential critics.

Property IV: Latent culture will be one basis for informal groups and a potential source of opposition to change. All sub-systems of a community junior college will have informal groups. The latent culture of individuals will furnish commonalities that will form a basis for meaningful and satisfying social interaction. If the members of an informal group fear a proposed change will interfere with a rewarding social situation, they will oppose the change and deliberately subvert it in some instances.

Property V: The sub-systems of a community junior college will be a major determinant of informal groups and a communications barrier that will make change more difficult. Sub-systems are arranged both vertically, e.g., institutional, administrative and technical, and horizontally, e.g., disciplinary departments on the technical level and staff functions on the administrative level. Individuals within the same sub-systems have similar interests and have the opportunity and need to interact. Interaction across sub-system boundaries is less often and more formal. Misunderstandings may arise among sub-systems, and a proposed change may be suspiciously eyed by each sub-system to make sure no one is attempting to usurp some authority from that sub-system.

Summary

This chapter has examined the evolution of American thought and values related to the process of change. Automatic adjustment has been replaced by planned change. Not everyone

supports planned change, and some people still profess belief in the underlying assumptions of automatic adjustment. No process of change is "good" or "right." Planned change appears to be more realistic because man does have considerable control over human relations. Social change is not determined by natural laws, it is the consequence of human behavior.

According to Lippitt and his co-authors, the process of planned change is similar regardless of how many individuals constitute the change-agent and client-system. The doctor-patient relationship is a change process comparable to an economic development team - community relationship. Sower and his co-authors tend to agree with this observation. Sower is concerned more with community development, whereas Lippitt is more interested in change processes involving fewer people. Both authors present general models for analyzing planned change.

This study presents the community junior college as a change-agent with its community as the client-system. Using the seven perspectives presented in Chapter III as a frame of reference and drawing heavily from Sower's analytical model, a methodology for creating technical programs in community junior colleges is elaborated. Seven analytical elements are listed and described. Although the elements are presented in a chronological order, it is noted that the actual change process does not always proceed in an orderly fashion from one element to the next. There is continuous feedback among the various elements, and decisions made in regard to one element

are shaped by, and partial determinants of, decisions made in regard to other elements. The analytical elements provide a simplified approach for understanding and planning a process of social change.

The last section lists five properties that appear to be common to change processes for creating technical programs in community junior colleges. The properties are derived from the sociological analysis and the models of planned change, and they will be examined in the light of data gathered from the case study. The properties can assist those interested in creating technical programs by serving as guides for action.

CHAPTER V

A CASE STUDY:
THE ST. LOUIS - ST. LOUIS COUNTY JUNIOR COLLEGE DISTRICT

Creating The College

Identifying a certain statement or event as the beginning of a social process is an arbitrary selection. When did the idea of creating a community junior college in St. Louis first appear? When did the convergence of interest occur? What events caused people in St. Louis County and St. Louis to be concerned with higher education? Was it the White House Conference? Was it the realization that the percentage of high school graduates in the St. Louis area who were matriculating into colleges was considerably less than comparable percentages in other areas of the nation? Was it the realization of citizens that higher education is becoming more necessary for the progress of their country, for the development of their local area, and for the future of their children? It was really all of these events and the determination of certain people to see the process through.

During the 1950's, some citizens in the city and county of St. Louis started discussing the lack of opportunities for high school graduates to attend publicly supported higher educational institutions. Two private universities were located in the area, and the St. Louis public school system was operating Harris Teachers College and a junior college. Those

institutions were effectively meeting their objectives. Washington University and St. Louis University were leading institutions in the Middle West, but tuition costs were considerable. Harris Teachers College was graduating well qualified teachers for the public schools. Both Harris Teachers College and the junior college were furnishing opportunities with their limited resources, but the city school system was strained for funds to operate elementary and secondary schools. The junior college could not handle many students. Technical courses, that often require considerable outlays of money, were not offered, and the county school systems, which graduate more seniors than the St. Louis public schools, still had no publicly supported higher education. Two leaders of the Teamsters Union local were especially concerned about this lack of opportunities, and they urged a study of the situation.

The leaders of St. Louis University and Washington University pushed for a study of the St. Louis area in conjunction with the Governor's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. In 1958, a sub-committee was named to study the higher educational needs of Metropolitan St. Louis. This sub-committee of thirteen members engaged a research staff of three to survey the higher educational needs of the area and to present possible ways of meeting the needs. The director of the research staff was Edward B. Shils, and the report published by the sub-committee is commonly called the Shil's Report. The Shil's Report was presented January 22, 1960, and it recommended a publicly supported college district that would include St. Louis

and St. Louis County. According to the report, the college should be financed by local taxes, state aid and tuition charges, and the college district should offer a comprehensive group of programs. Technical education programs were specifically mentioned.

When the sub-committee started examining alternative methods of providing higher education, no one considered comprehensive community junior colleges. Several of the early advocates for publicly supported higher education were thinking in terms of a branch of the University of Missouri. When the comprehensive community junior college was first discussed, three early supporters were the presidents of the University of Missouri, St. Louis University, and the board president of General American Life, a large insurance company with its home office in St. Louis. More members of the sub-committee became convinced a community junior college was the most urgently needed type of institution, and they realized state enabling legislation was needed before a comprehensive college, with adequate financial support, could be established.

After the Shil's Report was published, members of the sub-committee became the nucleus of a local committee to draft and support a bill to enable the establishment of locally controlled, and adequately supported, comprehensive community junior colleges. There was also in existence a state-wide committee with the same purpose, and these two groups joined to form the Missouri Citizens Committee for State Aid for Junior Colleges. When the Missouri General Assembly convened in

January, 1961, the enabling bill was introduced and supported by the state-wide committee.

According to some of the members of the Committee, political observers were surprised that the enabling legislation was passed during the 1961 session. Members of the Committee were cautioned by politically knowledgeable friends that a bill is seldom enacted into law the first time it is introduced. There was also opposition to the bill from three sources. Some state college supporters felt state funds were already insufficient to adequately support state colleges, without the added burden of contributing some support to community junior colleges. Another group of citizens felt public support to higher education was already excessive, and further demands for higher education could be satisfied by private institutions. A third group of citizens, who lived in the St. Louis area, believed a branch of the University of Missouri was more urgently needed than a community junior college. Despite precedents of lengthy deliberation and opposition from several sources, the bill was passed June 29, 1961, and became effective October 13, 1961.

The next step in creating the community junior college was obtaining signatures on petitions to place the question before the voters. Again, some of the same members, who had served on the governor's sub-committee and the legislative committee, formed the nucleus of a committee to collect signatures and campaign for voter support. This was the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College Committee, and it included almost forty leading citizens of the area. Members of the committee

were representatives of labor, business, education, industry and other civic groups. Commitments of support were obtained from numerous organizations, the two major newspapers, neighborhood newspapers, radio stations and leading citizens. On April 3, 1962, the college district was created and six citizens were elected to form the original Board of Trustees.

The St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College Committee did not ignore the importance of having a Board of Trustees that was representative of the District and interested in developing a comprehensive college. A sub-committee was named to investigate possible candidates and to provide a list of candidates for the Junior College Committee to support. The six candidates named and recommended by the sub-committee were selected for their personal qualifications and philosophies, and because they represent different sections and groups within the District. They represent 1) public school groups, 2) geographical sections of the District, 3) religious groups, 4) business and industry, and 5) ethnic groups. The researcher asked about the absence of labor union representation. One of the co-chairman of previously mentioned committees is a labor leader. The nominating sub-committee asked some of the labor leaders if they wanted to recommend anyone to represent the union point of view, but the labor leaders expressed satisfaction with the other nominees and supported their election. From a slate of more than thirty candidates, all of the candidates backed by the Junior College Committee were elected.

