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FIELD-TESTING A PLANNING MODEL FOR SOCIAL ACTION PROGRAMS IN FIVE RURAL-BASED MICHIGAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By

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ABSTRACT

FIELD-TESTING A PLANNING MODEL FOR SOCIAL ACTION PROGRAMS IN FIVE RURAL-BASED MICHIGAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By

Malcolm Dean MacLeod

This descriptive study emerged from the need for more predictable and definitive outcomes in social action programs. To fulfill this need, social action programs are just beginning to be influenced by the new emphasis on planning techniques. The study is an attempt to investigate:

(1) the designing, field-testing, and developing of a planning model for implementing social action programs;

(2) the nature of involvement of administrators, teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens who participated in the planning; and

(3) the usefulness of Management by Objectives (MBO) as a planning technique for social action programs.

Management by Objectives was viewed as a potential aid in assisting relatively unsophisticated personnel, who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training, in producing definitive outcomes.

The data for this study was obtained through an indepth analysis of the social action programs offered through five rural-based Michigan community colleges.

Preliminary to making the actual visits to the community colleges in the sample, a planning model was designed by using the planning literature. From this planning model an interview guide was developed and pilot tested.

The procedures used to investigate the areas of study included:

1. Periodic meetings with the community services directors and the project coordinators from each of the five colleges to set objectives.

2. Three workshops held at Michigan State University with the project coordinators from each of the five colleges.

Major conclusions of the study included:

1. A planning model can be developed and used in order to determine more predictable outcomes in social action programs of a similar nature.

2. A planning team in each service area of a social action program should be identified and trained prior to the development of a social action program. This planning team should receive extensive and intensive training in selected planning techniques.

3. In social action programs, involvement is the most important concept. All who would be influenced by a plan should be identified prior to the development of that plan. Those persons influenced by a plan should be involved in that plan.

4. Administrators were more involved in all phases of the planning process than were teachers, students, agency personnel or citizens. If program planning is to have long-range positive effects, more teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens must actively participate in all phases of program planning and development.

5. Administrative involvement in planning influences the planning process of social action programs through their leadership roles, priorities, attitudes, and financial support.

6. Teacher and student involvement in planning positively influences the planning process of

social action programs through their functions as resource persons.

7. Agency personnel and citizen involvement in planning positively influences the planning process of social action programs by establishing communication links throughout the college service area.

8. The psychological commitment to planning is not the formal act of being involved in planning, but the attitude about that involvement. If a person is involved in planning activities that he desires to be in, and if that involvement fulfills his expectations and needs, then he may feel a psychological commitment to planning.

9. When certain conditions are present in the administrators, related respondents and the planning environment, then the planning process for social action programs is enhanced.

10. Management by Objectives (MBO) was not an effective planning technique for relatively unsophisticated personnel who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training. Relatively unsophisticated personnel did not produce reasonably definitive outcomes in developing programs as a result of setting objectives.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

This study emerged from the need for more predictable and definitive outcomes in social action programs. The Brooking Institution, an independent, non-partisan research institution, conducted an evaluation of "war on poverty" programs. These programs are financed through the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO). The programs that were evaluated for their planning and evaluation skills included the following: Head Start, Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), Neighborhood Youth Corp, Job Corp, Work Experience and Training, Adult Education, Migrant Worker, plus those additional programs developed by Community Action Programs (CAP). The Brooking Institution evaluation of OEO's ability to plan and evaluate social action programs shows:

> . . . so far as comprehensive planning is concerned the impact has been minimal or nil. . . . If the plans had little or no impact, what about program evaluation? Here again the impact was blunted . . . hard evaluation results are not yet available for a single program; there is no program that can be rigorously proven to be bad or good (36:139).

OEO's need for program ideas was so great that a statutory instruction was given to the OEO director " . . . to call on any other federal agencies for information and 'other materials' . . . to assist in achieving the aims of the Economic Opportunity Act" (47:149). Clearly, there is a need for models that could be used as a basis for planning and evaluating these social action programs.

One CAP agency in Michigan was reportedly so poorly planned that other agencies would not cooperate with it (34). This agency has had five directors within the past few years. The OEO was considering closing the agency; however, a decision was made to hire one more director. This writer interviewed the new CAP director. In this interview the new CAP director labeled the reason for the agency's previous failures: "little or no planning." He stated:

> . . . our agency was in danger of being closed because the past directors had no concept of how to plan. I had to go in and re-organize the entire agency. . . . Other agencies would not work with us because of our bad reputation. . . . We [his staff] need training in how to plan and examples of how planning can be done (34).

He went on to say that other social agencies have many similar planning and evaluation difficulties.

The planning techniques currently being used in business have been recently applied to educational systems. Now these same techniques are just beginning to be applied

to social action programs. An Eight-State Project entitled "Designing Education for the Future," supported by the U.S. Office of Education, contains studies from business, industry, education, and social science. These studies showed that social action programs were beginning to be influenced by the new emphasis on planning, and that social action programs need the planning skills of business if the social institutions were to meet the demands of contemporary society.

An opportunity to examine the nature of planning in social action programs emerged when an announcement was received on March, 1971 by the author and Director of Project RITE, Dr. Gunder A. Myran, Michigan State University, that a grant of $65,722, under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965, had been made to a consortium of five rural-based Michigan community colleges (Gogebic Community College, Montcalm Community College, Mid-Michigan Community College, Southwestern Community College, West Shore Community College). Michigan State University, a land-grant university, functioned as the coordinating institution. The five consortium colleges served the following Michigan counties:

Gogebic: Gogebic County
Mid-Michigan: Clare and Gladwin County Intermediate District
Montcalm: Montcalm County, Intermediate District
Southwestern: Cass County, Lower Van Buren County
West Shore: Mason County, Manistee County, Mears-Crystal School District

The project was entitled Project RITE (Reach, Involve, Teach, Evaluate). Project RITE was operated by the community services division of each of the five rural-based Michigan community colleges. A central purpose of Project RITE was to have a positive impact upon the lives of the rural poor in each of the above five community college service areas.

The basic objectives of Project RITE (Reach, Involve, Teach, Evaluate) were as follows:

1. In each community college service area, to REACH adults, and particularly those from low-income and minority groups.

2. In each community college service area, to INVOLVE community college faculty, community agencies, and citizens in efforts to enhance educational services to low-income community groups.

3. In each community college service area, to TEACH adults new attitudes and skills.

4. In each community college service area, to EVALUATE existing area services for the poor and to initiate long-range planning of the future service structure.

5. To capitalize on the advantages of the consortium relationship by sharing, through periodic meetings and other forms of communication between the

various staffs, successes, failures, ideas, and problems involved in the development of the proposed programs.

Launching of Project RITE

Project RITE officially began on July 1, 1971, and was funded through June, 1972. During this first year of operation, Project RITE has demonstrated a wide range and variety of social action accomplishments. For clarity, some examples of these accomplishments were categorized below using the acronym RITE (Reach, Involve, Teach, Evaluate):

Reach: Establishment of target group advisory committees, use of speakers' bureaus, use of college entertainment groups, development of directories of resources which describe services available to low-income groups, door-to-door contacts in low-income areas, indirect contacts through agencies serving the poor, and neighborhood meetings in low-income areas to discuss problems and possible response of the community college, radio and newspaper publicity.

Involve: Establishing of inter-agency councils made up of representatives of all community agencies serving low-income groups, obtaining use of facilities in community for use by low-income groups, family night activities in area churches which merge social and

educational activities, obtaining baby-sitting services through cooperation with other agencies, sponsoring a "wives day on campus" to get mothers involved, sponsoring a day camp for low-income children which incorporated instruction for mothers on meal planning and preparation and other areas of home economics, establishing of a human resources council designed to bring together community leaders to focus on community problems in a systematic way, and meetings of community leaders to discuss the potential role of Project RITE.

Teach: Some of the programs offered through day camps, public forms, counseling and classes at the community college include: (1) Basic Foundations of Society, a course on social issues; (2) Fundamentals of Bookkeeping for the low-income family; and (3) A Senior Citizens Consumer Education Series, including home economics, shopping, and budgeting. Other offerings include: (4) Child Care to improve interfamily relationships; (5) Day Care Center to provide babysitting for low-income working mothers; (6) Senior Citizens Call Board, a center for reassurance and safety; (7) Typing, a course to improve basic typing skills; and (8) Housing Educational Programs for occupants of low-income public housing units.

Evaluate: Evaluation was a continuing and integral part of the project and was part of a long-range institutional program with each college. In the past six months of operation, to evaluate thoroughly existing area services for the poor and to initiate long-range planning of these future service structures was not feasible. A basis upon which evaluation could be made was needed first. Therefore, a more valuable approach during the first six months was to select and design a management technique that would serve as a basis for the evaluation of programs in each college service area. Through the use of a selected management technique, Management by Objectives, evaluation was made of each of the objectives that were written by each college project coordinator. The usefulness of Management by Objectives as a planning technique was analyzed.

Staffing of Project RITE

The following personnel were hired to work directly with the project at Michigan State University:

Personnel

Project Director: Dr. Gunder A. Myran, Associate Professor, Administration and Higher Education, and Associate Director, Kellogg Community Services Leadership Program at Michigan State University.

Associate Director: Mr. Dean MacLeod, Associate Director, Project RITE.

The following project coordinators were hired at each of the five community colleges to work directly with the project:

Mr. James Fent, Gogebic Community College
Mr. James Stange, Mid-Michigan Community College
Ms. Marilyn Cooper, Montcalm Community College
Ms. Yvonne Lawson, Southwestern Michigan College
Mr. Wayne Van House, West Shore Community College

The following administrators from each of the five community colleges devoted a portion of their time to the project:

Mr. Howard Bernson, Director of Community Services, Montcalm Community College
Mr. Wesley Muth, Director of Community Services, Southwestern Michigan College
Dr. Wally Hamrick, Dean of Students, West Shore Community College
Mr. Thomas Trousdell, Director of Governmental Projects, Gogebic Community College
Mr. Thomas Nyquist, Dean of Instruction and Special Project Director, Mid-Michigan Community College

In addition, the following personnel were involved:

Dr. Max R. Raines, Professor of Administration and Higher Education and Director, Kellogg Community Services Leadership Program, Michigan State University
Mr. Eugene W. Gillaspy, President, Mid-Michigan Community College
Dr. John Eaton, President, West Shore Community College
Dr. James Perry, President, Gogebic Community College
Dr. Russell Owen, President, Southwestern Michigan College
Dr. Clifford Bedore, President, Montcalm Community College

Other personnel were used depending on the need and the areas of expertise of those persons available.

The Purpose

This descriptive study was concerned with the planning processes of social action programs in five

rural-based community colleges in Michigan. The specific purposes of the study were: (1) to design, field-test and develop a planning model for implementing social action programs; (2) to examine the nature of involvement of administrators, teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens who participated in the planning, and (3) to explore the usefulness of Management by Objectives (MBO) as a planning technique for social action programs. Management by Objectives was viewed as a potential aid in assisting relatively unsophisticated personnel, who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training, in producing definitive outcomes. This study was completed during the six-month period, July 1, 1971, through December 31, 1971.

Planning Model

Through an indepth study of the planning literature, seven steps in the planning process were identified and served as a foundation for the designing of a planning model for this study. These steps appear in diagram form in Figure I.1. Each of these steps is defined in detail in Chapter II.

The opportunity to field-test this model emerged from the funding of Project RITE (Reach, Involve, Teach, Evaluate) in March, 1971. Similar to other social action programs, a primary objective of RITE was to discover ways to work with the rural poor in helping them to meet their

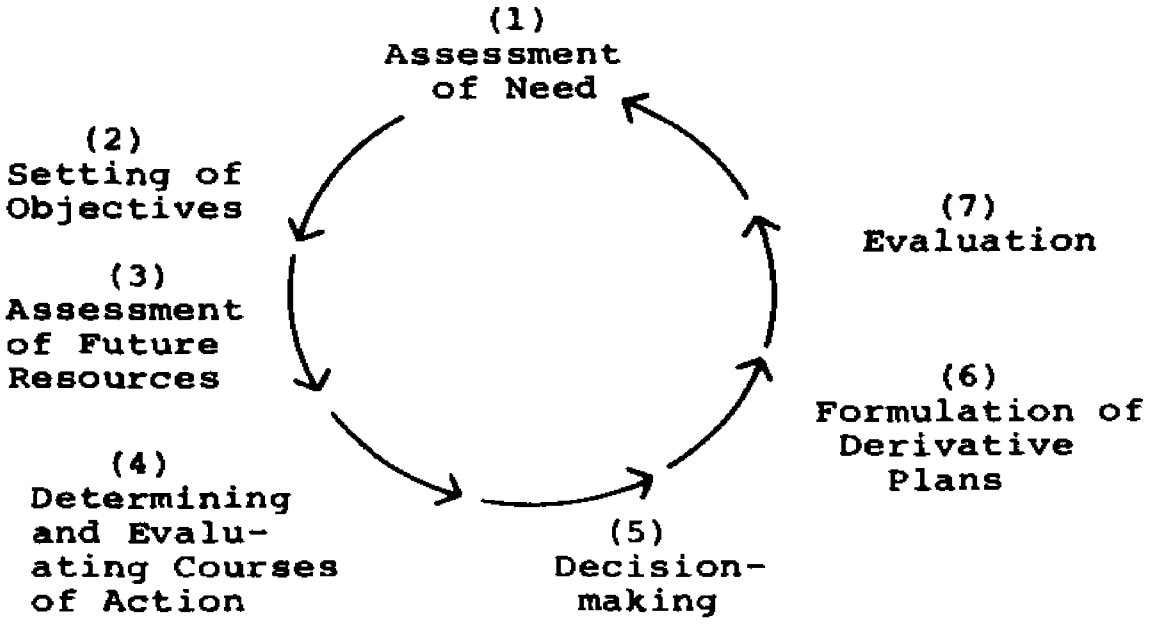

Figure I.1.--Planning Model.

many needs. It was believed that Project RITE was similar to other social action programs and would afford an excellent opportunity to field-test a planning model.

Nature of Involvement of Respondents

The planning steps identified in Figure I.1 were viewed as essential to an adequate planning process for social action programs of this type. Within the planning process were functionaries who, by the nature of their involvement in the planning steps had influence on planning. This portion of the study investigated the nature of the involvement of these functionaries.

Management by Objectives (MBO)

MBO was an integral part of the planning process as developed here. Objectives were defined and used as

guides for develo ing programs in each of the college community services social action programs. The general definition of Management by Objectives is "a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him and used these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of its members (3:55-56).

Based on this definition, each of the college's social action programs was designed using the Management by Objectives' planning system. The Project RITE objectives (which appear in the Introduction of this chapter) served as the foundation upon which each of the consortium member's objectives was based.

The consortium members who set objectives were: (1) the director and the associate director of Project RITE, and (2) the project coordinators at each of the five community colleges who were hired to work directly with Project RITE.

Underlying Assumptions of the Study

1. A field-tested planning model will have implications for other social action programs of a similar nature.
2. The planning process is definable as well as sequential, and units within each planning step are

also definable and sequential. These units can be used in classifying behavior and subsequently in determining if there is a developmental sequence of behavior in implementing social action programs.

3. If the setting of objectives can facilitate program development, then these objectives will have implications for other social action programs.

Procedures

Briefly, the procedures used to investigate the areas were:

1. Informal meetings during the first six-month period with the community services directors and the project coordinators in each of the five community colleges to discuss the planning process of the project.

2. Formal meetings with the community services directors and the project coordinators in each of the five community colleges to set objectives. The associate director of Project RITE met with the project coordinators to jointly identify objectives and define each coordinator's primary area of responsibility. In the process of setting objectives, each part of the process was broken down into four areas: (a) Routine Objectives, (b) Problem-Solving Objectives, (c) Innovative Objectives, and (d) Personal Objectives. Objectives were continually revised and updated through

periodic meetings with the associate director and the project coordinators. Objectives were evaluated to assess the usefulness of Management by Objectives as a planning technique.

3. Three workshops held at Michigan State University with the community services directors and the project coordinators.

4. A series of structured interviews with the presidents, community services directors, project coordinators, teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens at each of the five community colleges.

5. A formal interview with a Management by Objectives expert.

6. A formal meeting with model cities planning experts.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited in the following ways:

1. The source of information was limited to five rural-based community colleges in Michigan. Thus, the generalizability of this study was limited to colleges of similar nature.

2. The sample was limited by a non-random and potentially biased selection of respondents. The respondents were selected by the project coordinators at each college.

3. The reporting of activities was the stated perceptions of the people interviewed. No attempt was made to verify their perceptions.

4. The project coordinator helped to set the objectives for Project RITE; they also evaluated their own objectives.

5. The writer was the associate director of Project RITE. There may have been a desire on the part of respondents to please the writer. This desire to please the associate director could have predisposed their responses.

6. It was not the primary purpose of this study to compare colleges. Differences among the respondents in each college were not considered to be significant.

Definitions

Planning: An intellectual, rational, decision-making process of setting objectives, goals and policies for future commitment, including risk-taking, some creativity and innovation for the purpose of achieving agreed-upon objectives.

Planning Process: The systematic process of making future decisions in order to achieve the goals of an educational program.

Comprehensive Planning: Planning where all facets of an activity are considered and integrated over time (short- or long-range planning).

Short-Range Planning: The method of identifying and selecting objectives, usually for a period of two years.

Long-Range Planning: The method of identifying and selecting objectives, usually for a period of more than two years, but generally not more than five years.

Goals: Broad statements of purpose. Goals are often ideal and include value judgments.

Objectives: Specific purposes stated in operational terms which can be behaviorally translated into action and evaluation.

Project Coordinator: A unique position in the community services division of a community college whose functions include coordination with the college administration and staff, community agencies, and citizens for the purpose of having a positive impact on the rural poor in a representative service area.

Community Services: The action programs of the community college, undertaken independently or in cooperation with other community groups and agencies, which direct the educational resources of the college toward serving individual, group, and community needs (32:15).

Management by Objectives: A process whereby the superior and the subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of its members (52:55-56).

Social Action Program: Social action program for the purpose of this study is defined as:

(1) a program involving minority people, the poor, the unemployed or the underemployed;

(2) a planned innovation, not a change that occurred naturally;

(3) a program with goals which include producing observable behavioral changes in skills or attitudes or values;

(4) a program having an impact on the community, involving at least 100 persons or more on a voluntary basis in the community college; and

(5) a program judged successful by the practitioner (14:10).

Primary Involvement: A respondent reporting that he was an active participant in a planning step.

Secondary Involvement: A respondent reporting that he was a passive participant in a planning step.

Routine Objectives: A repetitive, commonplace but necessary goal to which an effort is directed.

Problem-Solving Objectives: A performance modification which leads to the correction of a discrepancy or deficiency in the level of current performance.

Innovative Objectives: A new approach which may lead to improved or expanded results.

Personal Objectives: An individual effort which leads toward improvement of professional or managerial skills and the enhancement of career growth (55).

Directive: An individual who is characterized as insisting on being the focus of authority and control.

Permissive: An individual who is characterized as permitting others to have options and who do not insist on being the focus of authority and control.

Respondents: All forty-seven individuals who were interviewed for the purposes of this study.

Administrative Respondents: The fifteen individuals interviewed who function in an administrative capacity at any one of the five community colleges in this study. These fifteen individuals include and were limited to five college presidents, five community service directors, and five project coordinators.

Related Respondents: The thirty-two individuals interviewed who do not function in an administrative capacity at any one of the five community colleges in this study. These thirty-two individuals include and were limited to thirteen teachers and students and nineteen agency personnel and citizens.

Organization of the Study

Chapter II was devoted to a review of literature, that includes publications and research studies relevant to this dissertation.

Chapter III describes the procedures used to prepare and conduct interviews.