Creating the college involved no less than three action processes, and a fourth action process was essential to have an original Board of Trustees who believe in a comprehensive community junior college. The charter of the first action process was a study of Metropolitan St. Louis to determine needs for higher education and to make recommendations. Union officials, officials of private universities, and other citizens had a convergence of interest. An initiating set was formed which got legitimation from the governor of Missouri. The governor had already named a state-wide committee and he had the legal means to name a sub-committee to focus on Metropolitan St. Louis. The execution set was the sub-committee and its three member research staff. The charter was fulfilled when the report was published January 22, 1960.

The second action process had as its objective the passage of state legislation. The convergence of interest took place locally when members of the governor's sub-committee decided state legislation was needed. On a state-wide basis it occured when two separate committees joined to form the Missouri Citizens Committee for State Aid for Junior Colleges. The Missouri Citizens Committee was both initiation and execution set. The Committee was legitimated by the groups and organizations it represented. Other organizations were asked for support and individuals were asked to contact state representatives and senators on behalf of the bill. Some of the members of the Committee spent considerable time in the state capital testifying before committees and attempting to gain support.

Passage of the bill on June 29, 1961, fulfilled the charter of the second action process.

The goal of the third action process was the establishment of the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College District. This action process could be viewed as two separate change processes. One process being the collection of signatures to place the question on the ballot and the second process being the campaign to gain voter approval. The same people participated throughout both change processes and when they created the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College Committee in the summer of 1961, the members knew both processes were necessary for achieving their goal. From the standpoint of the participants, the charter was always the same and gathering a sufficient number of signatures was one step in the right direction. The Junior College Committee was the initiating set. The execution set required many more people to collect signatures, distribute information and make presentations. Legitimation was obtained by getting the support of almost every civic organization, mass communication organization, and many influential leaders in the fields of labor, industry, education, politics, business and other professions. There was opposition from two sources, and there was a historically rooted prejudice against any political subdivision encompassing both city and county. The prejudice was attacked as being unrealistic in view of the interdependency of the two units, and political leaders from both units supported the college district proposal. The same group that opposed more public higher education

when the state legislature was debating the bill, opposed the college proposal during the election campaign. This group represents people who strongly support parochial schools, and when religious leaders of all denominations supported the college district proposal, their opposition was contained. Another group wanted the University of Missouri to establish a branch in St. Louis County before a junior college district was established. Leaders of the University of Missouri supported the junior college and voiced a need for both opportunities. Instead of competition, they saw co-operation between the two institutions. This blunted the attack of this source of opposition. The charter of the third action process was fulfilled April 3, 1962.

In December of 1961, there was another convergence of interest. Members of the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College Committee saw that creating a college was not their total charter, they wanted to create a college that would do certain things. To assure total fulfillment of their charter, a Board of Trustees that believed in a comprehensive curriculum and an open-door policy of admittance was necessary. They could trust to good fortune, or they could make an effort to influence the election, to plan change, by selecting and supporting six candidates. This was a fourth action process that was initiated and executed by the Junior College Committee. Legitimation was obtained in the same way legitimation was obtained for the creation of the district. This charter, or part

of a charter, was also fulfilled April 3, 1962, when all six of the candidates were elected.

Creating Technical Programs

The members of the Board met and organized soon after the election. They were anxious to select a president and start classes as soon as it was feasible. They levied taxes and systematically started the search for a president who was committed to their philosophy of a community junior college. The Board listed six criteria for evaluating candidates for the presidency, and one of the criterion specifically called for a commitment to vocational-technical education. The man they selected was commited, and he had well formed ideas concerning the creation and operation of technical programs. During his interviews with the Board, these ideas were discussed and later used as a basis for selecting other members of the staff.

Assignment of responsibility for gathering and evaluating possible technical programs. - The president assumed his duties September 4, 1962. In October, vice-presidents for instruction and business were chosen. The president saw the vice-president for instruction as the position-incumbent responsible for creating technical programs. He further saw the creation of technical programs as action processes involving all sub-systems of the college organization and representatives of community groups and organizations. While interviewing candidates for the business vice-presidency, the president probed to discover a candidate's interest in curriculum development and areas

outside the normal realm of business affairs. When evaluating candidates for the instructional vice-presidency, he considered the willingness and ability of applicants to co-operate with lay citizens and professional educators.[1] The first step in creating technical programs had been accomplished, the vice-president for instruction had been assigned the responsibility. Other individuals will assist by furnishing information and ideas, but until the organization becomes considerably larger, no formal body will be established to assist the vice-president for instruction.

Formation of linkages with external systems. - Systemic linkages are established for many reasons. Linkages transmit information, ideas, advice, and promises of support. Systemic linkages promote the exchange of resources and make it possible for two or more organizations to appear as one in certain situations. When the Board of Trustees was organized, the organizational boundaries of the college were established and linkages with other social systems were evident. Board members are members of other organizations, and board members can explain the college's point of view and identify the needs of the college. As members of the Board, they can explain and elaborate

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[1]Before the vice-president for instruction was selected, the president had discussed the importance of technical advisory committees with the Board of Trustees and mentioned that approximately forty advisory committees would probably be created by the vice-president for instruction. When the vice-president for instruction was selected, one board member somewhat humorously asked him if he was prepared to organize and meet with forty advisory committees. That number of committees will no doubt be created, and probably within a few years, but by then the administrative sub-system will have other personnel who can represent the vice-president on advisory committees.

the views and needs of other organizations with which they are affiliated. As members of the Board, they are contacted by spokesmen of other social systems, and they are expected to represent the college during certain negotiations and at certain events. What is true for board members is also true for staff members. When staff members are selected, their access to other social systems is one criterion considered by those who employ them.

Although a change-agent has some linkages by virtue of its members' associations and experiences prior to joining the change-agent system, other linkages will still be desirable. Establishing connections with relevant organizations is a continuous project. As the college expands its curriculum, resources are required from more social systems and more social systems become consumers of the college's products. Some social systems furnishing resources may increase their demands if they think the college is greatly dependent on them. By establishing linkages with numerous social systems, the college can avoid excessive dependency on a few social systems. Systemic linkages lead to commitments, but it is better to have numerous, relatively minor commitments than a few major commitments.

The members of the Board of Trustees are representatives of large groups in the District. They are also linkages with specific organizations and associations. Staff members are linkages with professional groups and, because of previous positions they have occupied, with other community junior colleges. The Board of Trustees wants the administrative sub-system to

contain individuals with experiences in various parts of the country. This is partially due to the Board's desire to tap the experiences of other community junior colleges, to obtain linkages with colleges and other sources of assistance outside of the local area. The Board also urges and helps members of the administrative sub-system to serve as linkages with local civic organizations.[1] By using these numerous linkages, several specific technical programs were mentioned and discussed soon after the administrative staff was selected. These linkages are used for other purposes than exchanging information about technical programs, and these linkages do not form connections with all relevant social systems. Other linkages are needed, linkages deliberately formed to examine the need for specific technical programs.

Three organizations in St. Louis did not wait for the college to make the first overtures in creating technical programs. They had already concluded they needed more formally, technically educated people. The three organizations' respective interests are dental technicians, registered nurses, and law enforcement. Before the junior college was established, the St. Louis Dental Association had appointed a sub-committee to contact institutions of higher education and to discuss dental technician programs. The institutions they contacted

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[1]This was a point of discussion at several Board and staff meetings. The Board of Trustees wants the administrative officers to be active members in certain service clubs, and the Board will underwrite those memberships. Memberships in professional organizations are the concern and responsibility of the individual.

sympathized with the dentists, agreed the need was real, but felt they could not or should not provide the technical program. The institutions suggested contacting the junior college, if and when it was established. Soon after the junior college had staff members, the sub-committee did contact the college. A linkage was formed with the vice-president for instruction representing the junior college and the sub-committee members representing the St. Louis Dental Association.

The St. Louis Police Department had also been searching for a college to provide formal education in law enforcement. The St. Louis Police Department is improving its effectiveness by using modern equipment, efficient techniques, and by careful selection of personnel. Surprisingly, effectiveness has improved while the number of police officers has decreased. A major cause of this phenomenon is the quality of the police officers. The police commissioners are anxious to keep the officers informed of the latest techniques and to give the officers an opportunity to obtain more education which can lead to promotions and higher salaries. When the junior college was established, the police commissioners immediately contacted the Board of Trustees and asked that a law enforcement program be considered. After the vice-president for instruction was named, he met with two of the police commissioners. This linkage is strengthened by the fact one of the police commissioners is also a senior law partner in the law firm that is representing the junior college.

The Hospital Association of Metropolitan St. Louis is facing a problem common to most sections of the nation, a shortage of nurses. Some of the hospital administrators see the junion college as another source of registered and practical nurses. They have heard of two-year nursing programs in other states, and one two-year program has recently been started at Southeast Missouri State College. Some members of the Board of Trustees and the president of the junior college were contacted by several hospital administrators before October, 1962. The vice-president for instruction, the executive director of the Hospital Association, and a few hospital administrators formed linkages to exchange information about nursing programs.

The junior college assumed the initiative in linking with many social systems by establishing the Advisory Committee on Technical Education. This committee has twenty-eight lay citizen members who represent social systems which are relevant to creating technical programs. The Board of Trustees, president, and vice-president for instruction discussed which social systems should be represented and who would be desirable representatives. The president of the college contacted those who were desired as members, and requested their assistance. In some cases board members used mutual obligations and intermediaries to persuade some people to serve on the Committee. All of the members occupied prominent positions in their respective social systems. Because of the members prominence, every effort was made to avoid the appearance of niggardliness and to avoid wasting their time. The first meeting was a dinner at one of

the leading hotels, followed by a speech stressing the importance and need for technical programs. This meeting was rather lengthy, but after the first meeting only two short meetings were held during the next month. This ended the work of this particular committee for a year.

The work of the Advisory Committee was identifying local needs for technical programs and attaching pricrities to possible technical programs. On January 30, 1963, at the first meeting, Norman C. Harris, who was cited in Chapter I, presented data that revealed the increasing national need for technicians and he described some possible engineering technician programs. After his prepared speech, he and the vice-president for instruction answered questions. The objectives of this meeting were to convince the members that technical programs are needed and to help the members understand what technical programs contain, what responsibilities the graduates are prepared to assume, and what is required of students to enter and complete technical programs.

The second meeting of the Advisory Committee occurred February 13, 1963, and lasted for approximately two hours. Before the meeting started, information concerning technical programs was distributed to the members. One of the pieces of material given to all members was a list of technical programs found in many community junior colleges. Almost sixty technical programs appeared on the list, and the main objective of the meeting was to attach one of three ratings to each program. The possible ratings were: 1) immediate need, 2) no serious

need at present, and 3) no need in the foreseeable future. Members of the committee rated the technical programs on the basis of their knowledge of the local situation, and they also asked questions and made recommendations concerning technical programs in general. They suggested getting aid from private companies, concentrating on high-level technical programs, and not making technical programs too specific. The members were becoming involved, they felt they were being taken seriously. After the meeting, one member commented that he was not originally in favor of the junior college. He visualized it as a vocational high school, but now, knowing the technical programs would have college rigor, he was a supporter of the junior college.

On February 27, 1963, the Advisory Committee met for the third time. This was the last meeting of this committee until the following year, when it will be time to take another look at the local need for technical programs. The Advisory Committee reviewed the priority list developed during its previous meeting and discussed additional programs. Another objective was to establish initiating sets for specific technical programs, to suggest possible members for initiating sets, and to recommend chairmen for initiating sets. Several members of the Advisory Committee agreed to join initiating sets and to help obtain the agreement of other citizens to serve on initiating committees.

The Advisory Committee handled its assignments swiftly and competently. It performed other important functions. It

established linkages between the junior college and other social systems.[1] It won supporters for the junior college as a total institution and for technical programs in particular. It answered questions and provided information for members of social systems, influential members who could explain technical programs and the objectives of the junior college to other members of their social systems. The meetings and membership of the Advisory Committee were publicized. This gave recognition to the members for being interested in education and for being considered sufficiently important to be asked to help. It gave the junior college more prestige and technical programs more legitimacy by being associated with prominent individuals who are members of important social systems. It developed a priority list of technical programs, which was published in the newspapers, recommended members for initiating sets, and provided many volunteers for initiating sets. This type of an Advisory Committee appears to be a highly effective approach if it is used sparingly, and if the objectives are clearly understood and directly approached.

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[1]The Advisory Committee established a linkage with Famous Barr, a large department store owned by the May Dept. Store Co. On February 25, 1963, the vice-president for instruction and researcher met with the director of the advertizing art section and learned that her section employed fifty-two commercial artists. The director described a critical shortage for advertizing artists that forced her to recruit artists from other cities. This was a need that no one on the college staff was aware existed, until the linkage was established. The director also recommended people who might serve on an initiating set for a merchandising program.

Establishment of an initiating set for a suggested technical program or an area of closely related technical programs. - Initiating sets have five functions. The first function is to identify the capabilities and characteristics of successful graduates of a technical program and to discuss the objectives of a technical program. Secondly, initiating sets consider what combination of courses is best for achieving the objectives of a technical program. Thirdly, the members discuss ways of obtaining special facilities that are needed for courses in a technical program. The fourth function is to obtain promises of assistance from relevant social systems. The fifth function is publicly supporting a technical program, thereby helping to gain public approval - legitimation.

An initiating set can be established by utilizing an extant social system or by bringing together interested people and establishing a new social system. It is usually more expedient to work with a social system already organized and which already has connections with other systems. The extant connections can make it easier to obtain support, but they can also restrict the autonomy of a social system. Another drawback to using an existent social system is the possibility a low priority will be attached to developing a technical program. When time runs short and resources run low, technical programs would be forgotten. In situations where several extant social systems distrust each other, it could alienate some systems if one system was utilized as an initiating set. However, it takes more effort and time to organize a new social

system. This is especially true because influential people are those who often have many other commitments, and they are the same people who are wanted for initiating sets. By creating a new system, the junior college is sure a technical program will be considered, and the college can invite representatives of many systems to avoid being too closely asscciated with one social system.

In St. Louis, the Technical Engineering Advisory Committee is an example of a new social system. It is concerned with the area of engineering technicians which includes chemical, electric, electronics, mechanical, civil, industrial and vacuum options. Six lay members and the vice-president for instruction are the regular members.[1] The lay advisors are: two professors of engineering, representatives of Washington University and St. Louis University, a member of the American Society for Engineering Education who is closely associated with the McDonnell Aircraft Corporation, a representative of Emerson Electric Company, a representative of Monsanto Chemical Company, and an industrial consultant who is a native of St. Louis and formerly an executive with Universal Match Corporation. All of the lay advisors have engineering degrees and among them they have connections with the largest employers of engineering technicians.