Chapter IV analyzes the data related to the basic questions of the study.

Chapter V presents a summary of the study, conclusions, discussion of conclusions, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This study reviews the literature that relates to the areas of investigation in this study:

(1) the definition of planning, the planning process, and the development of steps in planning;

(2) management techniques;

(3) the involvement of respondents in planning.

Since there is very little done in social action programs in regard to planning, this review focuses on related studies in business and social action programs in community college, community services programs.

Definition of Planning

Planning can be defined in many ways. Planning varies from a spontaneous desire to accomplish some simple task to a highly integrated, specialized and regulated system of controls for the purpose of accomplishing specific or multiple objectives. Further, it may be as broad as a philosophy, i.e., an attitude, a way of life or a continuous

process which begins with objectives, defines strategies, policies, and detailed plans to achieve them.

Warren (10) states that planning is essentially "a process of preparing for the commitment of resources in the most economical fashion and, by preparing, or allowing this commitment to be made faster and less disruptively" (10:21). Drucker (41) defines planning as ". . . the continuous process of making present entrapreneurial (risk-taking) decisions systematically and with the best possible knowledge of their futurity, organizing systematically the efforts needed to carry out thes decisions, and measuring the results of these decisions against the expectations through organized, systematic feedback" (41:10).

Many agree that planning was futuristic and involved a decision-making process. Steiner (19) states ". . . planning deals with futurity not only in the sense of considering distant implications of current actions but also in providing the basis, the framework, or umbrella for making current decisions." Stated another way, "Fundamentally, all planning is concerned with the future . . . planning deals with the futurity of present decisions" (19:9).

Chamberlain (19) sees planning arise when dealing with a "stream of time." In addition, this "stream of time" involves dealing with commitments made over that time stream. Schaives (19:9) believes ". . . planning is thinking ahead about the consequences of your actions before you make them . . . planning deals with the future."

In education, Maxcy (2) cites what he considers to be a most concise definition by Anderson and Bowman (30:4) "that planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions for future action." Similarly, Novaick (19) views the decision-making aspect of planning as "the selection of alternatives from a wide array of possibilities," (19:11) and Goetz (3) states that planning is "fundamentally choosing" (3:2).

Broadly defined, "Planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and who is to do it . . . (4:71). LeBreton (7) states that there must be three characteristics: "First, it must involve the future. Second, it must involve action. Third, there is an element of personal or organizational identification or causation" (7:71). Stewart sees the definition of planning as encompassing not only "actionable plans" but also the processes, timing, subject matter, and purpose of a function. Planning, too, covers a dimension of time (19:7).

Davis (15) points out the following elements as a definition of planning. He sees a plan as specifications of the factors, forces, effects and relationships that enter into the solution of a problem. Further, it is a basis for achievement of objectives, plus the evidence of management's thinking. Also, the planning function always involves a degree of futurity (15:43).

Additional definitions show planning broadly defined as "controlling the nature and direction of change" (8:136), and Hardwick and Landuyt (9) view planning as "gamemanship" or the employment of strategy in the pursuit of goals. Their view places value on creativity, innovation, and imaginative thought (9:188-89).

In education, Morphett and Ryan (42) define planning as follows:

> . . . a process of attempting to determine appropriate goals and objectives, obtaining and analyzing pertinent information that will bring into focus present and emerging problems and needs, and obtaining agreement on steps and procedures that are designed to meet those needs so the objectives can be attained (42:xiii).

And Sartor (6), in a related study of planning practices in student personnel, synthesizes a definition of planning for his study as follows:

> Planning is the preparing sets of decisions for guiding change and growth within the organization; it provides the basis for rational decision-making. It involves a commitment, it is futuristic, and must include activities which are both creative and innovative (6:31).

A definition of planning for this study would appear to include the following elements:

> Planning is an intellectual, rational, decision-making process of setting objectives, goals and policies for future commitment. It is purposeful action designed to anticipate change and growth. It includes risk-taking, some creativity and innovation for the purpose of achieving agreed-upon objectives.

Planning Process

Education Planning is a process that consists of a number of planning steps. Maxcy (2) defines this education planning process as "the future-oriented, decision-making procedure to achieve the goals of the education program" (2:7). Sartor (6) states it as, "A Process whereby future organizational needs, objectives, and courses of action have been systematically ascertained from identified alternatives, integrated and programmed" (6:22). Other definitional elements include the ability to work with people (17:58) and the ability for rational decision-making. The definition connotes a future and goal-oriented decision-making process whose purpose is to fulfill specified organizational objectives. Part and parcel of the process are specific steps that make up the planning process.

This literature review indicates a wide variety of planning steps. When detailed, planning steps may number as many as 14 steps or number as few as 4 steps. In addition, steps in planning may be connected with relatively large or small programs, but essentially the same steps may be followed in any thorough planning (4:94). This would hold true whether the planning process were business, industry (economic planning) education, or social action programs (21:1). For the purpose of this study the primary planning steps are presented.

Planning Steps

Step I: Recognition of Need

This step is considered to be the starting point in planning. Authors identify this step by various titles. Davis (1951) lists it as, "Recognition of the problem and determination of differences involved"; Friedman (1967) defines it as, "Surveying total program resources to discover where the main effort is required"; Koontz and O'Donnell (1964) state this step as, "Being aware of opportunity"; McFarland (1970) defines it as, "Evaluation of present conditions"; Hansen (1967): "Identification of problems"; and LeBreton and Henning (1961) see this as "Becoming aware of a possible need for formulating the plan." This step, states Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), includes a preliminary look at possible future opportunities and the ability to see them clearly and completely. It provides the opportunity to ascertain strengths and weaknesses and to set realistic objectives.

Step II: Setting of Objectives

The 2nd step in planning is to set objectives for the organization or program. Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), LeBreton and Henning (1961), Steiner (1963), Sartor (1970), Hueferer (1967), Raines and Myran (1970), et al., state this as an essential step in the planning process.

Objectives indicate what is to be done (4:94-99) (7:4), where the emphasis will be placed, what will provide the common direction by which the merits of alternative programs are weighed, and which conflicts between programs are resolved (11:18-20).

Step III: Assessment of Resources

Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), LeBreton and Henning (1961), Davis (1951), and McFarland (1970) identify this as an important step. Assessment of Resources includes forecasting and the use of available policies and plans. It looks at the future setting in which a plan takes place--the environment of plans. Assessment of Resources is an important part of planning education programs, particularly social action programs, where it is necessary to identify community resources and community needs (20:30).

Step IV: Determining and Evaluating Alternative Courses of Action

This step is a search for alternative plans, particularly those plans which are not readily apparent. Often an alternative plan proves to be the best. Davis (1951), Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), LeBreton and Henning (1961), Steiner (1963), Sartor (1970), Huefuer (1967), Hansen (1967), and Raines and Myran (1969) state this as an essential step in the planning process.

Once alternative plans have been identified, it is necessary to evaluate them (4:97). Evaluation of alternative plans weighs the various factors of the plans and evaluates them in view of goals. Steiner (1967), McFarland (1970), Hansen (1967), Steiner (1969), view evaluating courses of action as important, and it is included here as a part of determining alternative courses of action. At this point--when there are multiple factors --methodologies, research and computer use are often applied to help decision-making.

Step V: Decision-Making

It is at this point that a plan is adopted. This is the key decision-making step. Davis (1951), Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), Steiner (1963), Steiner (1969), Sartor (1970), Hansen (1967), Friedman (1967), et al., state this is a key step in the planning process.

Step VI: Formulating Derivative Plans

With the decision made, derivative plans must be constructed to support the basic plan (4:98-99) (7:4) (19:318-19) (6:42). It is at this point where consideration is given to hiring and training of additional personnel, the acquisition of facilities, scheduling, and advertising. Managers must plan here to make the basic plan a reality.

Step VII: Evaluation

While Steiner (1969) believes that an effective program needs "continuous surveillance" to assure that a plan's objectives are being carried out, he, like Koontz and O'Donnell (1964), sees evaluation as a part of management techniques. Evaluation is primarily a management tool; however, evaluation is considered a necessary step in planning. Robinson (6:46) and McAbec (6:46) regard evaluation as an important planning step.

Management Techniques

There are emerging management techniques which can be applied to education and to social action programs. These techniques help supply information and data needed for decision-making; in addition, they help analyze the relationship of the many variables that may have a bearing on the outcome of the decision process. These techniques include Operations Research (OR), Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS), Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT), Manpower Assessment, Systems Analysis, and Management by Objectives (MBO). Each of these is discussed in turn.

Operations Research (OR)

Operations Research is considered to be the most refined and extensive of the planning techniques. Started

in Great Britain and applied to radar problems, the technique was quickly adopted by various countries and used at governmental and industrial levels. The techniques associated with OR have much impact on business, industry, and more recently education. Its special characteristics include looking at all problems in a total perspective. Attention is given to identifying interactions between various sub-units of organizations as well as between the processes in the organization. Secondly, OR is conducted by a team of specialists. OR researchers believe that no one discipline contains the answers for a complex problem. Therefore, a variety of experts participate in defining problems and designing solutions. Thirdly, OR experts believe that systems cannot be controlled in their original environment. For this reason OR is represented through mathematical equations. To do this means simulating reality (the environment). Fourthly, as a part of the methodology, OR involves the implementation of results and, thus, OR researchers must work closely with the organization managers (27:273-74).

Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS)

Influenced by the Department of Defense, and as an offshoot of Operations Research, PPBS is being adopted in many state governments, and is beginning to be used in several school districts. President Johnson decided in

1965 to require governmental agencies to institute and use PPBS. Culbertson (27) points out PPBS's growing use not only in state planning, but also shows that new organizations are being created to encourage planning techniques for state governments. PPBS, when implemented properly, is designed to help top management with decisions. PPBS provides for more concrete and specific data, for concrete objectives, for systematically analyzed objectives and programs for review, and for thoroughly evaluated costs of programs. PPBS indicates total rather than partial cost estimates, presents prospective costs and accomplishments of programs, and reviews objectives, and program analysis on a year-round basis (27:275-76). Hartley (37) discusses some of the limitations of PPBS. He notes that there are many articles written on the subject that discuss implementation of the program but these articles lack critical appraisal. There is confusion over terminology, problems in adopting models, measurement of the unmeasurable, shortage of trained personnel, and resistance to planned change. These criticisms were some of the limitations cited. Culbertson (27) warns that PPBS emphasizes:

> . . . precise measures of output. There is a tendency for planners . . . to be influenced more by economic measures simply because other measures of values (e.g., human dignity) are extremely difficult to achieve (27:279).

Program Evaluation and Review Techniques (PERT)

Koontz and O'Donnell (4) describe PERT as developed by the Special Projects Office of the United States Navy. It was formally applied to the planning and control of the Polaris Weapon System and helped to expedite that program. PERT is well-received by the armed services and adopted by major contractors and subcontractors in armament and space programs (4:682-83). PERT is gaining popularity in private industry. McFarland (8) states that PERT involves identifying all key activities in a project, devision the sequence of activities and arranging a flow diagram, and assigning duration times for the performance of each phase of work. PERT uses time as a common denominator to reflect three basics in work projects: (1) time; (2) use of resources; and (3) performance specifications (8:278). PERT is a systems approach and is designed to involve all members in the planning process.

Koontz and O'Donnell (4) point out the strengths and weaknesses of PERT. PERT's advantages include forcing managers to plan since it is difficult to make a time-event analysis without planning; forcing planning all down the line, since each manager must be responsible for planning his own event; concentrating attention on critical elements that may need correction; making possible a kind of forward-looking control--a delay will

affect succeeding events; PERT's network system with its subsystems makes possible aiming of reports and pressure for action at the right spot and level in the organization structure at the right time (4:684-85).

PERT is not useful, due to the importance of time, when a program is nebulous; it is not practical for routine planning of recurring events; and its major disadvantage is its emphasis on time and not cost. Often time and cost have a close relationship. That is, the PERT network had to be complete enough to reflect cost; and in a complex project there are often too many variables to find a way to indicate cost.

PERT is no final answer. While PERT helped managerial effectiveness, it could not do the planning. It merely helped to force it.

Manpower Assessment

Culbertson (27) notes that one management technique is to do educational planning based upon Manpower requirements. Generally, economists and some recent educators with training as economists use this method. Many nations--Greece, Italy, Portugal, etc.,--use this approach. Conducted in cooperation with various countries, the Manpower effort is to force "the future occupational structure of the economy, and to plan the

educational systems so as to provide the requisite numbers of personnel with the qualifications which that structure demands" (27:277). Parnes (33) sees the relationship of Manpower assessment to education as involving an estimation of the required additions to the labor force during the planning period and deciding for each occupational category what the educational qualifications are. Once the need is known, it is possible to calculate enrollment, teacher requirements, and educational plant and equipment (33:55). Anderson and Bowman (30), however, warn of its limitations. Some limitations include the basic question: "Is manpower production the most important function of the education system?" Other concerns include: while medicine is often used as an example of forecasting, medicine requires a long training period. Long training periods are not necessarily typical. The demand for doctors is generally unaffected by changing production technologies. Another criticism is that few manpower planners actually claim a high degree of accuracy in their forecasts (30:22-23). Culbertson (27) warns that education planning, based on manpower requirements, would see education as a means of attaining economic and social goals. He states that "The full development of the unique talents of individuals . . . would be considered only incidentally" (27:280). Culbertson is not convinced that economic and social goals should form the basis of educational decision-making.

Systems Analysis

Systems Analysis is increasingly becoming adopted by education. Maxcy (2) points out that "systems analysis is a tool for the educational planner or the school administrator allowing him to view parts of his school system as they relate to the total operation of the educational program" (2:27). Systems Analysis can make a significant contribution to education, particularly school boards, superintendents and the school staffs as they attempt to deal with the many complex interrelationships of their organization.

Johnson and Miller (38), borrowing from other authorities, discuss several definitions of Systems Analysis. In one, they define it as "a set of elements organized to satisfy a definable user requirement." In another they define it as ". . . the structure or organization of an orderly whole, clearly showing the interrelationship of the parts to each other and to the whole itself." They conclude that several generally agreed upon definitions include the concepts of structure, whole, the relationship of parts to each other, and parts to a whole; that is, ". . . that encompasses the simultaneous consideration of all elements necessary to maintain system integrity" (38:207-8). They add that Systems Analysis is conceptually simple. It attempts to adopt science to the field of the social sciences.

The focus of the systems concept is model building. The idea of Systems Analysis is to derive precision in structure and terminology and force the manager toward clearer understanding of problems. A model is built to simulate the "real" thing, although at times this is difficult, perhaps impossible.

Bush (39) lists four essential stages in the systems approach: (1) identification of needs and requirements, (2) ideation of systems concepts, (3) evaluation of a system feasibility, and (4) definition of a baseline or model system. In the first step, an inventory of needed educational requirements is conducted, relative to present and future. Secondly, a series of systems concepts are postulated, compared with one another, and a determination is made to see if there is appropriate technological capacity to affect their development. Thirdly, in this step, definition and specifications in quantitative terms of all functions that this system must perform are made. It is a period of intelligence gathering and organizing. Fourthly, when step three is completed, specific concepts are isolated. Those that seem more promising and appropriate can be subject to testing and simulation to decide whether or not to implement them. At this point there is a selection of a model system (39:226-30).

Pfeiffer (23) divides the systems approach into the following general elements: (1) design for action,

(2) seeking alternatives, and (3) evaluation. First, this step is identifying what it is to be done (defining objectives) in operational terms, and criteria are selected to measure how well the objectives are being met. Secondly, this step is identifying different methods for meeting each objective, and this step is an active, creative phase where alternatives are combined in different ways for a possible plan. Thirdly, this step is where evaluation is done in qualitative and quantitative terms. This step is a continuing and repetitive process (23:4-6). Again a key element in systems analysis is continual refinement of the model and the testing of how far the model is off from reality. The model must be readjusted continually as new and relevant data effects its validity. Although as Bush (39) points out, ". . . it is somewhat disheartening to note that rarely, if ever, does one find two or more authors who will agree either on terminology or on technique" (39:225), the general application (procedures) of Systems Analysis is similar (cf., Johnson and Miller (38), Bush (39), Pfeiffer (23).

The systems approach has not proven to be a cure-all for education. There are limitations. Johnson and Miller (38), while believing that systems can be important to education, note that ". . . chemistry had its period of alchemy" (38:207) and medicine had its era of witch doctors. They agree with Culbertson (27) that in the

present systems approach there are problems with the handling of information. Many decisions have to be made by individuals responding to values to which precise terms cannot be applied and for which there is no accurate information (38:207). Perhaps the greatest criticism has to do with the fact that most of the system approaches in education have ignored the full development of the talents of each individual. The information system has not been devised to handle these variables.

Limitations to Systems Approach: Systems Analysis, PERT, PPBS, Manpower Assessment

General limitations to the systems approach, which includes PERT, PPBS, and Manpower, include:

> (1) These techniques cannot make decisions nor can they make judgments on the part of decision-makers . . . the decision-makers . . . will need to be responsive to values not encompassed by the planning technique;
> (2) . . . since the various techniques in value highly rational procedures efficiency may tend to be the values which is more forceful in shaping choices . . .
> (3) . . . the techniques to be employed require specific measures of output. In education, it is well-known that we are only beginning to note progress in achieving precise output measures . . . it is not easy to define education goals with sufficient precision to make accurate measurements of output possible . . .
> (4) . . . the new planning techniques represent a special way of thinking and a vigorous approach to problem solving. The techniques have their roots in such disciplines as economics and mathematics . . . they should not be viewed as simplistic procedures which will produce incontestable conclusions. Rather, they require a highly disciplined way of thinking and the courage to examine assumptions and to respect empirical data.

(5) . . . education based on the manpower requirements emphasizes the instrumental aspects of education . . . the full development of the unique talents of individuals . . . would be considered only incidentally . . . fundamental educational goals . . . could be neglected . . . (27:279-80)

Management by Objectives (MBO)

Odiorne (52) states that Management by Objectives (MBO) is not a complex system. The idea of MBO is to simplify and add meaning to masses of information. He cites as evidence for this all the jargon from the many techniques, e.g., operations research, PERT, PPBS, etc. It is difficult to make sense out of all this material without a system that classifies and shows input and output effects of these terms. A first requirement of MBO is that it simplify.

Moore (53) describes MBO ". . . as a managerial method whereby the superior and the subordinate managers in an organization identify major areas of responsibility in which the man will work, set some standards for good--or bad--performance and the measurement of results against those standards" (53:1). Odiorne (52) defines MBO ". . . as a process whereby the superior and the subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members" (52:55-56).

MBO has as its objective the ". . . maximization of human wants, desires, and aspirations by formulating objectives, defining limitations, providing guidance, developing a scheme of activities, and supervising the performance of activities" (50:1). MBO also is geared toward the accomplishment of specific goals. The idea is to provide for the maintenance and orderly growth of an organization so that everyone involved knows what is expected and what is actually achieved. In this way, both the individual worker and the organization are successful. This is accomplished by giving responsible leaders in the organization specific assignments to be accomplished; their individual progress is dependent upon the way in which they carry out these responsibilities. Further, the ability and achievement of leaders, rather than just the leaders' charisma is stressed. More specifically, MBO provides the following rationale:

(1) a means of measuring the contribution of managerial and professional personnel;
(2) it enhances the possibility of obtaining coordinated effort and teamwork without eliminating personal risk-taking;
(3) it provides solutions to key problems of defining the major areas of responsibility for each person in the organization including joint or shared responsibility;
(4) its processes are geared to achieving the results desired, both for the organization as a whole and for the individual contributors;
(5) it eliminates the need for people to change their personalities and there is no need to evaluate personalities of individuals;

(6) it provides a means of determining each manager's span of control;
(7) it aids in employee evaluation;
(8) it offers an aid to questions of administrative salaries; and
(9) it aids in identifying potential for advancement (52:55).