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[1]The researcher was a member while in St. Louis and other members of the staff are welcome to attend the meetings. The reader is also reminded that the researcher was a participant - observer in all of the meetings of advisory committees during his internship and that he assisted in planning and preparing for the meetings.

At the March 11, 1963, Board of Trustees meeting, the six lay advisors were approved as members until August 27, 1964. The regular term will be one year and expire in late August, but the first members of the committee will serve longer than a year. By the end of August, technical programs that will be implemented during the subsequent academic year will have been organized and included in the curriculum. This affords an opportunity for the Board of Trustees and college staff to consider possible new programs and to appoint members best qualified to examine technical programs that may be created during the following year.

The first meeting of the Technical Engineering Advisory Committee was held March 21, 1963. All members were present and considerable enthusiasm was shown. The members are all prominent in their respective organizations, their academic backgrounds are somewhat similar, and they seemed to have a common frame of reference. Everyone participated. When uncertain if they correctly interpreted someone's comments, the members did not hesitate to probe for clarification. Because of their positions and knowledge of the local situation, they were confident they knew the local demands or could quickly contact someone who did know the local demands for particular kinds of engineering technicians. They discussed what well educated engineering technicians in different fields should be able to do, and they discussed combinations of technical and liberal arts courses that would best prepare a student for a technical position. The physical needs of laboratories and

need for laboratory experiences were considered, and thought was given to obtaining equipment and space from local firms. A week later, March 28, 1963, the committee met again with equally satisfying results and participation by all members. This committee contains three volunteers from the larger Advisory Committee on Technical Education, one serves as chairman of the engineering committee, and three members recommended by that committee. The Technical Engineering Advisory Committee illustrates the creation of a new social system in a technical area where there is no existent system.

The Hotel and Restaurant Management area is a slightly different situation. There is an extant system, but it proved to be unsatisfactory. One of the members of the Advisory Committee on Technical Education is owner and operator of four of the largest hotels and restaurants in the District. After the first meeting of the Advisory Committee, he expressed interest in a hotel and restaurant management program and suggested that he and the vice-president for instruction meet with two of the other managers of leading hotels and restaurants. The meeting created enthusiasm for a technical program. It revealed that a shortage of technically trained people existed and that on most occasions the managers had to recruit technicians in Chicago and other cities to obtain well educated employees. The vice-president learned a Food Service Career Guidance Council already existed and that one of the hotel managers was a member. It was decided that the vice-president would be invited to a meeting of that group.

It first appeared as if this group might serve as an initiating set for a technical program in hotel and restaurant management. On March 15, 1963, the vice-president and this researcher attended a meeting of the Food Service Career Guidance Council. After talking with the members, it became obvious that this group did not represent the relevant organizations and lacked the ability to assist in gaining legitimation for a hotel and restaurant management technical program. This group was authority-oriented and would probably shy away from conflict. What is needed is a power-oriented initiating set, such as a group of hotel and restaurant owners and managers. After the March fifteenth meeting, the vice-president started creating a new social system that includes owners and managers of prominent local concerns.

Establishing an initiating set for dental technicians was a fairly simple operation. As mentioned previously, the St. Louis Dental Association, which represents 1,200 dentists, had established a sub-committee to investigate the possibilities of having a college offer a dental technician program. The sub-committee had talked with officials of the area colleges and had been advised the junior college was ideally suited for such programs. January 22, 1963, two members of the sub-committee met with the vice-president for instruction and the researcher. They could promise facilities and assistance of all kinds, e.g., the Dental Association would go to manufacturers and ask for the latest in dental equipment and supplies. The sub-committee members were already working with the Washington University

dental college for the purpose of arranging co-operative laboratory experiences between students in the dental college and dental technician program, when and if it was created. This is a ready-made initiating set and the next major concern is employing a professional person to direct the program and work with the initiating and execution sets.

The social system interested in a law enforcement program was the best prepared. Before any staff members assumed their responsibilities, it was publicly announced that the junior college would offer such a program. The initiating set that was eventually established consisted of two police commissioners, who have the honorary rank of colonel; a member of the Police Administration Department at Michigan State University, who is on leave to advise the St. Louis Police Department; the vice-president for instruction; and the researcher. The vice-president and the researcher were shown the police academy and headquarters. These facilities would be made available to assist the college in providing law enforcement courses. The commissioners were willing to co-operate with the college and publicly support the program. This was a situation where neither side had to persuade the other to co-operate. Both the junior college and police department saw the need, and an existent social system is proving to be a highly effective initiating set.

Establishing an initiating set for nursing is different from the other examples because of the multitude of relevant social systems that need to be involved, but not necessarily as

members of the initiating set. Before the vice-president for instruction was obtained, the president of the junior college met with the administrator of the largest hospital in St. Louis. An acute need for nurses is present in St. Louis. The president of the junior college is familiar with two-year nursing programs as a result of his experiences as a member of the California state-wide committee that studies and evaluates two-year nursing programs, and his experiences as an administrator of colleges offering such programs. The hospital administrator and some of his colleagues asked the executive director of the Hospital Association of Metropolitan St. Louis to work closely with the incoming vice-president for instruction in an effort to create a two-year nursing program in the immediate future.

Several meetings were held in February, 1963, and on March 8, 1963, the executive director, administrators of the largest hospitals, the director of nurses training in Catholic hospitals, the junior college president, vice-president for instruction, and the researcher met as an initiating set. The director of the two-year nursing program at Southeast Missouri State College was invited to describe the program at that college and to offer advice. As the meeting proceeded, it became apparent that all favored starting the nursing program in September, 1963, provided well-qualified professional nursing educators could be engaged. It was decided to ask the Hospital Association for support at the next meeting, and, regardless of the decision of the Hospital Association, several of the hospital administrators, who were present, pledged continued

support and co-operation in providing educational experiences in the hospitals. The initiating set also decided to ask the medical and nursing associations for support.

After the meeting of the initiating set, the executive secretary and president of the St. Louis Nursing Association were contacted and appointments for a meeting were made. Since the president's term ended in March, the executive secretary suggested the new president also attend. The appointment was never kept by the members of the association. The executive secretary was contacted, she apologized, and she described a situation that was rending the association. The new president was unacceptable to the executive secretary and a bloc of the members. According to the executive secretary, she, the executive secretary, would resign before she would work with the new president. The vice-president of instruction decided to leave that association to its own problems for a time.

On March 25, 1963, the president of the junior college, vice-president for instruction, and the researcher met with the president and executive secretary of the State Nursing Board. The proposed two-year nursing program was discussed and the representatives of the State Nursing Board felt it was needed. They were pleased with the quality of nursing graduates at Southeast Missouri State College, where only one out of twenty-eight graduates had failed the state nursing examination. They felt a satisfactory program could be started in September, 1963, provided an excellent director could be obtained in the near future. They could not commit the other State Nursing Board

members, but they could help win approval for a nursing program in the junior college. By working with representatives of relevant organizations before the initiating set had publicly made any decisions, relevant social systems were consulted, their advice requested and, hopefully, their support and approval obtained. If representatives of all the relevant social systems had been included in the initiating set, the initiating set would have been cumbersome, and some of the members might never have felt involved. If only a few of the relevant social systems will be represented on an initiating committee, it is reasonable to include individuals and associations who will furnish resources and support continuously and in large quantities. The support of medical and nursing associations is certainly desirable, especially during the early stages of creation and operation, but after these associations have given their approval, they will pay less formal attention to the junior college nursing program.

Legitimation and sponsorship for a technical program. - The employers of technicians are potential sponsors and assistants in obtaining legitimation - public approval. Employers, especially those who are members of advisory committees, saw the need for technicians and publicly supported the efforts of the St. Louis junior college to create technical programs. The president of the St. Louis Chapter of National Office Management Association identified the need for executive secretaries and general business programs. A McDonnell Aircraft Corporation representative cited McDonnell's needs for engineering

technicians, technical writers and well-educated supervisors. An executive of Western Printing and Lithograph Company voiced a need for printing technicians. Owners and operators of the largest hotels and restaurants described their nation-wide recruiting efforts to employ graduates of two-year technical programs. A representative of Monsanto Chemical stated they needed chemical technicians. Representatives of Emerson Electric, Universal Match, Mallinckrodt Chemical Works, and other people familiar with the local situation, all identified the pressing need for engineering technicians. The St. Louis Police Department and suburban police departments asked for a law enforcement program. Administrators of the largest St. Louis hospitals warned of the growing need for nurses. Dentists expressed a need for dental technicians. The public was made aware of the need for technicians by publicizing the statements of those best situated to observe the need - the employers of technicians.

To the statements of employers were added the utterances of those who are conceded to be authorities. Visits and speeches by professors on the faculties of the Universities of Missouri and Michigan identified the national demand for technicians and urged the development of such programs at the St. Louis junior college. Professors of engineering at St. Louis and Washington Universities confirmed the need and currently serve on committees developing technical programs. The Shil's Report provides evidence of the local need for technical programs. A report of the American Society for Engineering

Education is offered as evidence of a national need for technicians, and a member of the steering committee that wrote the report is chairman of the Advisory Committee on Engineering Technology. The president of the Engineer's Club of St. Louis assists in developing technical programs and volunteers the club's facilities for meetings. The area manager of the Missouri State Employment Service is on the over-all advisory committee, and current studies by his organization present a clear picture of needs for technicians.

The programs of other junior colleges and the evaluations of technical programs can be used to help gain approval and support. One of the functions the researcher performed was to examine publications of other colleges, synthesize the findings, and prepare concise presentations of programs and evaluations. The presentations were primarily used to familiarize advisory committees and as a starting place for discussion. The presentations were also given to the general public, including members of the press. Whenever possible, e.g., the director of the two-year nursing program at Southeast Missouri State College, people familiar with technical programs were invited to meet with advisory committees.

Advisory committees serve other purposes besides identifying needs and developing technical programs. By publicizing the purposes and memberships of advisory committees, the public can see evidence of a junior college's concern with its community, and the names of prominent people and social systems are associated with the junior college. The prestige of the

advisory committees has been heightened by the Board of Trustee's approach to creating the committees and naming the members. At the December 10, 1962, Board meeting, the vice-president for instruction described the over-all advisory committee that would recommend technical programs and the smaller advisory committees that would develop and evaluate specific technical programs. The Board then established a policy that contains several major points. Upon the recommendation of the college president, the Board will establish advisory committees and appoint the members. All of the advisory committees will serve for a stated period of time. All reports of the committees shall be advisory in nature. A citizen member will serve as the chairman of each advisory committee, and a staff member will generally serve as secretary. Since both major newspapers normally have reporters present at board meetings, and since the junior college makes wide use of press releases, the public was soon informed of the Board's policy; and the names of all advisory committees, accompanied by the names and positions of the members, have appeared in the newspapers.

The quantity and quality of students influence the ability of a junior college to gain sponsors and legitimation. The Advisory Committee on Technical Education includes the administrative leaders of Catholic and Lutheran schools, representatives of the St. Louis public schools and county school superintendents, the executive secretary of the Urban League, political leaders and labor union leaders. These leaders can inform their respective organizations and constituents of the

demands for technicians and the rewarding occupations that await graduates of technical programs. These people have access to a vital resource, potential junior college students.

The counselors, principals and superintendents of the high schools in the junior college district are on the mailing list of the junior college. They are kept informed of the latest developments, and they are invited to call or visit whenever they have suggestions and questions. All of the high school counselors in the junior college district, who work with high school seniors,[1] were invited to a meeting March 14, 1963. The administrative staff of the junior college explained procedures for students wishing to enter the junior college and described the programs that would be available in the summer and fall sessions. There was an informal social hour and a large portion of the formal meeting was devoted to answering questions. Some counselors offered suggestions for improving communication between the junior college and interested high school students. For the most part, the suggestions were implemented, and follow-up communications made this known to the counselors. After the meeting ended, the researcher talked with several counselors. The counselors had a better understanding of technical programs and what was expected of junior college students, and they were satisfied that the junior

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[1]Several studies indicate that most students start giving serious consideration to post-high school education in the ninth grade, and many have made a decision before the senior year. If this is generally true, a community junior college had better devote some time to counselors and instructors of ninth graders.

college was really interested in their opinions, ideas and suggestions.

Several of the questions raised by counselors and lay citizens concerned standards of admittance, probation, and the grade point average required to stay in the junior college. This is closely connected to prestige and the status of the junior college. If anyone can be admitted as a full-time student and continue so long as he pleases, the college is considered suspect, if not inferior. The Board of Trustees was confronted with what appeared to be a dilemma. They wanted an "open door" and high standards of achievement. In an attempt to solve the dilemma, the Board established an admission policy at its October 22, 1962, meeting. All high school graduates would be admitted, but those who ranked in the lower one-third of their class would automatically be placed on probation and given one semester to show that they were capable of doing college work in either the academic or technical fields. The Board also pointed out that no degrees would be granted to anyone with an average below "C." The policy was subsequently changed to make the standards for unrestricted admission more stringent and to take into consideration the differences between the academic averages of high school classes. The current policy places incoming students, who rank in the lower half of their graduating class and whose scores on the entrance tests used by the junior college are in the lower third of the national norms, on restricted status. The objectives of these

standards are to simultaneously keep the door open to all high school graduates and attach more prestige to the junior college.

Establishment of an execution set for a technical program. - The St. Louis junior college had a small staff of full-time people during the spring semester of 1963. There were six members of the administrative sub-system and nine members of the technical sub-system. There were also forty-one part-time instructors and some of them have been offered contracts as full-time faculty members effective August 26, 1963. During the 1963 spring semester, no technical programs were available and the courses offered were liberal arts. Since most technical programs include several liberal arts courses, students could foreseeably include the courses as parts of technical programs that would be developed in the spring of 1963. The small number of full-time faculty and their primary concern with liberal arts programs reduced the number of potential members of execution sets. Consequently, the vice-president for instruction and the researcher formed a nucleus, and they worked with lay citizens and a few faculty members in creating technical programs.

Technical engineering programs were also limited by a lack of permanent buildings. Several programs were considered by an execution set that included: members of the Advisory Committee on Engineering Technology, one instructor with an engineering background, the vice-president for business, who was previously a member of the staff at Lawrence Institute of Technology, the vice-president for instruction, and the

researcher. The vice-president for instruction was also interviewing candidates for administrative positions during the spring of 1963, and he obtained a person who previously directed a technical institute. This individual and the people who become the assistant directors of technical programs, staff positions scheduled to be filled by the summer of 1963, will also serve as members of execution sets for engineering programs. The members of the Advisory Committee on Engineering Technology recommended that engineering technicians have at least one-third basics or liberal arts courses. For this reason, technical engineering programs could be created first and then qualified instructors could be obtained to develop specific technical courses.