Goal-setting is a major part of the MBO idea. A part of the goal-setting process includes: (1) statements from each of the workers of routine matter, (2) provisions for problem solving, (3) innovative and creative projects, and (4) personal growth and development goals (51:17). Then each of these goals (jobs) must be broken down into specific behavioral tasks and written into behavioral language. Each supervisor needs to be cognizant of routine work in order to evaluate and estimate all facets of the operation so that in deciding on work distribution, routine duties must be spelled out. These statements then help for orderly clustering of duties to allow for their effective performance.

Connellan (54) shows that it is necessary that the manager and his subordinate agree on what is expected in terms of goals. There should be a statement of conditions when a high level of performance has been attained. Developed jointly by the supervisor and incumbent the statement should meet the following criteria:

a. Fix accountability and responsibility in writing
b. Expected results should be attainable and expressed in terms of quantity, quality, timeliness, and cost

c. Cover only significant factors which really matter and are within the control of the incumbent
d. Enable measurement by the incumbent and by the supervisor
e. Establish priorities
f. Use continuously in communication of what is expected, what is being accomplished in terms of results, and how improvement can be attained (54:1).

MBO has been incorporated into the management of several community colleges. Connellan (54) in an article, "Management by Objectives in Community Colleges," points out that MBO has gained attention in business and industrial organizations, has been adopted by a number of insurance companies, utilities, banks, and more recently, hsopitals, churches, and schools. He points out that the traditional approach in community colleges has been the line item budget approach: inputs, activities, outputs. Yet seldom have goals been set at the beginning against which to measure success or failure. MBO adds this essential goal-setting step. This goal-setting is important due to the many misunderstandings (discovered by a number of matched interviews) between boss and subordinate. Through what Likert calls "linking pins" (from Dean to Department Head to Instructor, etc.), MBO provides the important link of translating organizational goals into specific objectives.

Community colleges have three needs--stability, self-correction and growth. MBO is able to provide

flexibility in the management of a community college by having a different type of objective for each organizational need. Its advantages, therefore, are several:

1. It reduces the amount of paper work necessary to maintain such a system by distilling the communication process.
2. It provides the administration with control over the factors necessary to maintain a stable organization . . . providing . . . freedom to work on creative ideas.
3. It takes into account the nature of different jobs with differing amounts of emphasis on maintaining organizational stability, providing for self-correction activities or initiating growth (54:1-17).

He urges further that community colleges should be able to find some of the same results by utilizing such a system.

One community college, William Rainey Harper, Chicago, has implemented the MBO System. Its President, Robert E. Lahti (55), reports the success of the MBO System, including its strengths and weaknesses. Of 37 administrators, department heads, etc., who reported how MBO affected their job, 14 said it helped them plan and keep on target; 10 said it helped them understand how their goals fit into the total institutional plan; and 5 felt it a frustrating experience, i.e., they couldn't quantify educational results. Eight others commented that it helps one manage others more effectively, provides for personal development, promotes problem-solving atmosphere, and allows one to evaluate one's own progress.

Sixteen felt the strengths of MBO were measured by agreed upon objectives, 12 said it helps one keep on target; 7 said it brings about understanding of the relationship between goals set throughout the organization. Two other administrators stated that it exposes new theories of management and encourages independence. Seven stated its weaknesses as lack of authority to carry out objectives; 6 said it susceptible to being used positively; 6 others said that setting objectives is too time-consuming; and 5 believe that it tends to promote rigidity and narrowness in plans. Other weaknesses of MBO include (1) too industry-centered (can't quantify results in education); (2) if goals don't mesh in an organization, then bottlenecks result; (3) final objectives that are set have no relationship to the original objectives; (4) achievement of objectives shouldn't be the only measure of a job; (5) the atmosphere for setting objectives is too cold and impersonal; and (6) routine responsibilities are de-emphasized (55:1-3).

Summary of MBO

MBO is a simple planning technique. In a counseling-like relationship, the superior and the subordinate identify common goals of a program and agree on specific objectives to be accomplished by each person. These objectives are continually revised. At the end of the program, these objectives are used to assess the contribution of each member. In MBO

the employee's individuality is recognized, for personnel are evaluated on what they accomplish and not who they are. The employee is able to see his own progress and can be rewarded on the basis of that progress. A key word in MBO is accountability.

MBO has been tested successfully in several community colleges, including community services programs that offer social action programs. MBO is considered by community college administrators, community services personnel, and, more recently, by social action personnel, to be an important and effective innovative management technique. It was selected, therefore, as the management technique for Project RITE.

Involvement of Respondents in Planning

A model for planning was designed for social action programs. This model will be tested through Project RITE. The field test of the planning model is to include interviews with college and community respondents. These respondents are in a position to appraise and influence the effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of the planning process since many respondents are involved with the planning of programs through Project RITE. This section, therefore, reviews the literature in two ways: (1) the importance of the involvement of respondents in planning, and (2) the reasons for the selection of specific respondents for the field interviews.

If planning is to be effective, then all who are to be influenced by the plan must be involved with that plan. Maxcy (2) points out that those responsible for executing comprehensive plans should be given responsibilities for the proposing of the plans. He indicates that participatory planning involving those affected by the planning has a number of benefits. Such involvement reduces the ambiguity of directions and dysfunctional policies as well as the alienation, apathy, dislike, and ambivalent feelings that result from noninvolvement in the development of programs. Included in the planning process are those who would be involved in the decision (2:23-24).

In a related field, Sartor (6) who has looked extensively at the planning literature for student personnel, arrived at a similar conclusion.

Since:

a. the ability of the individual leader to handle complex situations and to recognize all alternatives open to him is naturally "bounded" by his environment and experiences;

b. the level of direct control the leader in student personnel can effectively exert over those affected by his decisions is limited;

c. the leader's decisions are effective to the extent they take with those affected by them; and

d. significant involvement in the decision-making process has an educative effect,

effective planning and the rationality of the decisions made are increased when those affected by the plans are involved. (cf. Getzels, 1958; March and Simon, 1958; Hollander, 1964; Greggs, 1957; Kelley and Thibaut, 1954)

Selection of Respondents

Community College President

The community college president is in a key position and as such can determine if a program will be initiated, and the extent, direction, and/or implementation of programs related to that college. Consequently, he is involved in the planning process of the community services programs. It is clear that the president has duties that range from that of the center of authority on the campus to a leading figure in the community. He is the key college leader.

How he uses his authority is crucial. He may provide for an open or closed channel of communication and innovation, which directly effects the type and amount of planning and innovation. Further, it is clear that persons both on and off the campus will follow his leadership (or lack of it).

Bernthal (65) points out that in modern, task-oriented systems, the president can't be all things such as decision-maker, director and controllor, problem-solver, and inspirational leader. Rather, the president's task includes realistically assessing environmental forces or constraints, articulating the organization's mission, vying for and securing resources for the functions of the organization, providing internal coordination, communication, conflict resolution, and representing the organization to its constituency. His leadership style is characterized as neither authoritarian nor democratic, but as flexible and adaptive. He must correctly assess the forces in himself, in the organization, and in the larger environment; he must then respond appropriately to these factors in each situation. He is neither a strong nor a weak administrator, but an integral part of a complex social system, in which his primary mission is to integrate productively both human and non-human resources into an organization working toward a common goal.

In addition, Shuford (66) feels the administrator must clarify the beliefs that direct his decisions, consider alternate beliefs and their possible effects on his decisions, and unify his total belief structure by considering the effects of his behavior. His position must be clear to faculty and students so that all may agree on

goals. A modern administrator, more facilitator than authoritarian, must follow the advice of his staff and constituency in setting up democratic, jointly-developed policies, rules, and procedures. Their combined influence will help the institution find its own identity, decide its role in the total educational effort, choose the quality and variety of its programs, and determine the activities to be augmented, curtailed, or discarded. It will, thus, decide its own direction, free from external constraints. A sound management information system will permit better long-range planning, avoid most emergencies, and allow regular review for instructional improvement. Faculty, students, and administrators must all agree on the planning process and purpose, professionally recognized and encouraged, to soften resistance to the drastic changes that will follow. If the junior college is to help man fashion a creative environment, all must be involved in making the learning process successful.

Community Services Director

Like the college president, the community services director is in a leader role and he is in the focus for all planning activities in community services. Around him evolves the success or failure of program ideas.

In a national study Harlacher (57), who has as his purpose to identify objectives of community services programs, lists critical incidents that are effective or

ineffective in achieving these objectives. He determines the critical requirements for effective programs of community services. He discovered, through a check list of critical requirements, that three critical requirement categories correspond with the administrative process of planning and are the administrative tasks of the community services director. These three critical requirements included providing effective planning and research, coordinating services with other community groups and tailoring services to specific needs and interests.

He explains that planning a community services program involves the selection of objectives and the formulation of policies and procedures. He recognizes that leadership plays an important role in planning through proper delegation and that planning does not function in a vacuum, i.e., planning involves other levels of organization. Planning is further viewed as an intellectual process, the conscious determination of a course of action and bases decisions on purposes, facts, and considered estimates. Planning and control of administration are inseparable (57:70). Evaluation also was an important critical requirement.

While Harlacher's study has importance in that it does indicate need, it says little about how planning is done. Within the space of a paragraph he "forces" together the following: critical responsibilities, the selection of objectives, leadership role, a definition of planning and the relationship between planning and control.

Yet, each is a subject for study. And while that is valuable to know, it tells little of how to go about the planning process. A point is made, however, that Harlacher recognizes the need for effective planning and community services directors need to be aware of where and how to focus their efforts. To re-emphasize the point, the key person in planning community services programs is the community services director. He is central to the planning process.

Project Coordinator

This position is the key position in Project RITE and the project coordinator represents a departure from traditional staffing patterns in the community college. In each community college, a project coordinator has been selected from the local community to serve as a project coordinator. This person was selected on his/her demonstrated sensitivity and expertise in working with these groups. The locus of operation of this person is the community, although he will necessarily spend some time within the college as well. Some responsibilities of the project coordinator are:

1. Contacts with low-income and working-class families, both indirectly through working with other agencies such as the local community action programs, and directly through such techniques as door-to-door visits, to inform them of available

programs, to assess their educational needs, to provide occupational and educational counseling, and to recruit students for pending educational activities in the area.

2. Development of educational activities for low-income and working-class families.

3. Facilitation of coordination between the community college and other community agencies, and between all community agencies.

4. Inform the community college of the educational needs of the clientele to be served, and work with the college staff in making curricular modifications.

5. Coordinate in-service training programs of the staff of the community college and of the community agencies.

6. The project coordinator is central to Project RITE. What he plans for the project, and then the way in which he organizes to carry out and evaluate those plans, is key to the success or failure of the project.

Teachers and Students

While there is little in the community services literature that discusses the involvement of the teachers

and students in planning, it is generally recognized that as a group both groups do have an influence on planning.

The teachers' recent trend toward collective bargaining and the increased teachers demands for wage, benefits, etc. attest to their influence on planning. While the literature does show that some of the college's teachers have almost total college control, other colleges report that their teacher organizations are still weak.

The implications for community services are several. First of all, strong teacher-controlled organizations can work against the ideals of the community services program. That is, when teachers demand payment for each minute of their time, it is often impossible to offer courses to the public. The courses become too expensive to offer to the public; therefore, the course cannot be offered. The public cannot afford to pay for the skills that they may need. It is particularly hard on the low-income person since his finances are limited. Secondly, a feeling of non-cooperation can develop between the teacher and community services personnel. If the teacher views the community services personnel as "just another administrator" who wants to take advantage of the teacher's time, then a dichotomy results between the teachers and the community services personnel. Community services programs are built on cooperation, and any program needs "live-wires," enthusiastic teachers who see

their responsibilities extending beyond the 8:00-5:00 day. Community services personnel need to be sensitive to the teacher's time and needs. Thirdly, if cooperation with teachers is established and if teachers are a part of the planning of social action programs, then teachers can feel a part of the total program. Mutual cooperation may result and planning improve.

Similar to the teachers' collective bargaining movement, the student campus revolts attest to the new student movement for recognition and control. While presently, report the journals, there is a move away from "control" through violence (as in Berkeley, Kent State, etc.), the remnants of the student movement remain. Many universities and colleges, and lately community college students, are pressing for increased representation on faculty councils, administrative councils, community advisory committees, and boards. Some believe that if these demands are not met, that there will be a return to the violence of the past few years. Then, it is believed, there will be a total revolution.

Literature shows that there <u>is</u> increased representation of students on these committees, and that their presence and inputs to the educational process--and directly to the planning process--is valuable and necessary. "If students are influenced by the plans that are to be made," states one director, "then they should be a

part of the group that will make the decisions." This involvement by students is particularly important since many of the students (many who are older than 25) not only attend the community college programs for additional education but are also a working member of the immediate community. "To separate the student at the college from his role as a citizen in the community is ludicrous," reports one community services director. Students need to be involved in planning that influences their lives.

Agencies and Advisory Groups

Shaw and Cummiskey (67) point out that community colleges should be prepared to share an increasing responsibility with local leaders in providing services to their communities. Such an attitude would help to elicit acceptance and support from the people in the district for the college and, in turn, more of the college's resources would be available to help in the solving of community problems. Agencies and advisory committees which are actively involved in the planning and decision-making processes, help to fulfill the need for two-way communication between the college and community. One study, focusing on community opinion, indicated that an association exists between informed individuals and a positive opinion toward the college. Closer college-community relations play an important role in making the college a true "community" college.

Citizens

It is felt that the effective program of community services is built upon a solid foundation of citizen participation. Citizens can participate in the planning, maintenance, and evaluation of the program, and the college, recognizing that it must be of the community, and not just in it, participates in community life (61:16).

Citizen participation enlists the efforts of groups, organizations, special committees, and citizens in the improvement of the educational programs of the college and the community as a whole. Communication can be established with units of government--county, city, village, township--as well as state and federal agencies and other community college districts, especially adjoining districts. At the same time, communication could be established with all industry, business, professional, service, and social organizations within the entire community college area. This communication would determine the needs, capabilities and desires of the citizens. In this way, college-citizen interaction is achieved.

Summary

This review presented an assessment of three areas: (1) the definition of planning, the planning process, and steps in planning; (2) management techniques; and (3) the involvement of respondents in planning

Based upon an in-depth review of the planning literature, the following statements can be made. These statements serve as a summary for Chapter II and they also serve as a basis for the direction that will be taken in Chapter III, Design of the Study. These statements are as follows:

I. While planning may be defined in many ways, and depending upon that which needs to be planned and for what purpose a plan is needed, there are basic planning elements that constitute a definition of planning. This definition is applicable to business, to education, and to social action program planning. [cf.: Warren (1964); Drucker (1958); Steiner (1969); Steiner (1963); Maxcy (1969); Anderson and Bowmen (1964); LeBreton and Henning (1961); Koontz and O'Donnell (1964); Davis (1951); McFarland (1970); Hardwick and Landuyt (1966); Morphett and Ryan (1967); Sartor (1970).]

II. Specific planning steps in the planning process for community services can be identified. If followed logically and purposefully, these steps contribute to successful planning of social action programs. [cf.: Davis (1951); Friedman (1967); Koontz and O'Donnell (1964); McFarland

(1970); LeBreton and Henning (1961); Steiner (1963); Hueferer (1967); Raines and Myran (1970).]

III. There are a variety of management techniques that are available for utilization. These techniques aid in planning and provide a basis for purpose and direction for planning and decision-making. While Systems Analysis and Management by Objectives are most often used for program development in education, Management by Objectives appears to be the most adaptable to developing a comprehensive, long-range and enduring social action program in the community college. [cf.: Culbertson (1967); Hartley (1969); Koontz and O'Donnell (1964); Parnes (1964); Maxcy (1969); Johnson and Miller (1969); Bush (1969); Pfeiffer (1968); Odiorne (1965); Moore (1971); Connellan (1971); Lahti (1971).]

IV. A plan must be comprehensive. Since any one individual cannot be aware of all factors that influence a plan nor the elements needed for decision-making, the effectiveness of planning and rationality of decision-making is increased when those who are directly influenced by a plan are involved as a part of the planning and

decision-making process. [cf.: Sartor (1970); Maxcy (1969); Myran (1970).2

V. Respondents influence the planning and decision-making process through position of responsibility, position of authority, and endorsement. [cf.: Mathew (1971); Sechler (1971); Heilbron (1970); Hartnett (1970); Collins (1969); Stokes (1959); Bernthal (1969); Shuford (1969); Raines (1969); Harlacher (1967).] As related to Project RITE, the following college respondents should be involved with the planning: college presidents, community services directors, project coordinators, selected teachers and students (Myran, 1972). In communities there are important related respondents in agencies and on advisory boards and committees consisting of lay persons who influence the planning and decision-making process. [cf.: Harlacher (1971); Shaw and Cummiskey (1970); Myran (1971); Sartor (1970).]

CHAPTER III

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The Sample

This study is descriptive in nature. The basis of the investigation is an in-depth analysis of community services social action programs in five rural-based Michigan community colleges. The sample was purposefully selected to include those in the consortium known as Project RITE. Those colleges in the consortium known as Project RITE include:

Gogebic Community College
Ironwood, Michigan

Mid-Michigan Community College
Harrison, Michigan

Montcalm Community College
Sidney, Michigan

Southwestern Community College
Dowagic, Michigan

West Shore Community College
Scottville, Michigan

Each college was visited. The duration of each visit was from one to two days, depending on the number of respondents to be interviewed. Those interviewed were:

Community College Presidents:

Dr. James Perry
Dr. Clifford Bedore
Dr. John Eaton
Dr. Russell Owen
Mr. Eugene Gillaspie

Community Services Directors:

Mr. Howard Bernson
Mr. Wesley Muth
Mr. Thomas Trousdell
Mr. Thomas Nyquist
Dr. Walley Hamrick

Project Coordinators:

Mr. James Fent
Mr. Wayne Van House
Mr. James Stange
Ms. Marilyn Cooper
Ms. Yvonne Lawson

Agency Personnel:

Mr. John Czubaj, Director, CAP
Ms. Dorothy Wilson, Counselor, Social Services
Mr. Hart, Director, Department of Social Services
Mr. Richard Bauman, Chairman, Human Resources Council
Mr. George Lupanoff, Director, Human Resources Council
Ms. Murray, Director, Department of Social Services
Ms. Pat Akihiro, County Health Nurse
Mr. John Ruggles, Director, CAP
Mr. Kenneth Dennis, Counselor
Mr. Kennedy Duncan, Director, CAP
Mr. Rudy Landretti, Area Representative
Mr. M. Walley Bennett, Director, Social Services
Mr. Lee Tugon, Director, CAP
Mr. Dean Raven, County Extension Agent

Citizens:

Judge Chuck Simon, Probate Court
Ms. Leila Cabana, President, Senior Citizens
Mr. Dean Raven, Chairman, Board of Trustees
Ms. Sandy Bloomsberg, Member, Human Resources Council
Rev. Nemee, Member, Human Resources Council

Teachers:

Mr. Hank Radtke, Apprenticeship Coordinator
Mr. Mike Parsons
Ms. Nancy Matulis
Ms. Potter, School Nurse
Ms. Eileen Olson
Mr. David Stenzel

Students:

Ms. Dorothy Wallace, Housewife--Student
Mr. Ron Arnett, Student
Ms. Dousey, Housewife--Student
Mr. Mike Wood, Student
Mr. Henry Atherton, Student
Ms. Joan Smandra, Housewife--Student
Ms. Eve Atkinson, Housewife--Student

Development of the Interview Guide

After a review of the literature, and after consulting with a doctoral committee member and professors in the College of Education, Michigan State University, an interview guide was developed to help obtain the data for this study.[1]

When the preliminary interview guide was prepared, it was carefully reviewed by a committee member and by the committee chairman. Five interns in the Kellogg Community Services Leadership Program, Michigan State University, many of whom are community services directors, met as a group, evaluated the guide, and made recommendations for change. Further criticisms were solicited regarding the interview guide from a community services director at Lake Michigan Community College and from a dean of student personnel at West Shore Community College (who wrote his dissertation in the area of community services).