A somewhat similar course of action was followed in relation to a hotel and restaurant management program. The citizen advisors wanted the program as soon as possible. The vice-president for instruction and the researcher met with a University of Missouri professor, who is familiar with hotel and restaurant management courses, and with the Dean of the Hotel and Restaurant Management School at Cornell University. They offered suggestions concerning program offerings and recommendations for the director of such a program. The faculty members employed to direct and conduct the program will be members of the execution set.

Technical programs were developed in law enforcement and for dental assistants by using information obtained from other colleges and the assistance of initiating set members. The

execution sets identified required and optional courses, organized them into technical programs, and described the objectives of each course. The next step was obtaining people to direct the programs, develop course sylabuses, and teach technical courses. As the students progress from basic courses to more technical courses, other staff members will be added.

Beginning with the first semester, nursing programs involve hospital experiences in ever increasing amounts. Therefore, they require a director immediately. Before an execution set was established, a well-qualified director was necessary. Fortunately for the St. Louis junior college, a junior college, which had employed a staff of professional nursing instructors, decided not to start a two-year nursing program. The St. Louis junior college obtained sufficient staff members to establish a program by fall, 1963. A traditional program area, such as nursing, emphasizes professionals as members of execution sets, almost to the exclusion of laymen as members of execution sets. The employers of nurses, hospital administrators and medical doctors, may assist execution sets, but they are not essential. In the rapidly changing fields of engineering technicians, employers have more to say concerning the establishment of technical programs.

Inclusion of the technical program in the curriculum. - If the description of a technical program in a college catalog indicates the creation of a technical program, the St. Louis junior college has created several technical programs. The first catalog, which covers the 1963-64 academic year, contains ten

technical programs. Some are labeled technical programs, but they are actually combinations of liberal arts courses. An example is the airline stewardess program which is a liberal arts program emphasizing the social sciences. The five technical programs discussed in previous sections include courses that are specifically developed for those programs. In the case of the airline stewardess program, there was no change process involving lay citizens. The process was brief and involved the co-operation of two people, the vice-president for instruction and the researcher. It does not qualify as a major collaborative effort. The five technical programs discussed in previous sections do illustrate the collaborative process of planned change.

Evaluation of the technical program. - The St. Louis junior college will not be in a position to evaluate any technical programs for some time. There is certainly evidence that the college staff intends to continually evaluate technical programs by using the different approaches mentioned in the previous chapter. In a speech delivered to the county school superintendents and trustees on November 29, 1962, the president of the college promised that technical programs would be evaluated in numerous ways, including follow-up studies of ex-students. The Board of Trustees policies concerning advisory committees state that one of the duties of advisory committees is to evaluate technical programs. The vice-president for instruction will be responsible for evaluating programs and he will have a director of research, a director of technical

programs, and other staff members to assist him in making objective evaluations. When devising records systems and planning with the McDonnell data processing firm, which has a contract to provide services, the evaluation of programs, courses and instructors was considered. These concerns with evaluation and promises to the public will no doubt result in using evaluation as a planning device and as another way of getting approval from the public.

Examining the Properties

Property I: A community junior college that desires to introduce technical programs will have a positive orientation toward other social systems in the community. The St. Louis junior college definitely desires to introduce technical programs. Starting with the governor's sub-committee that published the Shil's Report, supporters of the junior college, the Board of Trustees, and staff members have publicly supported technical programs and worked for the creation of technical programs. The willingness of the junior college to co-operate with other social systems indicates a positive orientation. Members of the Board and the junior college staff have formally and informally worked with other social systems for the purpose of creating technical programs. The formal establishment of advisory committees and the publicity given to the work of the committees provide clear evidence of the junior college's positive orientation toward other social systems in the community.

Property II: A community junior college will find local organizations more willing and able to co-operate than organizations that are sub-systems of non-local organizations. The study of the St. Louis junior college illustrates this property, with certain qualifications. The following industries and businesses have their home offices in St. Louis, and, usually by having representation on advisory committees, they have co-operated with the junior college in the creation of technical programs. The organizations are: McDonnell Aircraft Corp., General American Life Insurance Co., Mayfair Hotel Corp., Monsanto Chemical Co., Mallinckrodt Chemical Works, Emerson Electric Co., May Department Stores, Universal Match Co., Western Printing and Lithogrph Company, and the Barnes and Allied Hospitals Group. The college district contains many other industries, each employing thousands of people, including technicians, e.g., Chrysler Corp., General Motors Corp., Ford Motor Co., General Electric Co. and Kroger Co. Those are not local corporations, and not one private business or industry, that has its home elsewhere, has representatives on advisory committees. There are also several large local industries that are not represented, e.g., Anheuser-Busch, Inc. Some organizations that are sub-systems of systems based in other cities, such as labor unions, are represented on advisory committees and publicly support technical programs as being legitimate junior college endeavors. Why are certain social systems asked for assistance and others not? What are the qualifications of Property II?

The property, as originally stated, appears to be applicable to industrial and business organizations. The managers of branch factories, stores and offices look to their superiors in the regional and home offices for an evaluation of their work. Managers who want support and high ratings are concerned with position - incumbents above them in the hierarchial structure. If their superiors urged them to become involved in local affairs, which some private utilities have done, branch managers would run for public offices and volunteer to serve on civic committees. This would still not change one basic fact, the branch managers would usually have very limited authority to commit their local sub-system. Labor unions are different. Labor leaders are elected by the members of the locals. If the workers feel their elected representatives are not sufficiently concerned with local problems and active in local affairs, their leaders will be removed from office. Labor leaders look to their constituents for support and high ratings.

In a large and heavily populated college district, not all industrial and business concerns can be represented. The trustees and college administrators want prominent men who can provide resources and help obtain legitimation. The trustees often use friendships and intermediaries to persuade certain people to become members of advisory committees. Branch managers generally move from one location to another, and they are seldom part of the local "Establishment." College trustees are often localities and members of the "Establishment." For this reason, the trustees of the St. Louis junior college were more

familiar with officers of local firms, officers who were long-time residents of St. Louis. When the long-time resident officers could not join the advisory committees, they could recommend another member of the local firm and make it possible for him to attend the meetings. In St. Louis, locally based industries and businesses have many managers and officers who are natives or long-time residents of the community. Consequently, local industries are represented in more social sectors of the community, and they are seen as an integral part of the community.

Property III: A community junior college will make decisions that may compromise or qualify the "open door" philosophy in an effort to gain more community and organizational support. The first qualification of the "open door" philosophy was the establishment of admission standards. The door was left open to all high school graduates, but restricted status was assigned to high school graduates with poor scholastic records. The establishment of tuition and fees closed the door slightly. The Board of Trustees established the rates at ten dollars per semester hour and one-hundred dollars maximum per semester for residents of the District. The payment of tuition and fees is seen as an indication of the "earnestness" of students. It also makes it highly difficult, if not impossible, for some people to attend the junior college. The establishment of standards was especially useful in winning supporters among members of advisory committees. Several members of the Advisory Committee on Technical Education stated they were happy to hear that not

anyone would be admitted to technical programs. The same feeling was expressed by other citizens when specific technical programs were being discussed. The standards for admittance to technical programs do not close the door to the college, but they do require a certain level of work in prerequisite college courses before a student will be admitted to a specific technical program.