Before the field interviews began, trial interviews were held with a member of the doctoral committee, a

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[1]See Appendices.

former president of a community college who is now a Professor of Education at Michigan State University, a graduate assistant in the Kellogg Community Services Leadership Program, a former community schools director, and a state department career-education administrator. As a result of these trial interviews, it was discovered that for the formal interview logical and sequential questions that still allowed for freedom to explore individual perceptions and insights held by respondents were most effective. All suggestions were considered, changes were made, and the final interview guide was developed.

The finalized guide included questions related to the three basic areas of investigation of this study (see Appendices).

Selection of Community Colleges

Community services is becoming a major thrust in community college programming. The rural community colleges named here, quite similarly to the general pattern of growth in the community colleges across the country, are beginning to focus on community services as a program area. Each of these rural-based colleges is in the beginning stages of developing a community services program. Montcalm and Southwestern have been initiating programs in the past two years; West Shore, Mid-Michigan, and Gogebic are presently initiating programs. Each of the five colleges in this sample was purposefully selected for its rural

location and its desire to serve the rural population within its representative county through social action programs.

Implementation of Management by Objectives (MBO)

A Project RITE workshop was held in August, 1971. At this workshop management techniques were discussed. A decision was reached to use MBO as the planning technique for the project.

MBO was implemented into Project RITE in two ways: (1) through three workshops held throughout the planning period, and (2) through periodic meetings with the directors of community services and the project coordinators. The first workshop in August, 1971 was used to decide on MBO as the management technique; the second workshop in October, 1971 was used to revise objectives; and the third workshop in February, 1972 was used to evaluate objectives. Period meetings were held throughout the planning process to set objectives. The associate director met with each of the five community services directors and project coordinators and agreed on objectives to be accomplished by each project coordinator. Objectives were classified under four areas: (1) Routine, (2) Problem-Solving, (3) Innovative, (4) Creative. These objectives, subject to periodic revisions, were to serve as a foundation for

the accomplishments of each project coordinator's social action program.

Data Gathering

The following procedures were used for the gathering of data:

1. Three workshops were held at Michigan State University with the project coordinators. These workshops focused on the setting of objectives and the planning process for Project RITE. During these workshops, objectives were selected, revised, and evaluated.

2. Periodic meetings were held with the directors of community services and the project coordinators to set objectives. These meetings focused on setting objectives with the project coordinators for Project RITE. Meetings were conducted at the community college campuses and at Michigan State University. Meetings were held approximately twice per month through the period July, 1971 through November, 1971.

3. A formal interview was held by the author with a Management by Objectives expert in December, 1971 to review project objectives.

4. A formal meeting was held by the author with planning experts from model cities in March, 1972, to review model building techniques.

Arrangements for Visits to Colleges

Formal arrangements were made to visit each campus on a scheduled basis. Each interview was conducted during the month of December by a one- or two-day visit to the college campuses.

To arrange for this visit, the first contact was made by telephone to the community services directors to familiarize them with the study and to schedule a formal interview.

The second contact with each college was made by letter. A letter was sent to the college president, community services director and the project coordinator. The letter contained: (a) a re-explanation of the purpose of the study, (b) a verification of the time and location for the formal interview, and (c) a copy of the interview guide. A final contact was made by telephone several days before the scheduled interview to ascertain location and time of the interview.

A final workshop was held at Michigan State University at the end of the data collection period, December 1971. The entire planning process of Project RITE was reviewed at this time.

Administration of the Interview

The interview followed formats of the interview guide so as to limit personal bias; yet an informal atmosphere was maintained to allow for exploration of individual perceptions and insights of respondents. All interviews were recorded in two ways: (1) notes were taken by the interviewer, and (2) each session was taped for further review and recording.

Organization of Data

The presentation and analysis of data is ordered by the areas of investigation to which this study is addressed: (1) the designing, field-testing and developing of a planning model for implementing social action programs; (2) the nature of involvement of administrators, teachers, students, agency personnel and citizens who participated in the planning; and (3) the evaluation of Management by Objectives as a management technique by a comparative analysis between five project coordinators' evaluations of objectives and by an expert's evaluation of the project coordinators' objectives.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the data from three basic areas of investigation: (1) the designing, field-testing, and developing of a planning model for implementing social action programs; (2) the nature of involvement of administrators, teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens who participated in the planning; and (3) to explore the usefulness of Management by Objectives (MBO) as a planning technique for social action programs. MBO was viewed as a positive aid in assisting relatively unsophisticated personnel, who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training, in producing definitive outcomes.

The respondents are not identified in the analysis of the data. Rather, the perceptions of all respondents are categorized for all colleges.

Planning Model

As explained in Chapter I, page 9, an attempt was made to design a planning model. An indepth study of the planning literature showed that seven steps in the

planning process could be identified. These seven steps constituted the planning and decision-making process of this social action program. The seven steps were: (1) Assessment of Needs, (2) Setting of Objectives, (3) Assessment of Resources, (4) Determining and Evaluating Alternative Courses of Action, (5) Decision-Making, (6) Formulating Derivative Plans, and (7) Evaluation.

Although the original model above provided a logical approach to planning and decision-making, the actual field-testing of this model revealed that the behavior of the respondents did not fit into the design of the seven steps in the original planning model. In an attempt to discover what "in-reality" the planning steps were, the data were re-analyzed. In addition, the project coordinators identified some of the activities in planning that they developed in the designing of their social action programs. An analysis was done to see how these activities might be a part of a planning step. A list of activities was collated, analyzed, and synthesized into five planning steps.

It should be strongly noted that in the design of the five planning steps, "intuitive judgments" were made about the meaning of the data as it related to the design of the planning model. "Intuitive judgments" were made through: (1) an analysis of what each respondent <u>said</u> he did at each planning step, and (2) an analysis of what each respondent <u>did</u> at each planning step. The intuitive

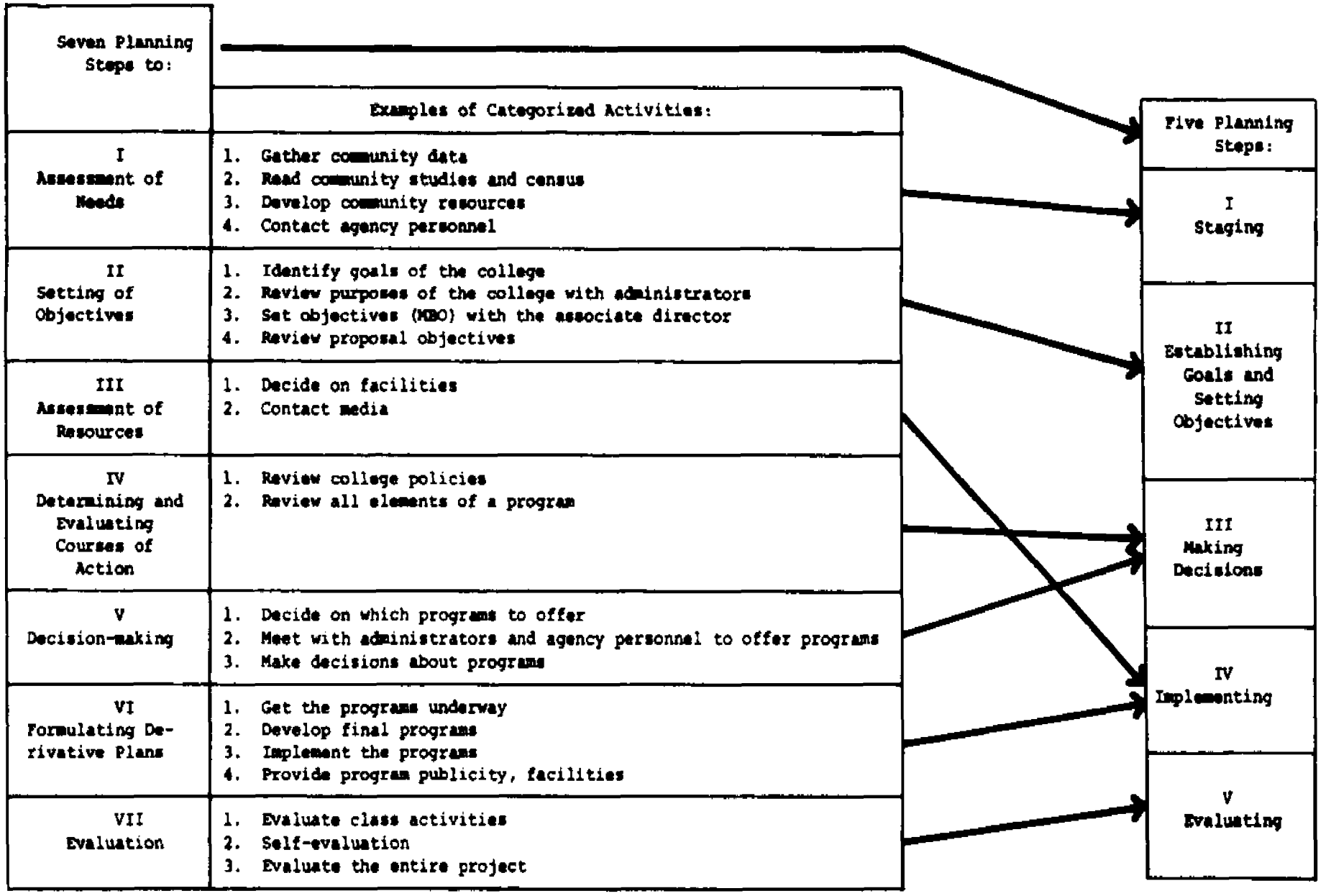

Figure IV.1--Changes for the Development of a New Planning Model.

judgments may have inadvertently left some gaps between the data and the final planning model.

For comparative purposes, the seven planning steps in the original planning model are identified in Figure IV.1. To the right of the seven steps are the examples of the activities identified by the project coordinators. To the right of the activities are the five planning steps that emerged from an analysis of this data. These five steps form the foundation of the new planning model. Figure IV.1 represents these basic changes in the design of the new planning model.

The titles of some of the planning steps were changed. In Step I, Assessment of Needs was renamed Staging; in Step II, Setting of Objectives was renamed Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives; in Step V, Decision-Making was renamed Making Decisions; in Step VI, Formulating Derivative Plans was renamed Implementing; and in Step VII, Evaluation was renamed Evaluating. These titles more clearly describe the activities that took place in these steps.

A categorization of activities showed that the activities in Step III, Assessment of Resources, were carried out in Step IV, Implementing, in the new planning model, and that the activities in Step IV, Determining and Evaluating Alternative Courses of Action were carried out in Step III, Making Decisions in the new planning model.

The revised model includes the following five steps which are presented in diagram form below:

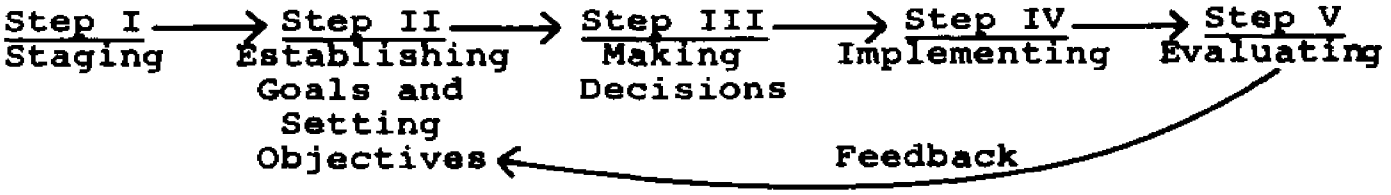

Figure IV.2.--Revised Model.

The data showed that these five steps represent the general planning process for this social action program. When followed purposefully, these steps appeared to provide the framework for logical and orderly planning and decision-making.

Each step in the model is listed below. It was discovered that under each of these steps, sub-steps were contained. A rationale is given for each sub-step. It is strongly noted that the five steps and sub-steps below are those steps that have been identified as a result of an investigation of this data. No assumption is made that these steps and sub-steps represent the planning process of other social action programs.

Step I: Staging

Sub-step A: Statement of the College's and Project's Purpose

Rationale: A statement of purpose or philosophy provides a foundation upon which a total program can be built. In this social action program, the objectives written for the Title I

grant provide this foundation. In addition, the social action program objectives need to complement the objectives of the college.

Sub-step B: Description of the College and the College Community

Rationale: The college must know its own characteristics before the college can begin to serve its community. In order for the college to serve the community, the college must be able to describe its community and community needs.

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Sub-step A: Statement of Broad Goals of Each Program for the Project

Rationale: These statements provide the foundation upon which specific programs within the total project can be built. These are generally broad statements of what the project wants to accomplish.

Sub-step B: Major Strengths of the College and the Community

Rationale: Once the strengths of the college and the community are identified, these strengths can become springboards from which programs that fulfill community needs can be launched.

Sub-step C: Major Weaknesses of the College and the Community

Rationale: Identifying the weaknesses of the college and the community is as important as identifying the strengths. Where possible, weaknesses can be turned into strengths through positive program action. Insurmountable weaknesses can be avoided.

Sub-step D: Statement of Concrete Objectives for Each Program in the Project

Rationale: These statements are commitments to accountability on the parts of each person in the project. While they may serve as a guide to decision-making and while they help to guide the project toward its goals, they are more than this. Objectives serve as a commitment on the part of personnel to produce results.

Step III: Making the Decision

Sub-step A: Tentative Program Determination

Rationale: This sub-step begins the final decision-making process. Here, close attention is given to each program and the programs that appear to best meet the objectives of the project are tentatively identified.

Sub-step B: Acceptance of Tentative Program Objectives from College Administrators and Appropriate Non-Administrators of the College

Rationale: Before a final decision is made about which programs are to be accepted, a final check is necessary to assure that the program objectives established are mutually agreed upon by college administrators and appropriate non-college administrators. Necessary revisions of objectives are made. Program determination is made.

Step IV: Implementing Programs

Sub-step A: Design Strategies to Achieve Goals

Rationale: At this point, specific action steps are taken to carry out the goals of the project. Personnel needs are determined; facilities need to be located and developed; supplementary services have to be secured; supplies and materials have to be ordered; and the media should be contacted for publicity of programs.

Step V: Evaluating

Sub-step A: Reviewing and Revising of Plans

Rationale: The reviewing and revising of plans was an on-going part of the planning process. If a change in plans was made, then that change had to be made. Flexibility was a necessary part of the program process.

Programs were periodically reviewed by the administrative staff in each service area.

Sub-step B: Consultant Use

Rationale: Only a few expert consultants were used for evaluation purposes. Costs were prohibitive in this social action program. However, use of consultants can be very beneficial during specific critical stages of a planning process. Periodic use of consultants helped to keep the project "on-target."

Introduction

Based upon the data gathered for this investigation, the foregoing discussion has attempted to provide the foundation upon which this social action program was constructed.

The discussion now turns to the nature of involvement of the respondents in each of the five steps of the planning process. Since the purpose of this study is to analyze the nature of their involvement and not the extent of their involvement, statements are kept general.

It is emphasized that the following planning steps are not mutually exclusive. Rather, these steps represent a logical and orderly process of the development of this social action program.

Table IV.1 shows the per cent of respondents who reported primary or secondary involvement in each of the planning steps.

TABLE IV.1

Per cent of Respondents' Primary and Secondary Involvement in Each Planning Step

Number of Respondents	Respondents	Staging I		Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives II		Making Decisions III		Implementing IV		Evaluating V		
		#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	
5	Presidents	3	60.0	2	40.0	2	40.0	1	20.0	0	N	Primary
	Presidents	2	40.0	3	60.0	3	60.0	4	80.0	4	100.0	Secondary
5	Community Services Directors	3	60.0	3	60.0	1	20.0	2	40.0	3	60.0	Primary
	Community Services Directors	2	40.0	2	40.0	4	80.0	3	60.0	2	40.0	Secondary
5	Project Coordinators	4	80.0	5	100.00	4	80.0	4	80.0	4	80.0	Primary
	Project Coordinators	1	20.0	0	N	1	20.0	1	20.0	1	20.0	Secondary
13	Teachers and Students	1	.76	3	2.3	2	1.5	1	.76	2	1.5	Primary
	Teachers and Students	12	99.24	10	97.7	11	98.5	12	99.24	11	98.5	Secondary
19	Agency Personnel and Citizens	6	31.6	7	36.7	0	N	2	10.5	2	10.5	Primary
	Agency Personnel and Citizens	13	68.4	12	63.3	19	100.0	17	89.5	17	89.5	Secondary
15	Total Administrative Respondents	10	66.6	10	66.6	7	46.6	7	46.6	7	46.6	
		5	33.3	5	33.3	8	63.4	8	63.4	8	63.4	
32	Total Related Respondents	7	21.8	10	31.2	2	6.2	3	8.3	4	12.5	
		25	78.2	22	68.8	30	93.8	29	91.7	28	87.5	
47												

N = No involvement.

Table IV.1 is used for the analysis of data. That is, the analysis of this data follows the general design of Table IV.1. In Section I, an analysis is made of the nature of involvement of each respondent group across (horizontally) each of the five steps in the planning process. In Section II, an analysis is done of the total involvement of administrative respondents and related respondents down (vertically) each of the five steps in the planning process.

SECTION I: Involvement of Respondents in the Planning Process

Presidents

Step I: Staging

Primary.--Most presidents' involvement appeared to be managerial. All five presidents were the institutional leaders. As leaders, most of the presidents took the responsibility of initiating the project into the college. To do this involved reviewing the college and project goals, "selling" the project idea to the trustees, and then delegating, where possible, the authority and/or the responsibilities of the project to other administrators.

In addition to the above involvement, the data showed a difference in the leadership styles among all five college presidents. Analysis revealed that presidents tended to be either directive or permissive. To represent this difference in leadership styles, Figure IV.3 was constructed. Figure IV.3 classifies those presidents who were more likely to be directive and those presidents who were

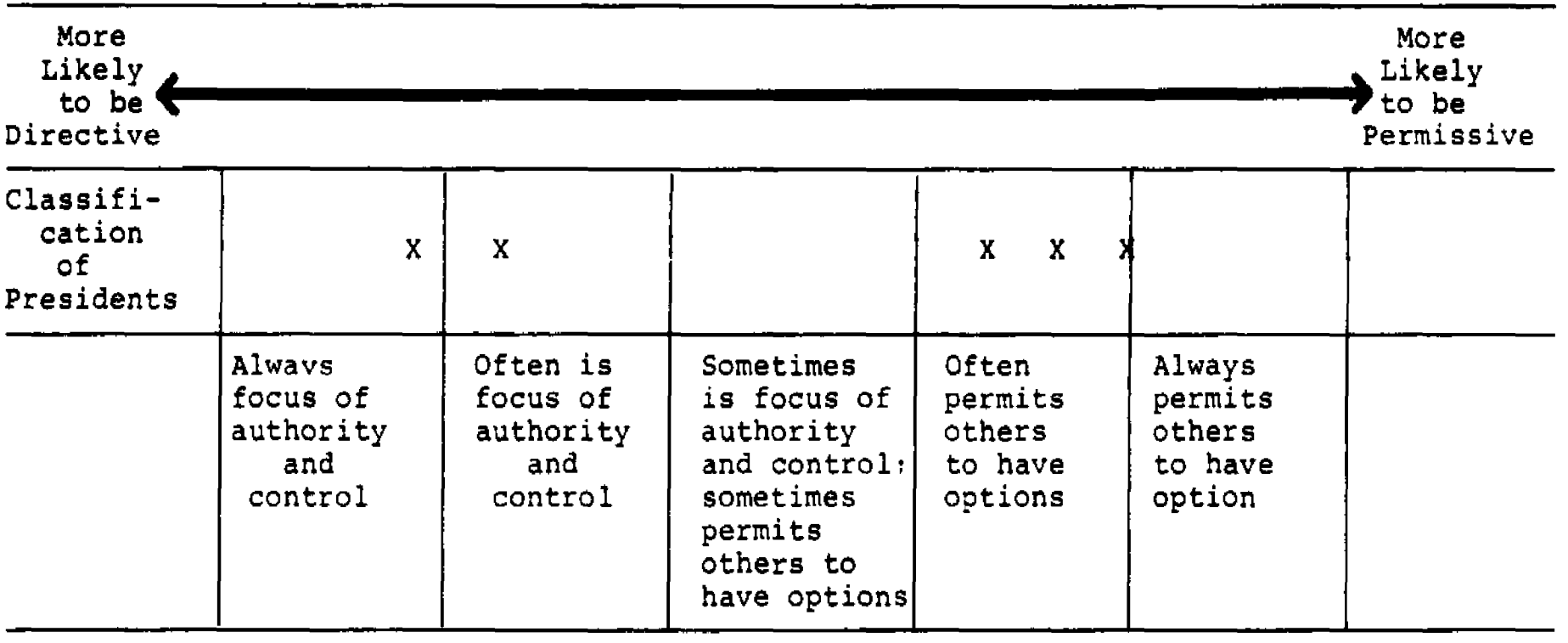

Figure IV.3.--Classifying of Five Presidents' Leadership Styles.