Property IV: Latent culture will be one basis for informal groups and a potential source of opposition to change. Before the St. Louis - St. Louis County Junior College District was created, a junior college was operated in conjunction with Harris Teachers College. The St. Louis public schools were usually on restricted budgets, and the colleges were especially hard pressed for funds. The junior college enrollment was small and the courses were inexpensive, liberal arts courses for students who intended to transfer. After the junior college district was created, the St. Louis public school system closed the junior college and continued Harris Teachers College. The rumor evidently spread that all of the instructors who had taught in the junior college for the St. Louis public school system would, if they so desired, be employed by the junior college district. Otherwise, they would teach in Harris Teachers College. Several of the instructors were employed by the junior college district, but not all. The trustees and administrators of the junior college district hesitated to employ too many of the former public school instructors, because they feared the consequences of a large core of instructors

with the same latent culture. Of the nine full-time members who taught the spring semester of 1963, five were ex-instructors of the St. Louis public school system junior college. Talks with some of the other instructors revealed that latent culture was used as a basis for making decisions. During faculty meetings, the five instructors, who had taught together before the District was created, would advocate a course of action because that was the way they had done it previously. This annoyed the other instructors, and this could undermine the objectives of the junior college district. When the trustees and administrators advocate one approach, there is the chance that the "old way," supported by the latent culture shared by five instructors, will be substituted. As the junior college district grows larger, this core may be dissipated by assigning the instructors to different campuses, or the core may grow larger and stronger by allowing the instructors to remain together and adding other members with similar outlooks.

The possible organization of the instructional sub-systems along divisional lines provides another example of latent culture operating against change. Soon after full-time instructors were under contract, the vice-president for instruction asked them to submit possible course titles and outlines. It soon became apparent that the instructors were essentially developing traditional liberal arts courses. In view of the junior college's concern with general education, a concern that is not restricted to two-year colleges, this approach seemed too narrow. The vice-president felt a divisional organization, by

arranging disciplines with a common concern in juxtaposition, could assist the integration of courses into general education offerings. On February 15, 1963, the vice-president and the researcher submitted a possible divisional organization to the instructors and asked for suggestions. All suggestions, and there were not many, were in the direction of traditional, departmental arrangements. When the researcher left, one and a half months later, only outlines of traditional liberal arts courses had been submitted by full-time instructors. On the basis of their educational experiences as students and instructors, proposed changes in the types of courses to be offered were resisted.

Property V: The sub-systems of a community junior college will be a major determinant of informal groups and a communications barrier that will make change more difficult. When the researcher arrived in St. Louis, the informal organization was, for the most part, the context for discussion and decision-making. There were two sub-systems. The trustees, college president, and board secretary constituted the institutional sub-system. The other members of the organization constituted the administrative sub-system. There was little formality, everyone was usually cognizant of what was happening, and informal discussions decided issues before formal staff meetings were held. Within three months, six clearly defined sub-systems replaced the one administrative sub-system. This was partially due to the addition of instructors to the organization and the expansion of functions. It was also a result of

severing some of the informal ties. Before the families of the administrators arrived in St. Louis, the administrators were together more and the difference between the formal work hours and informal hours was barely discernible.

When the researcher left St. Louis, besides the institutional sub-system, there were the following sub-systems: 1) the administrative-instructional, which included the vice-president for instruction and his office staff, 2) the administrative-business, which included the vice-president for business and his office staff, 3) the technical-library, which included the director of educational materials and the librarians, 4) the administrative-campus, which included the campus director, registrar and their office staffs, 5) the technical-instructors (south campus), which included the instructors on the south campus, and 6) the technical-instructors (north campus). Not all communication among the sub-systems was formal, but it was predominantly formal among the geographically separated sub-systems. In the central office, formalism perceptibly increased. Administrators who were previously together several hours a day, would sometimes not see each other for more than a day. Issues that were settled during informal discussions, were discussed and settled during formal staff meetings. Procedures were written and circulated as formal memorandums. The organization was still functioning at a rapid pace, but it was a slower pace at the end of the three months. Not all of the sub-systems were constantly informed, and communication lags became more common. Some informal groups still transcended

sub-system boundaries, but those informal groups met less often and for shorter periods of time than they had in previous days. It was becoming more difficult for the organization to mobilize its resources and function in a co-ordinated fashion. Collaborative change processes were requiring more formal communication, and the processes were taking more time. In some situations, when speed was viewed as the overriding consideration, members of one sub-system would make decisions without consulting other sub-systems. This became more common during the three month internship. The close ties established by the interaction within informal groups, primarily before February, 1963, maintained harmony among the sub-systems and reduced misunderstandings and distrustfulness. As new members are added to the sub-systems, members who will not have close, informal ties to other sub-systems, misunderstandings and distrustfulness will increase unless some measures are taken to link and integrate the sub-systems.

Summary

Sower's model for analyzing community action or change processes was used to examine the creation of the St. Louis - St. Louis Junior College District. Four action processes were apparent, and each was described in some detail. The respective charters of the change processes were: 1) a study to determine the needs, if any, for higher education in Metropolitan St. Louis, 2) the passage of state enabling legislation, 3) the establishment, by referendum, of the junior college, and 4) the

election of trustees committed to an open door, comprehensive institution.

The methodology for creating technical programs, that was presented in Chapter IV, was applied to the data gathered from a study of the St. Louis junior college. The analytical elements of the methodology were used to examine the creation of technical programs for providing: 1) engineering technicians, 2) registered nurses, 3) dental assistants, 4) law enforcement officers, and 5) hotel and restaurant managers.

The last section of this chapter examined five properties of change processes that create technical programs in community junior colleges. The five properties were identified and described in Chapter IV. The data from the St. Louis junior college study tested and illustrated the properties. The data indicated that a qualification needed to be attached to one of the properties. The location of the home or central office of an organization is not the only factor to identify when considering organizations as possible sources of support for technical programs. Where do the executives of an organization look for support and evaluation? How accessible are the managers; do they belong to the "Establishment?" How much authority do the executives of an organization have to make commitments for the organization? Those are some of the other factors to consider when a junior college is looking for commitments of support for a technical program or programs.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Regarding the Case Study

The case study presents the total organization and its relationships with other social systems. This provokes insights and leads to possible cause and effect relationships. The interdependencies of sub-systems become apparent. When a decision is made, the consequences of a specific course of action for other systems and parts become visible. The researcher was impressed with the trustees and administrators of the St. Louis junior college. They were especially conscious of such interdependencies, and they carefully considered the ramifications of each approach. They were concerned with public relations; they were concerned with legitimating the junior college. This was especially important during the earliest months of the junior college's existence. Few people in St. Louis had a clear concept of the junior college, and some residents, e.g., advisory committee members that admitted their original, negative concept of a glorified high school for shiftless juveniles, had misconceptions. The trustees and administrators, being aware of this situation, always made newspaper reporters welcome at meetings, issued numerous press releases, appeared before many groups, and considered the public impact of each possible decision.

The first day of the researcher's internship was spent accompanying the vice-president for instruction while he visited the officials of a state college. The ostensible reason for this visit was to discuss ways of maintaining a satisfactory process for transfer of ex-students of the junior college to the state college. A meeting had been arranged with department chairmen for the purpose of discussing possible sources of friction. Besides wanting to make the transfer process mutually satisfactory, this visit had significance in terms of legitimation. The visit indicated the junior college's concern for the opinions of the staff members at the state college and the willingness of the junior college to co-operate with the state college. This was an attempt to win approval and support from the state college staff. Visits with representatives of other senior institutions were arranged later, with the same objectives in mind.