Key: X = President

more likely to be permissive. For the purposes of this analysis, "directive" refers to those individuals who are characterized as insisting on being the focus of authority and control. "Permissive" refers to those individuals who are characterized as permitting others to have options and who do not insist on being the focus of authority and control.

The purpose in Figure IV.3 is not to determine what is a good or bad leadership style nor to imply that there is a complete dichotomy between presidents who were identified as directive or permissive. Administrative styles were not always mutually exclusive. Rather, the purpose of Figure IV.3 and the following analysis is to show that there was a tendency of presidents in this study to be either directive or permissive in their leadership styles.

As shown in Figure IV.3, two presidents tended to be directive while three presidents tended to be permissive. One president's comment serves as a summary of this directive attitude:

> I am primarily responsible for what happens at this college. For the most part I want to be involved in decisions . . . generally I make most of the important decisions.

Directive presidents seemed to be highly ordered and concerned with "production." They tended to talk about producing credit courses that would generate monies for the college.

It seemed that directive presidents tended not to delegate much authority, they insisted on being informed

about all activities and tried to be aware of all that went on in the college.

Secondary.--Three presidents who felt their role was secondary appeared to have a more permissive leadership style. Their focus was not primarily oriented toward the accomplishment of tasks (output) as it was toward working toward inter-personal relationships. To an extent, they were counselor-presidents.

They seemed to differ from the directive presidents in that they focused on the person and process more than on the product; they seemed to view the college as a "happy family" rather than a "production line," and they appeared to have more awareness and sensitivity of the needs of the low-income person than did the directive presidents. The permissive presidents were more inclined to talk about non-credit courses that would benefit the low-income person rather than credit courses that would financially benefit the college.

Permissive presidents appeared relaxed, more passive than active, and concerned with individual growth. They appeared to risk delegating responsibility and authority more than directive presidents

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Primary.--The two presidents who seemed more directive appeared inclined to give a lower priority to the

project. While they insisted on reviewing the goals and objectives of the project with trustees and while they worked with the project coordinators in setting objectives, the project, per se, was worth only a limited amount of their time. While priority setting was necessary, the directive presidents appeared not to be convinced that the goals and objectives of the project had any real value beyond the additional money that it brought to the college. As an example, several comments appeared to miss the purpose of the project. Two typical comments were: " . . . we need to help those poor people to be better citizens," and " . . . there is no reason that poor people can't get a job if they really wanted to."

Secondary.--The three permissive presidents reported support for the social action programs' goals and objectives. To these presidents, the program had a higher priority. They tended to spend more time discussing the program in administrative staff meetings, "selling" and informing the trustees of the program, and working closely with the project coordinator and the community services director to assure that the objectives of the program would serve the needs of the college and the community.

The three permissive presidents did not appear to feel that the setting of objectives was important per se. They tended to react against the "formality" of the objectives. Considerable time, therefore, was spent by some presidents going step-by-step through each objective.

All five presidents in this study expressed some of the following concerns:

(1) difficulties with interpreting the goals and objectives of the project to the trustees;

(2) concern on the part of the trustees that the goals and objectives of the project were a duplication of other agencies;

(3) concern that the project personnel would have to associate with other social agencies that were then in disrepute;

(4) concern on the part of the administration that a statement of goals would limit their operations; and

(5) a tendency to believe that educational goals and objectives can't be written in performance terms.

Step III: Making Decisions

Primary.--Both directive presidents insisted on being involved in decision-making. Directive presidents wanted to review most of the programs related to the project and insisted that they be consulted before any major decisions were made. They insisted on being a part of the following kinds of decisions:

1. Programs that might cause community disunity (e.g., sensitivity training).

2. Programs where new personnel might be hired or fired or where additional costs might occur.

3. Programs that might create disunity or reaction from faculty members.

Secondary.--The three permissive presidents delegated much authority to the community services director or to the project coordinator. One permissive president commented: "The community services director and the project coordinator are the experts."

While the above comment was typical of permissive presidents, there was, however, a discrepancy among presidents who delegated authority to "the experts." In most cases the community services director and the project coordinator almost always sought the president's advice on major issues. The point is that while the three permissive presidents were delegating decision-making, final decisions were still referred back to them.

The difference between the directive and the permissive presidents in terms of decision-making seemed to be one of administrative style. The directive presidents would announce their authority and demand that their staff recognize their authority; the permissive presidents let their staffs feel that the staff was making decisions but "trained" them to seek the president's advice on important

issues. The outcomes were similar; the decision-making styles varied.

Step IV: Implementing

Primary.--Four presidents were not primarily involved in the implementation of programs. To a large degree, they delegated the authority for hiring, firing, or orienting new personnel to other administrators.

Secondary.--All five presidents seemed to be "overseers." They wanted to be kept informed of unusual demands on college facilities, budget, or personnel. As "overseers" all presidents tended to place the activities they considered important in different areas. While one was concerned about the use of facilities, another was concerned about costs. All five were concerned about the hiring or firing of personnel.

To some degree, presidents used the project for public relations. Two presidents visited the low-income classes and had pictures taken with some of the students as "proof" that the college was serving all of the community. Three presidents made positive statements about the project, and these statements were released to the community media.

Step V: Evaluating

Primary.--No presidents reported primary involvement with evaluation. In general, presidents felt that evaluation should be done by those directly involved with

the project. Therefore, presidents delegated evaluation to other administrators.

Secondary.--All presidents were secondarily involved with evaluation. They viewed evaluation as an ongoing process and considered evaluation an essential part of the project. One administrator's comment serves as a summary of this attitude: "I consider evaluation very important. I insist that my staff do periodic evaluation and keep me informed of the results." Few presidents, however, appeared to be aware of the extent or kind of evaluation that was being done.

Summary

Presidents had different administrative styles. These styles tended toward either directive (business-oriented) or permissive (counselor-oriented) while the president's functions appeared similar (e.g., reviewing the goals of the project with trustees, assigning and delegating authority), the president's modus operandi differed. The two directive presidents tended to place a priority on the project since it generated monies and public relations for the college; the three permissive presidents appeared to place higher priority on the project as a program that fills the needs of low-income persons. There was some tendency for directive presidents to view the objectives as "restrictive." These presidents would review the objectives thoroughly. While the permissive

presidents also seemed to be concerned about the objectives being too restrictive, rather than review the objectives, they appeared to ignore the objectives. Directive presidents appeared to focus decision-making on himself; permissive presidents seemed to focus decision-making on his administrative staff. Four presidents were not directly involved in the implementation of programs. All presidents seemed to be aware of the value of evaluation but none were directly involved in evaluation.

Community Services Directors

Step I: Staging

Primary.--Three community services directors reported that they, along with their presidents, were in a leadership role. This study showed a wide variety of leadership roles.

Different roles appeared to vary according to titles. While the title "community services director" is used for the purposes of this study, only two individuals in this study had the official title of community services director. Others had several titles. One was a "director of governmental projects" and another was a "dean of instruction." While all directors appeared to have a certain pattern of responsibility, several directors tended to spend a large amount of time seeking funds for the college. To a large degree, their job was the "life blood" for the continuation of the community services programs.

They kept the programs alive. One director commented: " . . . as long as I can keep monies coming into the college, we can continue our programs." To an extent, these directors were not directly involved in the development of project programs. Yet they appeared highly knowledgeable of the community. Often they were the ones to whom the presidents would turn to for information and to whom the project coordinators would turn to for ideas and direction.

One director seemed to be highly activity-oriented and directly involved with the project. Much of his involvement consisted of generating new programs. He seemed to spend a good deal of time making personal contacts with community agencies, attending meetings, and gathering ideas for new activities. He appeared to be highly energetic, activity- rather than outcome-oriented, and personal- rather than planning-oriented.

Another director appeared more management-directed. He tended to spend more time in his office, he tended to delegate more, and he tended to be planning- rather than activity-oriented. He appeared friendly, somewhat aloof, but competent.

All directors appeared to be the "legitimizers" of the project activities. That is, they often decided if a program should be offered, although many claimed they did not make final decisions. It was observed that all

directors had a degree of awareness and sensitivity of the college and community's needs.

Secondary.--A word that serves to describe the secondary involvement of all community services directors is "middlemen." They function as middlemen between administrators, faculty, staff, and between the college and the community. They interpret the policies and practices of the college and the community services programs. As middlemen the following generalizations are made regarding their involvement in this study:

1. They have an ability to deal with ambiguity.

2. They are risk-takers.

3. To a large degree, they have highly-developed communication skills. They often must establish personal contacts throughout the college district.

4. They are knowledgeable of the community. As leaders they are called upon to use their expertise in working with community needs.

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Primary.--Three directors appeared to favor the objective-setting process. It was recognized that without the support of the community services director, the objective-setting process could not work.

Secondary.--Two directors did not appear to strongly support the objective-setting process. As such, they did not work closely with the project coordinator.

In all cases there appeared to be a correlation between the degree of support and interest that the community services director gave to the project coordinator in the objective-setting process and the commitment that the project coordinator made to the objective-setting process. The objective-setting process is discussed further in Section III of this chapter.

Step III: Making Decisions

Primary.--One community services director stated that he was the primary decision-maker. While he did not insist that all decisions be made by him, he did want to be involved in major decisions. It appeared to the writer, however, that all directors were involved with making decisions, and whether stated or not, the directors strongly influenced the final source behind final decisions.

Secondary.--Four directors reported that they delegated decision-making to project coordinators. It should be noted, however, that most decisions were joint decisions involving the directors, the project coordinators, and sometimes the presidents. It is strongly suggested that even though the directors delegated decision-making, they strongly influenced the final

decision. Some of the underlying factors for delegating, however, seemed to include:

(1) a desire on the part of the directors not to appear authoritarian;

(2) a desire to alleviate some of their own work load;

(3) a general feeling of confidence in the decisions of the project coordinator;

(4) a belief that the priorities of the project were not as important as other priorities;

(5) a recognition that the president, rather than the community services director, would make the final decisions on important matters.

All directors insisted on being part of the decision-making process. Some only wanted to be notified of what was going to be due; other directors spent many hours discussing and debating final decisions. All believed that making decisions was difficult. As one director said, "You make one decision and you know somebody won't like it so you just take that chance!"

Step IV: Implementing

Primary.--All directors were involved to a degree in the administrative details of program implementation.

All considered this step difficult due to the many details.

Similar to the presidents, the directors involvement with personnel varied. One director felt the hiring and firing of personnel was his responsibility. He delegated orientation and training. Another delegated the entire personnel process to the project coordinator. The firing of personnel was stated to be a joint decision among presidents, community services directors, and project coordinators.

Secondary.--One director stated that when a program is implemented, "You have to be a communication expert." Three other directors expressed this same feeling. Much of their time and effort was spent informing others of what a new program is, contacting agencies to explain new programs, orienting new personnel, seeking administrative or trustee approval, and working with the project coordinator to help him carry out tasks. "Perhaps the most important skill of all," explained one director, "is the ability to explain clearly what the purpose of my programs or projects are."

Step V: Evaluating

Primary.--All directors considered evaluation highly important. Three directors shared evaluation responsibilities with the project coordinator. The kind of evaluation done was twofold: (1) evaluation of classes

(through the use of questionnaires), and (2) oral (informal) evaluation of the project coordinator's progress. While no extensive evaluation was evident, there was some tendency for those who had engaged in some evaluation to:

(1) have a better understanding of the needs of the low-income students; and

(2) know how and what changes should be made to meet the low-income students' needs.

Three directors felt that after the project coordinators had been evaluated, the coordinators had a clearer understanding of their role in the project.

Secondary.--All directors did some form of informal evaluation. The directors' involvement, however, was to delegate evaluation to the project coordinator. In those instances where evaluation was delegated, there was little evidence that evaluation was being done.

Summary

Community services directors have a primary leadership role. Their leadership roles varied. Two directors tended to be fund-raisers, one tended to be an activity-generator, two tended to be business managers. None of their roles were mutually exclusive. All directors seemed to be "middlemen," with the ability to deal with ambiguity, take risks, communicate well, and were knowledgeable of

their community. To a large degree, they were "legitimizers" of the project's programs.

Three supported the writing of objectives; two were not sure of the value of writing objectives. All wanted to be a part of decision-making, but did not say they made final decisions. There was some indication, however, that they strongly influence final decisions. All were involved in handling details for program implementation. All recognized the importance of communication with the community. All recognized the importance of evaluation, although little formal or informal evaluation was done.

Project Coordinators

Step I: Staging

Primary.--The project coordinator was the "community catalyst." This person was selected from the local service area and had demonstrated sensitivity and expertise in working with low-income groups. Three coordinators focuses his/her efforts on the community. The other two coordinators tended to spend a large extent of their time at the college attending to administrative details. All coordinators functioned as liaisons between the college and the community.

Their community involvement at this step varied. All recognized the importance of making direct contacts

with community persons, especially the low-income. Three coordinators were better prepared to do this than others. A difference in the backgrounds of the coordinators appeared to be an important variable. Three coordinators who were from low-income families themselves appeared not to have as much difficulty working directly with low-income groups as did the two coordinators who were from middle-class backgrounds.

All project coordinators placed a high value on personal contacts with agency personnel. One project coordinator summarized:

> Establishing personal contacts with social agencies was the most important thing I did. I mean personal contact. In my community people expect you to come and see them personally. . . .

Personal contacts generated new ideas, support for the project, and public relations for the college.

All project coordinators reported responsibility for surveying community needs. Their ability to do this survey varied. One project coordinator had extensive experience in survey work. This coordinator appeared to have a "feel" for what data was important. Another coordinator, with little community development background, had trouble identifying target areas to serve in the community. The amount and kinds of background experiences appeared to be an important variable.

Secondary.--Additional contacts were established at workshops, joining organizations, and speaking

engagements. In these ways, the project coordinators met key community persons.

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Comment: In the beginning of the project, general goals were established that served as guidelines for the project objectives. Objectives are analyzed in detail in Section III, Management by Objectives.

Step III: Making Decisions

Primary.--Four project coordinators considered themselves decision-makers for programs related to the project. The level of autonomy to make decisions varied. Three project coordinators appeared to have high autonomy; two had low autonomy.

The level of autonomy appeared to reflect the relationship that the project coordinator had with the president and the community services director. In colleges where the project coordinator had high autonomy these tendencies appeared:

1. Little contact with the president or the community services director for program approval unless an unusual program was to be offered.

2. Previous training or experience in administration work.

3. A close personal relationship and support from the president and the community services director.

4. The coordinator took responsibility for decision-making rather than waiting for it to be delegated.

In those colleges where the project coordinator appeared to have less autonomy, the following tendencies appeared:

1. Continual checking with the community services director by the project coordinator for approval of programs.

2. The project coordinators had less administrative training and administrative background.

3. The project coordinators had more of a working rather than a personal relationship with the community services director or the college president.

4. The project coordinators had more contact with advisory committees for program approval.

Secondary.--Coordinators who had high decision-making autonomy appeared to have a stronger concern for the impact of that decision on the college and the community than did those coordinators who had less decision-making autonomy.

Step IV: Implementing

Primary.--All project coordinators considered themselves implementors. They were the ones that made the "delivery system" function. In this sense, all project coordinators had to attend to the details of providing such services as facilities, transportation, and baby-sitting. One project coordinator's statement seems to sum up their involvement:

> I do the "leg work" for the community services director . . . like contacting agency people, teachers, custodial staff. . . . I also attend the first meeting or two of a new program just to see that all goes well.

Three project coordinators were involved with budget decisions and hiring of faculty. The three coordinators with high autonomy appeared to work more with both budget and personnel decisions; the two coordinators with low autonomy generally left budget and personnel decisions to the community services director or the president.

Secondary.--Two project coordinators reported establishing joint in-service training programs with agency personnel. Agency cooperation was reported to be highly desirable. The three project coordinators who began cooperative training programs early in the planning process appeared to have developed the following conditions, whereas the two who did not develop cooperative programs early in the planning process did not develop these conditions:

(1) better communication with agency personnel;

(2) an "acceptance" into the community as a viable socially concerned person; and

(3) more sophisticated programs that meet the needs of the community.

Step V: Evaluating

Comment: Both formal and informal evaluations were made by project coordinators. Formal evaluation was made of classes. This evaluation involved personal interviews and questionnaires distributed to the students. Informal evaluation was made of the project coordinators by discussions with teachers, some students, administrators, and agency personnel.

In those programs where class evaluations were done the project coordinators appeared to have a better understanding of the needs of the low-income students than when no evaluation was done. When the project coordinator himself was evaluated by others (an administrator), the project coordinator seemed to have a clearer understanding of his job. While the evidence suggests that evaluation had a positive effect on the planning process, the amount of evaluation done was limited.

Summary

Project coordinators function as "community catalysts." Their primary focus is on the development of

the community, although much effort is spent with administrative details. To a large degree, all project coordinators function as liaisons between the college and the community. All coordinators were involved in setting objectives for their own programs. All considered themselves decision-makers when it came to project-related programs. Decision-making varied with the amount of autonomy they had. All coordinators were program implementors; they made the "delivery system" function. All coordinators do the "leg work" necessary to implement programs, and they all are involved in some form of formal evaluation of the project's programs. All coordinators have had some informal evaluation done of their work. Evaluation appeared to be a positive element in the planning process; however, evaluation at present is limited.

Teachers and Students

Comment: Teacher and student involvement are analyzed jointly. Students had no primary involvement at any step. There was limited student involvement in Steps III and V. In Step III, two students sat on low-income advisory committees; in Step V some filled out class questionnaires.

It appeared that students were not contacted to be a part of the project until programs were decided. In this sense, the planning may have been in error. More

students could have been involved in the early stages of planning since they are the ones most directly affected by the planning.

Step I: Staging

Primary.--Faculty felt that they were an important function of the planning process for the project. Six faculty were involved as resource persons for the administration. These teachers lent their experiences to the development of educational programs of the project, and were involved in identifying the kinds of programs that could be offered in the project. Two of the six teachers were involved with the data gathering in the early stages of the planning process.

Attitudes among teachers about being involved in the planning process varied. One teacher commented about the project: "This is what our college community needed." Another teacher said, " . . . I have doubts about low-income students coming to campus . . . they won't be able to pass the courses." The point seemed to be that teacher attitudes about the project were crucial to positive program development and planning.

Secondary.--Two interested teachers attended community inter-agency council meetings, helped the administration with the planning of classes, and actively supported the project in the community.

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Comment: Teachers did not generally tend to become involved with setting goals or objectives for the project. However, three did set objectives with agency personnel in jointly-sponsored programs. An attempt appeared to be made to interface the objectives of the class with those of objectives of the agency and the project. It was strongly noted that those three teachers who set objectives had more positive feedback from students about the success of the teachers' classes than those teachers who did not set objectives.

Teachers who set objectives seemed to feel that setting objectives helped to give their teaching direction. These three teachers expressed a positive attitude about the objective-setting process.

Step III: Making Decisions

Comment: Five teachers reported no involvement in decision-making. Teachers tended to turn to the administration for decision-making related to the project. The administration generally made decisions about what would be taught and who would be taught.

One college, however, was an exception. This college had a powerful faculty organization. The faculty organization insisted on being kept informed of new programs, new personnel or changes in the curriculum.

Further, if programs were to be successful, the involvement of teacher organization in the decision-making process was imperative.

Step IV: Implementing

Comment: Three teachers had teaching experience and special training in working with low-income students. To a greater degree, these teachers seemed more aware of the needs of the low-income students and more sensitive to the low-income student than were teachers who had little or no background or training. The increased awareness and sensitivity on the part of the teachers who had previous experience implies the desirability of in-service training programs for teachers.

Step V: Evaluating

Comment: Few teachers did little formal evaluation of their classes. In those cases where teachers did conduct class evaluation, there appeared to be:

(1) concern on the part of the teachers for the progress of the low-income student;

(2) increased knowledge and understanding on the part of the teacher of the needs of the low-income student;

(3) a willingness on the part of the teachers to change teaching techniques to meet the needs of the low-income students.

Summary

Students were seldom involved in any phase of the planning process. Teachers were involved as resource persons in the planning of the project as well as in the planning of programs. Attitudes of teachers about their involvement in planning varied from strong support to concern. Teachers were not involved in setting objectives for the project; some teachers did set class objectives. Teachers who set objectives seemed to be more organized than did teachers who did not set objectives. Teachers seemed to look toward the administration for decisions related to the project. One notable exception was a college with a strong faculty organization. Previous experience or training appeared to help teachers to be more aware and sensitive to the needs of the low-income students. Few teachers did formal evaluation of their classes.

Agency Personnel and Citizens

Comment: In the rural communities in this study, many agency personnel and citizens work jointly in social action programs. For this reason, they are analyzed as one group.

Step I: Staging

Comment: Agency personnel and citizens' involvement was primarily helping to establish communication

lines with businesses and professional and social organizations within each college's service area. The establishing of communication links appeared to provide a valuable service to program planning and development. Communication links helped to provide for positive communication between community groups and the college by stimulating new ideas for project improvement, by identifying new data sources, by identifying new resources, and by serving as a support system for the project.

Agency personnel identified both formal and informal council structures. Informal councils had no by-laws, business agenda, or official chairman. Formal councils did have by-laws, business agendas and an elected chairman.

In general, the councils consisted of local college and agency personnel. One formal council, however, did not. This council included primarily businessmen, housewives, and doctors. Since it appeared that councils had an influence on the planning of this social action program, some observations were made of the persons who sit on these councils.

It appeared that councils consisting primarily of agency personnel were more capable of responding to planning than a council consisting primarily of general community citizens. Reasons for this observation include:

1. Agency personnel had the motivation to serve a common goal--community development. Since it was their job to serve the community, they had the motivation to accomplish tasks. On the other hand, general community citizens seemed to have a more narrow, self-motivated goal. At times, this goal included power or self-angrandizement.

2. Agency personnel had the available knowledge of the community and the skill and resources to accomplish tasks. Community citizens had to gain this knowledge plus depend on others (generally agency personnel) to accomplish tasks.

3. Community citizens often had full-time jobs. Since their job took the major portion of their time and energy, the amount of time and energy citizens could devote to community projects was limited.

4. As a result of background experience and training, agency personnel seemed to have more awareness and sensitivity to the needs of the community. Community citizens were in need of training to become more aware and sensitive to community needs. At the time of this study, few training programs for citizens had been offered.

Step II: Establishing Goals and Setting Objectives

Comment: Three agency personnel were involved in setting objectives with teachers in jointly-sponsored programs. Two agency personnel were hesitant to work with teachers. These agency personnel believed that the classroom was the teacher's domain.

In those cases where agency personnel did set objectives with teachers, the teachers did not appear possessive of their classrooms or believe that the agency personnel were interfering. Three teachers seemed to like the idea of setting objectives since, as one teacher commented, " . . . setting objectives helped to give me direction."

Step III: Making Decisions

Comment: Agency personnel and citizens had a minor role in decision-making. Agency personnel reported that only on limited occasions, unless a program was jointly sponsored, did the community services director or the project coordinator involve the agency personnel in decision-making.

An exception to this was one community services director who had a close working relationship with the director, Department of Social Services. At this college, the community services director and the director,

Department of Social Services often conferred about a new program before the program was offered to the community.

Step IV: Implementing

Comment: Agency personnel were generally not involved in program implementation. A notable exception was those agencies that had established a joint in-service training with the college. In-service training programs were designed because it was apparent that some teachers and agency personnel had difficulty relating to low-income persons. In those colleges where joint in-service training programs were offered, the following conditions seemed to exist:

(1) a positive working relationship between the college and agency personnel;

(2) an understanding of and empathy for each other's problems in developing social action programs;

(3) a mutual concern for serving the rural poor; and

(4) a willingness and desire to plan cooperatively.

The conditions above did not appear to exist to the same degree in colleges that had no joint in-service training programs.

Step V: Evaluating

Comment: As noted in Step V, Teachers, three agency personnel and teachers set joint objectives. In limited cases, agency personnel helped to evaluate the accomplishment of those objectives at the end of a class session.

The nature of that involvement included interviews with low-income students, and discussions with teachers of the progress that students had made. The results of the interviews and discussions were used to change courses to meet the needs of the students. The specific changes or the effects of these changes are not known.

Summary

Agency personnel and citizens helped the college to establish communication links throughout the community. It appeared that councils that consisted primarily of agency personnel tended to be more conducive to planning than did councils consisting primarily of community persons. Agency personnel had different opinions about working with teachers to set objectives. Agency personnel and citizen involvement were considered important in the staging phase of planning, but, in general, involvement in the other planning steps was limited.

SECTION II: Involvement of Administrative Respondents and Related Respondents in the Planning Process

Using Table IV.1 the foregoing section has been an analysis of each respondent group's involvement across (horizontally) each of the five planning steps. Using Table IV.1 the focus now shifts to an analysis of the total involvement of administrative respondents and the total involvement of related respondents down (vertically) each of the planning steps.

Since this analysis is of total involvement, no attempt to distinguish primary or secondary involvement is made. Further, there is no attempt to distinguish differences among colleges or individuals. Therefore, the comments made are kept general. Further, these comments are intended to serve as a summary of total involvement for administrative respondents and related respondents in all steps of the planning process.

The Planning Team

A general analysis of the respondents' involvement in the planning process shows the formation and development of a planning team in each service area. This planning team, consisting of relatively unsophisticated persons in planning techniques, included the associate director of Project RITE, administrators, agency personnel, faculty, students, and citizens. This team

represented areas of education, governmental agencies, business, law, and low-income citizens.

Although no service area team had identical responsibilities, the planning team's general functions appear to include the following: (1) defining the project's purposes, (2) identifying the college's purposes, (3) gathering information, (4) identifying the needs of each service area, (5) establishing goals and setting objectives for each program, (6) determining alternative modes for the goals and objectives identified, (7) reviewing the delimitations on the programs identified, (8) establishing the process by which the program objectives could be attained, (9) making decisions about which programs would be offered, (10) helping to implement programs, and (11) aiding with the evaluation of program offerings.

Concept of Involvement

In this study the concept of involvement was strongly realized. Involvement appeared to have different shades of meaning to different respondents.

Administrative Attitudes

Administrative attitudes about involving others in the planning process varied. One administrator commented that he is:

> . . . very careful who I select to be on any committee, if I have a committee at all. The more people involved in making a decision, the more difficult it is to get anything done. I don't generally form planning committees unless it is absolutely necessary. . . .

On the other hand, another administrator complained:

> There is little planning here. I suggested at one administrative meeting that we at least tell each other what our plans are so that we won't be duplicating efforts. We should also be thinking about what we want for the future of our college. This means planning; this means involving the community. . . . I got no response. . . .

Differences between these two administrator's attitudes about involving others in planning is apparent. Underlying this difference seems to be an attitude about the ability of other administrators or community persons to make positive decisions. That is, do other administrators or community citizens have the capacity and judgments to make positive decisions that will move the college and the project toward its goals? Implicit in the above question is whether or not a college or a project has goals and objectives and is, therefore, capable of communicating these goals to others.

Communication Links

Administrators expressed the belief that communication links both within the college and in the community were essential if planning was to be effective. Administrators had different methods of establishing communication linkages within their service areas. Although these

methods varied, the following simple diagram is representative of these linkages:

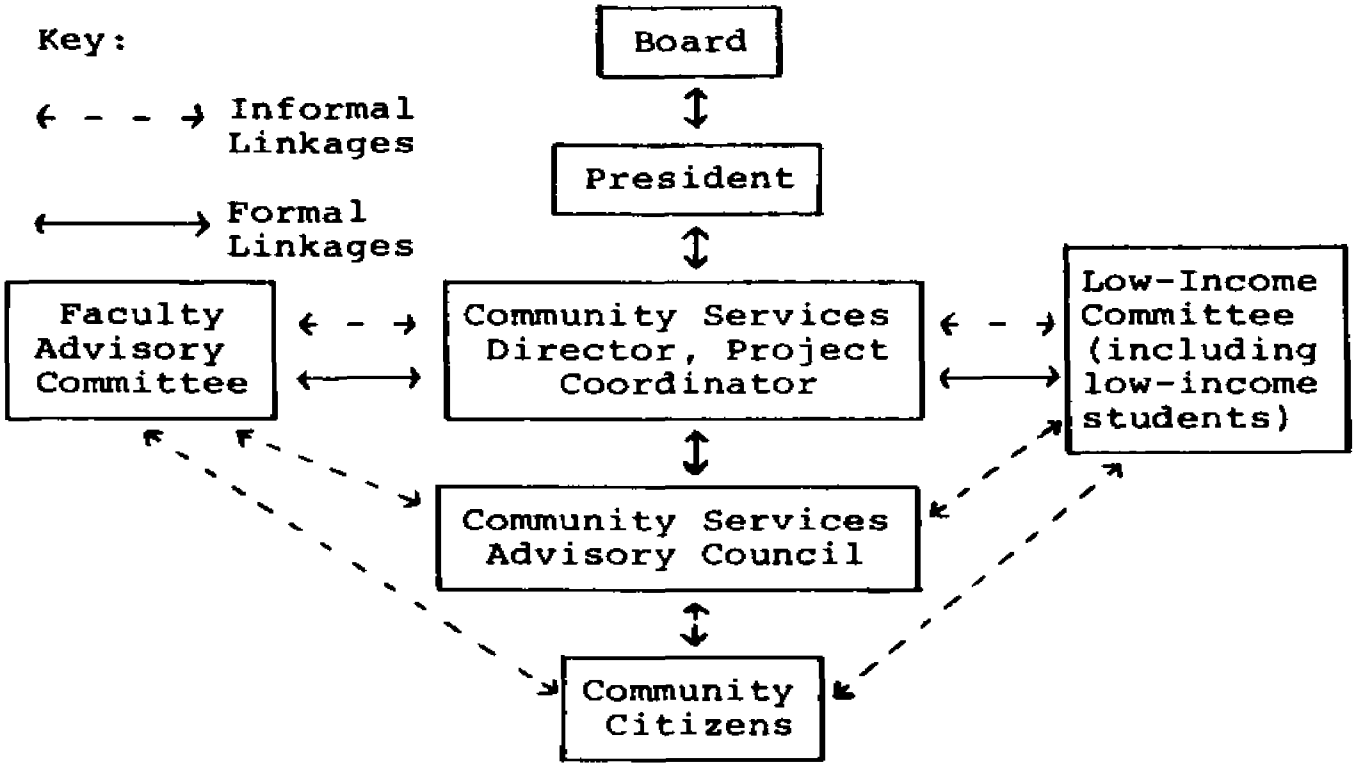

Figure IV.4.--Communication Linkages.

Administrators emphasized the importance of keeping planning participants informed and supportive of the colleges and the project's policies and practices. One administrator emphasized:

> If you don't work closely with planning groups [advisory committees], you can get into hot water. They [advisory committees] may begin to believe that they run the college unless you give them direction right from the start.

Related Respondents

Reactions by related respondents to their involvement varied. Non-administrative respondents expressed a

fundamental concern for the development of the programs through Project RITE. They contributed their expertise by offering to help develop the kinds of programs needed, and by working closely with the administrators to develop these programs. Generally, related respondents did not see themselves as objective-setters, decision-makers, or implementors, nor did they attempt to involve themselves with the educational problems of the rural poor. Rather, they functioned as resource persons for the planning and development of the project and help to communicate support to the community and refer students to the project's programs.

Psychological Involvement in Planning

While it appeared that related respondents supported the project, some seemed not to be psychologically committed to the planning of the project's programs. One teacher, for example, commented:

> I wanted to be involved more with the over-all planning. Unless I am, I feel that I'm teaching in a vacuum and don't understand what I'm supposed to teach since I don't know what my students need.

Yet, administrators believed that they did involve teachers and agency personnel in planning. The point is that even though a person is included in planning, he may not feel psychologically involved in planning. It appeared that it is not the formal act of being involved but rather the attitude about that involvement that is important.

The underlying principle that seemed to emerge is that if one is involved in those planning activities that he desires to be in and if that involvement fulfills his expectations, then he may feel psychologically committed to planning. As one agency director candidly put it: "No one likes to be just a 'warm body.' I like to feel that I'm helping the college, but I want something for myself also."

Conditions for Planning

A review of the data indicated an essential element for good planning is the conditions under which planning takes place. It was recognized that planning was encouraged by most administrators while others did not. Generally, the tone of the planning environment appeared to be set by the college presidents and by the community services directors, since they have the primary leadership roles. Those administrators who encouraged planning tended to have the following conditions in their colleges while those who did not encourage planning did not:

1. Administrators and teachers appeared to be better able to define the goals of the college.

2. The climate appeared to be "open" and democratic rather than "closed" and authoritarian.

3. There appeared to be some kind of formal or informal channels of communication between administrators and faculty, staff, and community persons.

4. The administrative staff actively sought the advice of faculty, staff, and community persons.

Summary

A general analysis of the administrative and related respondents showed that a planning team was formed in each service area, that the concept of involvement was highly important yet had different meanings to the different respondents. Administrative attitudes about the planning process varied and administrators recognized the importance of communication links within the college and the community. Related respondents generally functioned as resource persons for the project. Yet some seemed not psychologically committed to the planning of the project. An essential element of good planning is the conditions under which good planning takes place. These conditions appear to be present in the administration, the related respondents, and the planning environment.

The Flow Chart

The flow chart is the final stage in the development of the planning model. The flow chart is a summation of the disjointed programs and activities in each of the

five service areas. This flow chart is an attempt to summarize the entire planning process investigated in this study.

This model attempts to organize and to reflect: (1) the logical sequence of events in the planning and development of Project RITE and (2) the over-all plan that was used for implementing the programs of services in each service area (see model in back-cover pocket).

SECTION III: Evaluation of Objectives

To evaluate the use of Management by Objectives as a planning technique, the investigation in this section is addressed to an evaluation of 100 performance objectives developed and operationalized by five project coordinators. In a formal, taped interview, each of five project coordinators rated all his own performance objectives on a scale from 1-5 (1=poor, 2=fair, 3=average, 4=good, 5=superior). Each project coordinator gave reasons why he rated his objectives as he did. From this group of objectives, 100 performance objectives that were rated good (4) and superior (5) by the project coordinators were selected for evaluation by a Management by Objectives expert.

The Management by Objectives expert, Dr. Mike Moore, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Michigan State University, rated these objectives on the

same 1-5 scale. He gave reasons why he rated these objectives as he did. In addition, a workshop was held with the project coordinators in which Dr. Moore discussed his evaluation of the objectives. His comments were recorded, analyzed, and used as a part of the analysis of objectives in this study.

The following, therefore, is a comparative analysis between five project coordinators' evaluation of their objectives and an expert's evaluation of the project coordinators' objectives.

For the purpose of this analysis Tables IV.2-IV.5 are used. Selected objectives appear in Tables IV.2-IV.5 categorized into the four areas below:

1. Routine: A repetitive, commonplace, but necessary, goal to which an effort is directed.

2. Problem-Solving: A performance modification which leads to the correction of a discrepancy or deficiency in the level of current performance.

3. Innovative: A new and different approach which may lead to improved or expanded results.

4. Personal: An individual effort which leads toward improvement of professional or managerial skills and the enhancement of career growth (55).

Table IV.2

Routine Objectives

Expert's Criteria	Project Coordinator's Criteria	Examples
(1) Mutual Commitment	(1)	
(2) Clear	(2) Clear	1. Gather resource materials (e.g., census) for community analysis. 2. Gather reading materials about _____community. This will help me to better understand my community.
(3) Realistic	(3) Realistic	1. Budget: Work with the Dean of Instruction to seek additional funds for the college. 2. Establish regular contact with community agencies and organizations. This objective will be accomplished through personal contact. . . .
(4) Outcome-Oriented	(4) Outcome-Oriented	1. Agency Involvement: This objective will be achieved by meet- with and planning programs with agency personnel. 2. Establish regular contact with the Community Services Director to inform him of the progress being made in Project RITE.
(5) Specific	(5) Specific	1. Work with the community services secretary to orient her to Project RITE. 2. Publish a Project RITE Newsletter for the ____senior citizens.
(6) Contains Indicators	(6)	

Table IV.3

Problem-Solving Objectives

Expert's Criteria	Project Coordinator's Criteria	Examples
(1) Mutual Commitment	(1)	
(2) Clear	(2) Clear	1. Develop an advisory committee. This objective will be accomplished by designing a mailing list of key community people. 2. Begin publicity. This objective will be accomplished when personal contact is made with the community media.
(3) Realistic	(3) Realistic	1. Initiate a mailing list for a Directory of Resources. This objective will be completed when public and private agencies have been personally contacted. 2. Initiate classes for the low-income. This objective will be accomplished when needs of the low-income are determined.
(4) Outcome-Oriented	(4)	
(5) Specific	(5) Specific	1. Counseling: This objective will be accomplished when the Director of Community Services appoints a professional counselor for vocational counseling. 2. Provide in-service training next semester (winter, 1971-72) for the ____ board members. This objective will be accomplished when four out of the six board members participate in the non-credit course, entitled _____.
(6) Contains Indicators	(6)	

Table IV.4

Innovative Objectives

Expert's Criteria	Project Coordinator's Criteria	Examples
(1) Mutual Commitment	(1)	
(2) Clear	(2)	
(3) Realistic	(3) Realistic	1. Develop a senior citizens' telephone reassurance program. This objective will be accomplished when a list of interested senior citizens is developed. 2. Develop an area GED testing center at the community college. This will be accomplished when there is no charge to the participants.
(4) Outcome-Oriented	(4) Outcome-Oriented	1. Make the college a clearing house for community information. Begin by contacting community agencies. 2. Develop long-range goals for the community services programs.
(5) Specific	(5) Specific	1. Work with area senior citizens to develop a travel club. 2. Develop a resource file of volunteer helpers to aid in solving the transportation need.
(6) Contains Indicators	(6)	

Table IV.5

Personal Objectives

Expert's Criteria	Project Coordinator's Criteria	Examples
(1) Mutual Commitment	(1)	
(2) Clear	(2) Clear	1. Develop a good working relationship with the president and the Community Services Director. 2. Attend professional workshops and agency meetings that are believed to be of value to me.
(3) Realistic	(3) Realistic	1. Attend conferences at Michigan State University on community services programs. 2. Be punctual at all meetings.
(4) Outcome-Oriented	(4) Outcome-Oriented	1. Be able to identify and know community leaders on a personal basis. Do this to help increase my working effectiveness in the community. 2. Become involved in college in-service programs. Do this to increase my understanding of the community.
(5) Specific	(5) Specific	1. Increase my professional competency. This will be accomplished when I attend the Michigan State workshop in August, 1972. 2. Inform my wife_____of my work to make her feel more a part of my job. Plan to do this each Sunday.
(6) Contains Indicators	(6)	

For comparative purposes, the expert's reasons for why he rated the objectives as he did appear in Tables IV.2-IV.5 to the left of the project coordinator's reasons. No purpose would be served in this analysis by listing all 100 objectives or by dividing these 100 objectives into criterion. That is, a good objective should contain all the criteria identified in Tables IV.2-IV.5. Therefore, specific objectives were selected as examples only. No assumption is made that the objectives used as examples in Tables IV.2-IV.5 are well-written objectives. Other objectives are used as examples throughout this analysis for purposes of clarity.