Accreditation by regional and disciplinary associations is another way of gaining the approval of some people. In December, 1962, the junior college president and vice-president for instruction visited officials of the North Central Association. The visit was arranged to discuss what the junior college should do, if it intended to be accredited at the earliest time. The vice-president of instruction later attended the annual meeting in March, 1963. Whenever plans were made that involved libraries, buildings, courses and instructors, accreditation was always considered and it was often the determining factor.

Besides citizen advisory committees for technical programs, other citizen advisory committees have been discussed by the trustees. A committee of financial advisors has been approved and names have been mentioned. This committee is envisioned as a group of prominent bankers, accountants and businessmen who will suggest ways of investing the junior college funds and methods of financing junior college projects. A larger committee of prominent leaders has also been discussed, and the idea is supported by at least one trustee. This committee would offer advice on major issues that affect the public,[1] and it could be another source of legitimation for the junior college.

Six different issues or considerations vividly illustrate how the consequences of a decision made by one sub-system are felt by other sub-systems and social systems. They are: 1) the Master Plan, 2) data processing, 3) building utilization, 4) year-round operation, 5) planning with architects, and 6) legitimation. The president of the junior college prepared a Master Plan, covering the years 1963-1973, and presented it to the Board and staff the first week in January. This provides a philosophical and statistical framework, within which decisions can be made. The Master Plan estimates the number of

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[1] An ad hoc committee of this type met to discuss methods of financing the junior college building program. This committee supported financing building construction from current revenues, and it advocated going to the voters for an added mill. This meeting was not publicized, those present were never publicly identified, and few members of the committee actively supported the millage request. The millage increase was defeated by the voters on April 3, 1963.

students that will annually be enrolled in the junior college. This helps determine needs for data processing equipment and buildings. The Master Plan can also be used as evidence to help gain legitimation, and the Master Plan indicates that the staff of the junior college plans for the future. Today, planning is considered an economical and wise procedure.

Another valued approach nowadays is the use of data processing equipment to improve efficiency and to cut costs. On October 22, 1962, the Board of Trustees announced that the McDonnell Automation Center had been contracted to provide data processing services. The mapping of flow charts required many decisions concerning admission and registration procedures, grade reports, evaluation criteria, and the arrangement of positions in the organization. In response to these needs, purposes and functions of the organization were defined and an organizational chart was drawn.

The utilization of classroom space had to be discussed and decided before a logical basis for planning with the architects could be established. With the public concern for reducing educational costs in mind, the administrative staff decided on an eighty per cent utilization for the 8 A.M. - 5 P.M. day. The utilization percentage and the Master Plan projections provided a logical estimate of building needs.

The architects used the estimates as guide lines for planning the campuses. There were also weekly meetings between the architects and the administrative sub-system. These meetings centered on such things as equipment, room sizes,

laboratories, lecture halls, and the functions of certain buildings. Again, legitimation was always a consideration. Would it be attractive and functional, but not ostentatious? How would the public react to certain arrangements and the use of certain materials? Those were questions often asked and examined during the planning meetings.

Year-round operation was adopted by the Board of Trustees, but only on a trial basis. The administrative sub-system proposed the year-round operation as a method of getting more utilization from buildings, providing education for more students, and making it possible for students to complete their programs sooner. All of these reasons were seen as arguments for public approval. The Board of Trustees was disturbed by two things; the salaries of instructors and the length of the semesters. The trustees did not want the salaries to greatly exceed salaries offered in other educational institutions. They also felt a sixteen week semester, when compared with the standard eighteen week semester, would lower the prestige of the junior college. When the trustees were told the lengths of semesters at other colleges, the average being fifteen weeks of classes, they felt the advantages might outweigh the disadvantages. The newspaper reporters who were present when the Board decided to try a year-round operation were given considerable information that explained the year-round operation, including copies of the study that contain the average number of weeks in a semester.

This discussion of legitimation illustrates the value of the case study. The case study reveals interdependencies. It shows how decisions regarding buildings are dependent on philosophy, statistical projections and anticipated course offerings. Looking in the other direction, it shows how decisions regarding buildings help determine legitimation, philosophy, the number of students enrolled, and the courses offered. Case studies lack the statistical sophistication of some other types of research, and case studies do not reveal how necessary or sufficient the presence of one variable is for the occurence of a certain phenomenon. Case studies do promote discovery, and they do provide a wealth of anecdotal data that can be used for purposes of testing and illustration. The St. Louis junior college provided several examples of the phenomena being studied, the creation of technical programs.

Regarding the Methodology

A methodology for developing technical programs can be used for planning and analyzing. The analytical elements provide guides for action processes, and the analytical elements focus attention on sources of friction - on oversights that may stymie or nullify action processes.

To be useful, a methodology does not have to be applicable to every situation of a given type. No doubt, the creation of many successful technical programs in junior colleges has been accomplished without following the procedures described in this methodology. Perhaps some staff members read about

a specific technical program, persuaded the administrative subsystem to establish an execution set, and the technical program was soon part of the curriculum. Most curriculum development studies that are described in books and periodicals emphasize the work of execution sets, often disregarding the preceding analytical elements.

If a community has high regard for its community junior college, it may concede considerable discretion for curriculum development to the staff of the community junior college. Stated another way, the community junior college has legitimation from the community to provide programs for a broad area of concern. Regardless of how much area the blanket of legitimation covers, there are limits to the coverage. When college officials misjudge the area of coverage and venture into areas not covered, the consequence is public criticism. The college is accused of "empire building" - of exceeding its legitimate area of concern and encroaching on the legitimate areas of concern of other organizations. Sometimes criticism is stated another way, especially when directed toward elementary and secondary systems. The schools are accused of spending public funds on "frills," the so-called non-essentials of educational institutions. The forms that criticism takes vary from situation to situation, but the cause is usually the same - educators ignore or misjudge the boundaries of legitimate concern.

By following the methodology developed and described in this study, curriculum planners and analyzers are at least cognizant of legitimation and other analytical elements. Erroneous

judgements will still be made, but the combination of decreased ignorance and increased concern will lower the frequency of avoidable public criticism. The philosophy of the community junior college makes complete avoidance of criticism impossible and undesirable. Community junior colleges have a responsibility to help improve their communities by creating needed technical programs. Change processes occur within the context of the community, and processes that constantly ignore the community will soon be ineffective. A community junior college cannot expend its resources for change processes if it is continually defending itself.

A methodology does not delineate small, finite steps in an action process. The general applicability of a methodology can be diminished by excessive detail. This does not preclude the reduction of analytical elements to sub-elements. As the methodology is used to plan and analyze different change processes, experiences derived from those processes may lead to further refinements and the identification of more properties and approaches to the analytical elements. Theories and studies that pertain to action processes, regardless of the disciplinary area, are another potential source of knowledge that could lead to an improved methodology. As this study reveals, sociological theories and studies can provide a theoretical framework and insights into processes that are of vital concern to community junior colleges.

Regarding the Properties

The discovery of properties offers another approach to improving the effectiveness of the change process. Properties serve as guides for action and they are capable of being tested by the results of change processes. The properties are derived from theories and results of related studies. Later events may indicate that certain qualifications need to be attached. Property II is an example of this. Generally, local organizations are more willing and able to co-operate than organizations that are sub-systems of non-local organizations. Data obtained from the St. Louis junior college study support the property when applied to business and industrial concerns. The property is not applicable to labor unions and other organizations in which the leaders look to their local constituents for considerable support and evaluation.

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