Tables IV.2-IV.5 presents the comparison between the project coordinator and the expert. One general difference is apparent. The expert has identified six specific criteria which he considers to form the foundation of all good objectives. These six criteria are listed in Tables IV.2-IV.5. The project coordinators, on the other hand, have identified different criteria for good objectives in each one of the four areas. Under Routine, they identified: (2) clear, (3) realistic, (4) outcome-oriented, and (5) specific; under Problem-Solving, they have identified: (2) clear, (3) realistic, and (5) specific; under Innovative, they have identified: (3) realistic, (4) outcome-oriented, and (5) specific; and under Personal they have identified: (2) clear,

(3) realistic, and (5) specific. Each one of these areas will be analyzed in turn to compare the differences in criteria between the expert and the project coordinators.

As shown in Tables IV.2-IV.5, no project coordinator identified an objective as good because it served as the basis for a mutual commitment. A mutual commitment is an agreement between the project coordinator and his superior. The expert felt, however, that a mutual commitment is the essential element in objective setting. Nothing can be managed unless a mutual commitment between the superior and the subordinate is made.

This study showed that the basis of the successful use of Management by Objectives was based on the ability of the project coordinators to get a mutual commitment from the community services director.

Most community services directors were willing to make this commitment. There was a tendency, however, for some directors to avoid making a commitment to the project coordinator or to forget that a commitment had been made. When this happened, it was necessary for the project coordinators to try to move the community services director toward a commitment situation.

Since all the project coordinators initiated the Management by Objectives idea, to move the community services director toward a commitment situation involved generally the following strategy:

1. Scheduling a time that was convenient, private, and comfortable to discuss the objectives.

2. Asking the community services director to help think through the objectives to see if there are changes that need to be made.

3. Asking the community services director to critique the objectives and help to set limitations.

4. Asking the community services director if he will agree that these are the objectives that need to be accomplished.

5. Asking the community services director for his= commitment to help the project coordinator meet the agreed-upon objectives.

Delimitations on Goals and Objectives

The data showed that difficulties in obtaining a mutual commitment from the community services director arose when the community services director:

(1) changed or ignored the objectives, i.e., he broke the commitment;

(2) did not or could not properly coach the project coordinator in setting realistic objectives;

(3) was not or did not remain interested in the project coordinator's work;

(4) did not reward the project coordinator for completed objectives; or

(5) did not or would not change objectives (be flexible) when it was apparent that objectives should be changed.

All project coordinators tended to have some kind of difficulty in obtaining a mutual commitment from their community services director. To that degree, the objectives were negatively affected.

Other delimitations were noted. In general, the presidents and the community services directors reviewed the project coordinators' goals and objectives with the project coordinator. When objectives were set for the development of programs, the presidents and/or the community services director in most colleges reviewed these programs with the project coordinator in terms of manpower, costs, transportation, facilities, and college-community policies, customs, or habits.

Clear objectives are objectives which are clearly written. They are objectives that are easy to understand. The data shows that the project coordinator, for the most part, wrote Clear, Routine, Problem-Solving, and Personal objectives. Tables IV.2-IV.5 provide examples of these Clear objectives. The expert felt that there were some objectives--particularly Innovative--that

were not clear. Several representative examples of unclear, or vague, Innovative objectives are as follows:

1. Encourage low-income adults to enroll in college for further education if they have the ability. When scholarship funds are available for low-income.

2. Senior citizen project will be considered accomplished when a council on aging, AARP, and RITE complete plans for consumer education programs.

There was a general agreement between the expert and the project coordinator that most Routine, Problem-Solving, Innovative, and Personal objectives were realistic. That is, the objectives the project coordinator wrote were considered good, because they were objectives that could be attained. Some unrealistic, unimportant and perhaps trivial objectives were written. Some notable examples follow:

1. Be punctual at all meetings.

2. Contact MSU on a regular basis (first Wednesday of each month).

There was some tendency for project coordinators to write "low-order" objectives as shown in the above example. These "low-order" objectives identify actions that should be a normal part of meeting a broader

objective. Low-order objectives, as noted above, are in danger of becoming trivial. The expert suggested that "high order" or broader objectives be written. High order objectives are objectives that are realistic enough to be attained and yet (if Problem-Solving or Innovative objectives) the objective is challenging enough to help the individual stretch somewhat to fulfill the objective. The way in which an objective is met is not of primary importance (it matters little, for example, if a person is punctual at all meetings or if Michigan State University is contacted on a regular basis). What is of importance is that an objective is met.

As shown in Tables IV.2-IV.5, project coordinators stated that certain Routine and Innovative objectives were good because these objectives produced certain outcomes. The project coordinator did not state that Problem-Solving or Personal objectives were good because these objectives produced outcomes.

A study of the expert's evaluation of the objectives in all categories (Routine, Problem-Solving, Innovative, Personal) showed that there was a strong tendency for most of the objectives written by the project coordinator to be activity-oriented rather than outcome-oriented objectives.

Generally, these activity-oriented objectives can be classified into the four categories as follows:

Routine Objectives (examples):

1. Contacts with key college and community persons for information

2. Writing of evaluation and budget reports

3. Review of budgets and funds

4. Obtaining necessary publicity for programs

Problem-Solving Objectives (examples):

1. Discovering ways to provide services or programs for the rural poor

2. Designing publicity vehicles to reach the rural poor

3. Designing in-service training or special programs for teachers and agency personnel

Innovative Objectives (examples):

1. Developing long-range planning for community services

2. Designing special needs programs for the low-income

3. Initiating, designing, and activating advisory councils and/or low-income committees

Personal Objectives (examples):

1. Attending special conferences or workshops

2. Designing programs for job and self-improvement

3. Improve family relationships

While the accomplishment of these activity-oriented objectives may have value to the project coordinator, the expert felt that the objectives should be directed more toward outcomes or results rather than toward activity. Much activity may prove impossible to state in specific terms, whereas results of activities can be stated in specific terms.

Both the project coordinators and the expert felt that many of the objectives written could be considered good, because they were specific. That is, as represented in Tables IV.2-IV.5, many of the objectives tended to identify a particular person, place, or action. Further study between the project coordinator and the expert's evaluation of the objectives revealed some exceptions. For purposes of comparison, several examples of objectives that are considered not specific, that is, objectives that are too broad are listed below:

Examples:

1. Explore ways to overcome community apathy. This will be accomplished when techniques

are explored to find ways to involve the community. Examples of ways to overcome community apathy might include: publicity, in-service training, "sensitivity sessions," and consultant use.

2. Work closely with Head Start to formulate concepts and other activities.

While the project coordinator behind the above objectives to be important, the expert felt that in the first objective examples of ways to overcome community apathy should be limited to only one or possibly two ways. The second objective should identify which "concepts" and which "activities."

A primary difference between the project coordinator's evaluation of their objectives and the expert's evaluation of the objectives is the use of specific indicators. As presented in Tables IV.2-IV.5, no project coordinator identified an objective as good because it used indicators. The expert, on the other hand, stated that any objective to be complete has to have specific indicators attached to it. A further analysis of all of the 100 objectives in this study showed a very strong tendency for many objectives not to contain indicators.

A good objective, according to the expert, must have specific indicators attached to it. Indicators can:

1. include how much,

2. include quality,

3. include cost,

4. include human aspects,

5. 1, 2, 3, and 4 are meaningful only if time requirements are noted.

The following objectives that were written by the project coordinator and do not contain indicators are compared with objectives that do contain indicators.

Objective 1. Contains no Indicators:

Attend professional workshops and meetings that are believed to be of value to me as an educator and more specifically as a project coordinator. This objective will be accomplished by attending workshops and seminars.

Objective 2. Contains Indicators:

Attend professional workshops and meetings that are believed to be of value to me as an educator and more specifically as a project coordinator. This objective will be accomplished when I attend at least two of the three Project RITE workshops at Michigan State University.

Objective 1 contains no indicators; Objective 2 contains How Much.

A further comparison between the project coordinator and the expert's evaluation of objectives noted differences in objectives that contained time requirements. An investigation of the objectives in this study showed that no project coordinator considered the time requirement as essential for writing a good objective. The expert believed that the time element needed to be included in each objective. An example of an objective containing no time element and an example of an objective containing a specific time element follows:

Objective 1. No Time Element:

> Proposal Writing: This objective will be accomplished when proposals are submitted to the Dean of Instruction on a regular basis.

Objective 2. Time Element Included:

> Proposal Writing: This objective will be accomplished when proposals are submitted to the Dean of Instruction at least two weeks prior to the proposal deadline date, March 15.

The expert felt that the time element would "force" the project coordinator to be accountable for accomplishing a given task on time. In the first objective "on a

regular basis" has little meaning. The second objective, however, committed the project coordinator to having the proposal to the Dean of Instruction at a set time. The time element helps to move the program forward.

Further additional analysis of the objectives that were evaluated by the project coordinator and the expert revealed two additional areas of differences not identified in Tables IV.2-IV.5. These additional areas are:

(1) identifying a range of performance where possible, and

(2) identifying objectives that have definite priorities.

Many of the objectives written by the project coordinator strongly tended to identify performance. Some examples of these objectives follow:

1. Establish regular contact with various community agencies and organizations.

2. Work with area senior citizens to develop a newsletter.

A differentiation between performance objectives and management objectives was necessary. Project coordinators tended to believe they were to perform activities and, therefore, wrote these activities into their objectives. The expert felt that the project coordinators were,

to a large degree, managers of activities and it was the outcomes of these activities, rather than the performance of these activities, that were important.

Therefore, the expert's analyses questioned this strong tendency to identify performance. What resulted, he felt, was a long list of activity-oriented objectives. The key phrase is "a range of performance." It was suggested that many of the activity-oriented objectives could be collated under several objectives that would include the entire "range of performances" rather than each activity to be accomplished.

A study of the sample objectives showed that project coordinators tended not to write objectives that had definite priorities. A few examples of objectives that tended to identify priorities are as follows:

Objective 1:

Low-income families: Contact low-income families before low-income families call in for referral.

Objective 2:

Agency involvement: This objective will be achieved after coordinating and developing a list of available resources.

The expert suggested that objectives should contain definite priorities when it is necessary to complete

one task before beginning another. These priorities should be made clear in the objective.

Summary

An analysis was done of a comparison between five project coordinators' evaluations of their objectives and an expert's evaluation of the project coordinators' objectives. Tables IV.2-IV.5 were used for this comparison. The expert identified six specific criteria which he considered to form the foundation of good objectives. The project coordinator identified different criteria for each area (Routine, Problem-Solving, Innovative, Personal). These criteria were compared and analyzed.

Results of this analysis indicate that there was a difference in the project coordinator's and the expert's understanding of the importance of mutual commitments. Further analysis showed that most objectives were clearly written, that most objectives were realistic, that most objectives strongly tended to be activity-oriented rather than outcome-oriented, that most objectives were specific, and that most objectives did not contain indicators or time requirements. Further additional analysis of the objectives revealed that objectives strongly tended to identify a limited, rather than entire, range of performance and that objectives had few priorities attached to them.

Summary

In this chapter the data collected from periodic meetings with directors of community services, project coordinators, planning experts, planning workshops, and forty-nine interviews was presented. A descriptive analysis was done of the designing, field-testing, and development of a planning model, the nature of involvement of respondents in each step of the planning process, and a comparative analysis between five project coordinators' evaluation of their performance objectives and an expert's evaluation of the project coordinators' performance objectives. The results of this analysis are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION OF CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The purposes of this chapter are to present a summary of the problem, methodology, and findings, to discuss the conclusions of the study, and to offer suggestions for further research.

Summary of the Problem

This descriptive study emerged from the need for more predictable and definitive outcomes in social action programs. To fulfill this need, social action programs are just beginning to be influenced by the new emphasis on planning techniques. The study is an attempt to investigate:

(1) the designing, field-testing, and developing of a planning model for implementing social action programs;

(2) the nature of involvement of administrators, teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens who participated in the planning; and

(3) the usefulness of Management by Objectives (MBO) as a planning technique for social action programs. Management by Objectives was viewed as a potential aid in assisting relatively unsophisticated personnel, who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training, in producing definitive outcomes.

Summary of Data Collection

The data for this study was obtained through an indepth analysis of the social action programs offered through five rural-based Michigan community colleges.

Preliminary to making the actual visits to the community colleges in the sample, a planning model was designed by using the planning literature. From this planning model an interview guide was developed and pilot tested.

The procedures used to investigate the areas of study included:

1. Periodic meetings with the community services directors and the project coordinators from each of the five colleges to set objectives.

2. Three workshops held at Michigan State University with the project coordinators from each of the five colleges.

3. Formal structured interviews with forty-seven respondents, including community college presidents, community services directors, project coordinators, teachers, students, agency personnel and citizens.

4. A formal interview with a Management by Objectives expert.

5. Meetings with model cities planning experts.

Efforts were made to conduct logical and sequential interviews yet allow for freedom to explore individual perceptions and insights held by respondents.

Findings of the Study

The findings of the study are summarized below:

1. Definable and sequential steps and sub-steps in the planning process can be identified. A planning model could be designed, field-tested, and developed.

2. A planning team was formed in each one of the service areas. This planning team was formed as a result of some limited a priori long-range planning and as a result of immediate program needs in each service area.

3. No other concept than involvement was more strongly realized. Planning was more effective when all

those who were to be influenced by a plan were involved with that plan.

4. Presidents had the primary institutional leadership role. As leaders, they determined if a social action program would be initiated into the college, the value to be placed on the social action program and the amount of planning effort given to carry out the social action program.

5. Presidents set priorities on the value of the social action program in terms of: (a) their time and effort devoted to the program, (b) the amount of money a program could bring into the college, and/or (c) the amount and kinds of services a program could offer the college community.

6. Presidents were generally administrative supporters of the social action program's goals and objectives; they were the final decision-making authorities involving college-community or personnel problems; they were "overseers" of program implementation, and they encouraged evaluation.

7. President's leadership styles ranged from directive to permissive. Their styles and attitudes toward planning influenced the conditions for planning.

8. Community services directors have a primary leadership role in the college. As leaders, their roles included fund-seekers, activity generators, managers, and "legitimizers." Often they are "middlemen" between the administration, faculty, staff and students, and between the college and the community. As "middlemen," directors had an ability to deal with ambiguity; they are risk-takers; they have highly-developed communication skills; and they are knowledgeable of the community.

9. Community services directors generally were supportive of the goals and objectives of the project. They did not overtly make decisions, but they often covertly made decisions. Directors handled administrative details of program implementation; they generally delegated hiring and training of personnel but were involved in firing personnel. They encouraged evaluation. The director's attitude toward planning influenced the conditions for planning.

10. Project coordinators were involved in all planning steps. They were liaisons between the college and the community, although their emphasis on community development and administration varied. They had a variety of backgrounds that influenced their ability

to plan with low-income persons. They had high autonomy to make normal program decisions but were not involved in final decisions involving college-community or personnel problems. Coordinators were program implementators and evaluators.

11. The project coordinators' ability to establish and maintain personal contacts with administrative and agency personnel enhanced the planning process.

12. Student involvement in any stage of the planning process was almost non-existent.

13. Teachers' involvement in the planning process was limited. Teachers served as resource persons for the administration, and they helped identify and develop programs. Teachers were generally favorable about setting objectives for their classes, but differed in their attitudes toward planning.

14. Agency personnel and citizens' involvement in planning was limited. Agency personnel and citizens helped to strengthen communication links between the college and the community, which enhanced the planning process.

15. When the following conditions were present in administrators, related respondents, and the environment, the planning process was enhanced:

When the administration had: (a) faith that other persons have the capacity and judgment to make positive decisions that will move the college and social action program toward its goals; (b) developed effective communication links between the faculty, staff, and community; (c) kept planning participants informed and supportive of the colleges' policies and practices; (d) those citizens who the colleges or social action programs identified as in need of service (e.g., low-income) directly involved with planning and decision-making; (e) recognized that philosophy of the college and the objectives of the social action program were best accomplished when the administration designs its organizational structure to allow for and respond to feedback from its community; (f) recognized that no organization or social action program will function as effectively over the long run unless it has the support of its constituents; (g) recognized that there are many ways to plan to successfully reach the goals of the college and a social action program; (h) the ability of an administrator to recognize the difference between responsibility and authority and his ability to determine whether he intends to delegate authority and/or responsibility to a planning committee.

Where the related respondents had developed: (a) an understanding and acceptance of the community college and the social action program's philosophy and objectives; (b) an awareness and sensitivity to the special needs of the low-income; (c) a willingness to serve as a resource person for planning without attempting to dictate administrative policy; (d) a willingness and ability to become psychologically committed to the decision-making activities; (e) the desire to help the college and the social action program reach its goals, yet gain something for himself as a result of having participated in planning; (f) a willingness to share ideas and speak out on important issues; (g) a willingness to oppose overt or covert "dictates"; (h) a willingness to share and take responsibility for leadership.

When the college has developed: (a) a clear definition of the college's and the project's goals and objectives; (b) an "open" rather than "closed" atmosphere where personnel can make suggestions without fear or embarrassment; (c) clearly defined and available formal or informal channels of communication; (d) continual support and encouragement for those personnel who do attempt to plan;

(e) a commitment of resources toward a planning effort.

16. The Flow Chart. A model can be constructed that reflects: (a) the logical sequence of events in the development of a social action program, and (b) the over-all plan that was used for implementing programs of service. A model can help to determine more predictable outcomes in social action programs.

17. When the project coordinator was unable to obtain a mutual commitment from his community services director, the writing of objectives was negatively affected.

18. Relatively unsophisticated personnel (project coordinators) in planning techniques, using Management by Objectives, wrote objectives that were clear, realistic, and specific. They wrote objectives that were activity-oriented and objectives that did not contain indicators or time requirements. They wrote objectives that often identified a limited range of activity and had a limited range of priorities attached to them.

Conclusions

1. A planning model can be developed and used in order to determine more predictable outcomes in social action programs.

2. A planning team in each service area of a social action program should be identified and trained prior to the development of a social action program. This planning team should receive extensive and intensive training in selected planning techniques.

3. In social action programs, involvement is the most important concept. All who would be influenced by a plan should be identified prior to the development of that plan. Those persons influenced by a plan should be involved in that plan.

4. Administrators were more involved in all phases of the planning process than were teachers, students, agency personnel or citizens. If program planning is to have long-range positive effects, more teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens must actively participate in all phases of program planning and development.

5. Administrative involvement in planning influences the planning process of social action programs through their leadership roles, priorities, attitudes, and financial support.

6. Teacher and student involvement in planning positively influences the planning process of social

action programs through their functions as resource persons.

7. Agency personnel and citizen involvement in planning positively influences the planning process of social action programs by establishing communication links throughout the college service area.

8. The psychological commitment to planning is not the formal act of being involved in planning, but the attitude about that involvement. If a person is involved in planning activities that he desires to be in, and if that involvement fulfills his expectations and needs, then he may feel a psychological commitment to planning.

9. When certain conditions are present in the administrators, related respondents and the planning environment, then the planning process for social action programs is enhanced.

10. Management by Objectives (MBO) was not an effective planning technique for relatively unsophisticated personnel who had a limited amount of in-service and pre-service training. Relatively unsophisticated personnel did not produce reasonably definitive outcomes in developing programs as a result of setting objectives.

Discussion of Conclusions

What emerges from this study are the essential--but partial--elements of "programmed involvement" for a social action program. The elements of "programmed involvement" include: (1) the development of a planning model that summarized the entire planning process, and (2) the nature of involvement of participants in the planning process. The following discussion critiques the elements of programmed involvement that appear as conclusions in this study.

While it is possible to develop a model that summarized the steps through which all social action programs in this study progressed, to apply the model to any social action program would fail to recognize the uniqueness of that social action program. The point is that the model is to serve only as one approach to a planning process. The model may be adapted (where appropriate) to the local needs of other social action programs.

A planning team was identified in the early stages of this social action program. This planning team consisted of the directors of the project at Michigan State University and the community services directors and the project coordinators from each of the consortium colleges. After two in-service planning workshops, the community services directors and project coordinators returned to their respective colleges and identified

college and community individuals to help with the planning of programs for the social action program. This approach to planning was disjointed at best. A more formal approach for identifying and training personnel early in the planning stages is needed.

Involvement was identified as the most important concept. This concept was occasionally violated. The involvement of those teachers, students, agency personnel, and citizens who were influenced by the planning of programs was limited. Little attempt was made, except in isolated cases where low-income advisory committees were formed, to involve those persons influenced by a plan in that plan. It is clear that where a greater number of teachers, students, agency personnel and/or citizens are involved with planning, the planning process is enhanced. For this reason it is suggested that every effort be made to consider the extent of a plan early in the planning stages and to seek out, identify, and involve those persons who would be influenced by that plan.

Some respondents had not made a psychological commitment to the planning effort. Limited attempts had been made to involve a respondent in a planning activity of his desires. In-depth interviews, workshops, and/or seminars should be held prior to a respondent's commitment to be involved in the planning effort of a social action program. Every effort should be made to secure a

psychological commitment from participants before they become a part of the planning effort.

When certain conditions were present in the administrators, related respondents, and the planning environment, then the planning process is enhanced. While no college had all of these conditions present simultaneously, each college had some of these conditions present at various times. The conditions as presented are a total picture across all colleges of what seemed to aid the planning process. A valuable contribution to the planning effort would be to identify these and additional conditions conducive to good planning. A formal training program could be directed toward learning how to create these conditions within the planning environment of a social action program.

Management by Objectives did not prove to be an ineffective planning technique per se. MBO could have been effective had relatively unsophisticated personnel had more extensive and intensive training in setting of objectives.

Three or four intensive one- or two-day workshops spaced throughout the planning period would have clarified the criteria necessary for the writing of good objectives. At these workshops, an MBO planning expert and the community services directors and project coordinators would be present. Special emphasis would be

placed on the necessity for obtaining a mutual commitment between the community services director and project coordinator. Emphasis should also be placed on the writing of performance objectives that contain indicators, time requirements, a wider range of activities, priorities, and objectives that are outcome-oriented.

The project coordinator's job is different from most jobs that fall under the general MBO framework. Project coordinators have many activities operating concurrently. For this reason, the four general areas of MBO--(1) Routine, (2) Problem-Solving, (3) Innovative, (4) Personal--would be changed to: (1) Regular Routine, (2) Dynamic Regular,[1] and (3) Personal.

Routine and Personal objectives are written using the criteria for good objective writing. To write Dynamic Regular objectives, the project coordinator would write down each activity in a time frame. A time frame identifies when an activity begins and when an activity ends.

The project coordinator should be able to discuss his commitments to each milestone in terms of: (1) scope of services, (2) quality of services, (3) schedule-deadlines, (4) personnel issues, and (5) cost and budget. Once all activities are written into a time frame, the

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[1]Dr. Mike Moore, Project RITE Workshop, Michigan State University, February 24, 1972. At this workshop, Dr. Moore discussed the use of Dynamic Regular objectives for personnel in social action programs.

outcomes expected for each activity are identified. Each activity, and the outcomes expected, are listed in order of priority. If a new activity is introduced, it is evaluated in terms of outcomes and given a priority rating. A notebook would be kept of each activity in order of priority. Behind each activity would be a budget of the exact or estimated cost of that activity.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the analysis of data in this study, the following areas are suggested as worthy of further research:

1. A comparative study of other community services social action programs using the similar planning criteria would help to test the conclusions of this study.

2. An application of the planning model and the use of Management by Objectives from this study to other community services social action programs to test the validity and utility of the model and the value of setting objectives would be of interest.

3. A study of the conditions necessary to enhance the planning process would be of importance for improved planning.

4. The development of a series of training programs on planning techniques and the setting of objectives for social action programs in cooperation with other agencies (e.g., community action) would be of value and interest. It could be a basis for increased cooperation and planning.

5. A study of the attitudes of community college presidents toward planning and their willingness to be involved in planning. This study could serve as the basis for the development of planning trends.

6. The development of a planning handbook that would be developed for social action practitioners would be of value. This handbook could contain simple, practical models for program development plus general planning hints.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR COMMUNITY SERVICES PLANNING

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INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR COMMUNITY SERVICES PLANNING

Areas

I. Planning Process: Involvement of President, Community Services Director, Community Liaison Specialist, Agency Personnel, Advisory Committee Members, citizens, teachers, students, etc.

II. Evaluation of Objectives: Community Liaison Specialist, Human Resources Council Director.

This interview is concerned with the planning of Project RITE during its five to six month "launching" period; i.e., with the developmental planning process. The three areas of the Interview Guide include questions related to planning development, steps in planning, involvement in planning, evaluation of objectives, and college-community relationships.

Definition of Planning Process: The future oriented, systematic, decision making procedures that are used to determine and achieve goals and objectives of a program.

Steps in Planning for RITE: (1) Assessment of Needs, (2) Setting of Objectives, (3) Assessment of Resources, (4) Determining and Evaluating Alternative Courses of Action, (5) Decision Making, (6) Formulating Derivative Plans, (7) Evaluation.

I. Planning Process: Interview all

A. For the past five or six months you have had some involvement in the planning process for Project RITE. Would you explain (in chronological order by month) what you did in order to plan. That is, what procedures did you go through as your part of the planning process for RITE?

1. As you look back on this process, what do you consider to be the most effective procedures used?

2. Why was it effective?

3. As you look back on this process, what do you consider to be the most ineffective procedures used?

4. Why was it ineffective?

5. If you could change this process, how would you change it? That is, what is it that you would do differently?

B. On the front page is an outline of steps in planning.

1. In which of these steps were you primarily involved?

2. In what specific way(s) were you involved?

3. In which of these steps were you secondarily involved?

4. In what specific way(s) were you secondarily involved?

II. Evaluation of Objectives: Interview with Community Liaison Specialist, Human Resources Council Director.

A. In the process of planning, specific objectives were developed. Let's look at each one of these objectives now. Would you please rate each objective on a scale of 1 to 5.

1	2	3	4	5
Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Superior

B. As we look at this same objective, can you give two reasons why you rated that objective as you did?

C. If you could re-write this objective now, how would you change it?

D. On the front page is an outline of steps in planning.

1. How might this objective fit primarily into one of the planning steps?

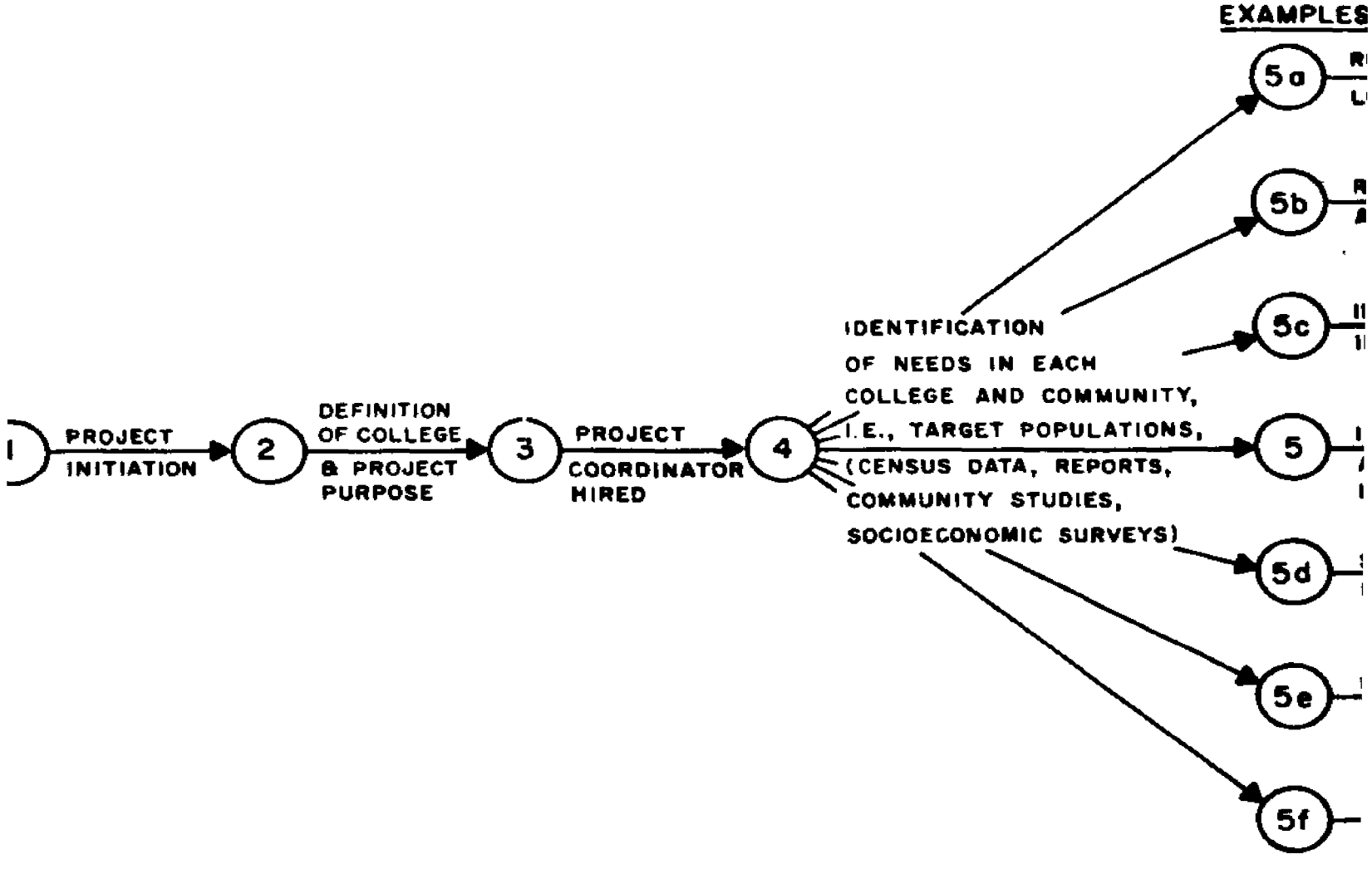
2. How might this objective fit secondarily into one of the planning steps?

APPENDIX B

FINAL MODEL--FLOW CHART

(Pocket)

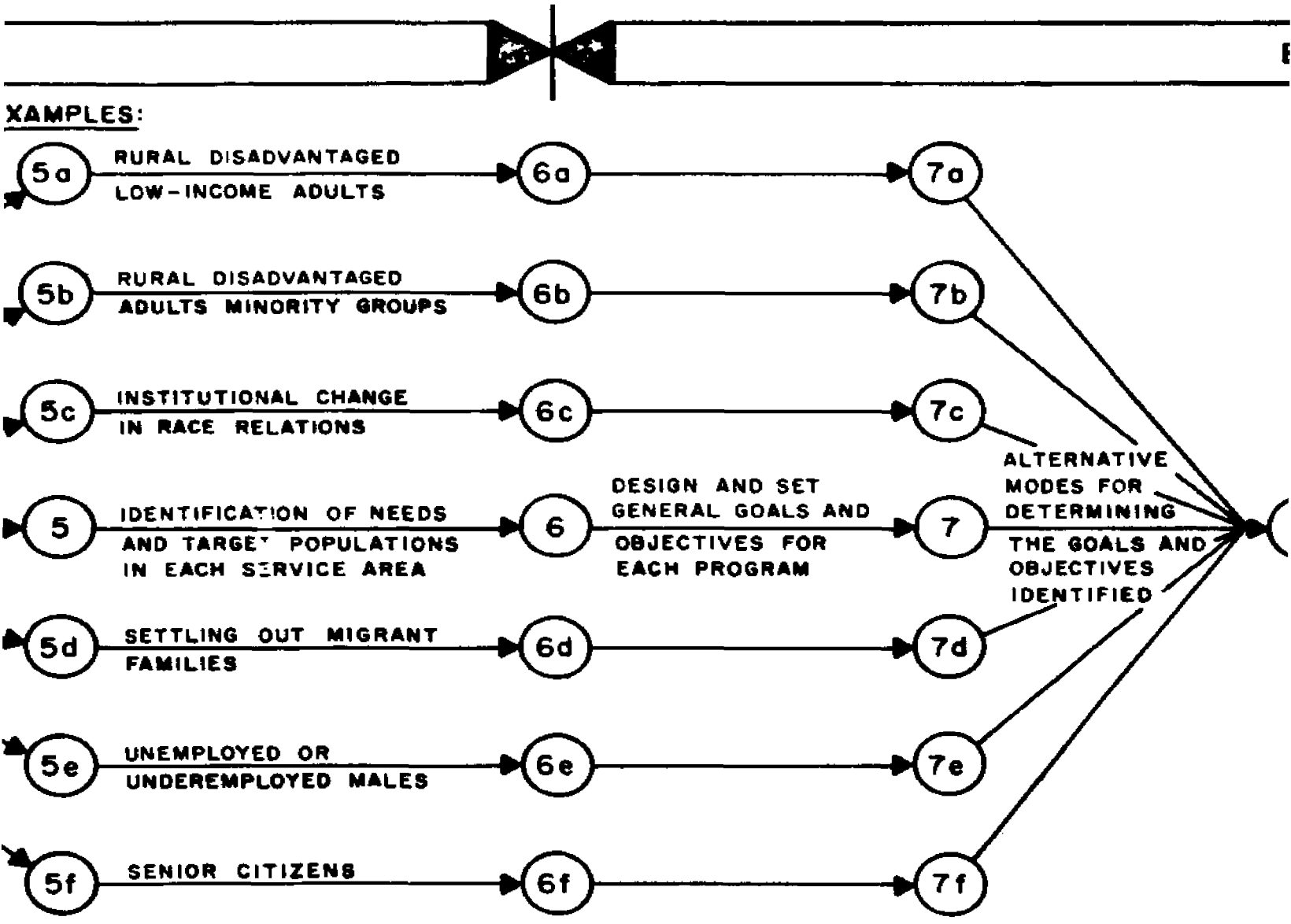
STAGING



SURVEY OF COLLEGE & COMMUNITY NEEDS

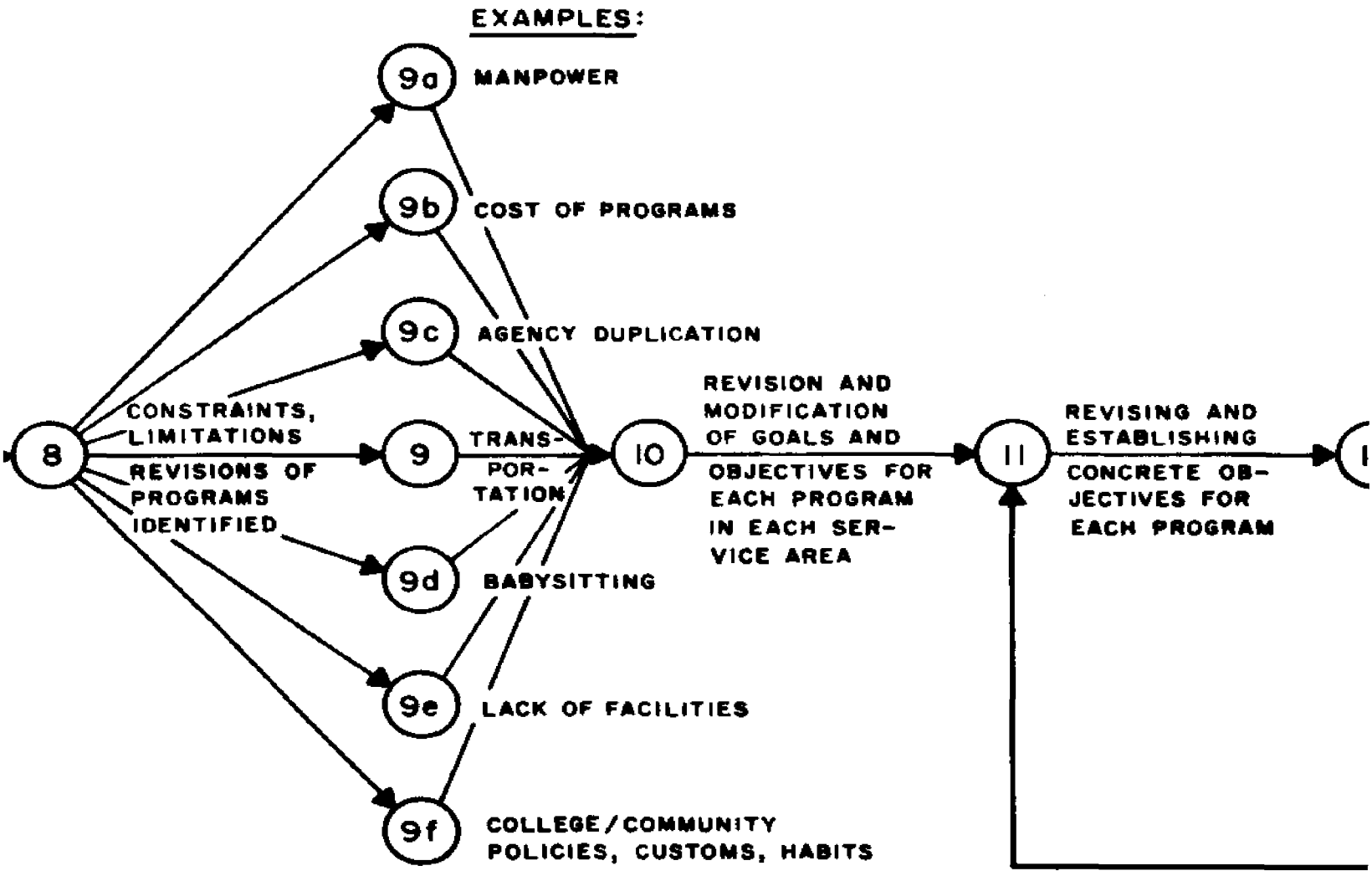
[Use expertise of administration, faculty, students, agen
personnel, low-income advisory committees, citizens]

SEPT., 1970 — JUNE, 1971



nts, agency
izens]

ESTABLISHING GOALS & SETTING OBJECTIVES



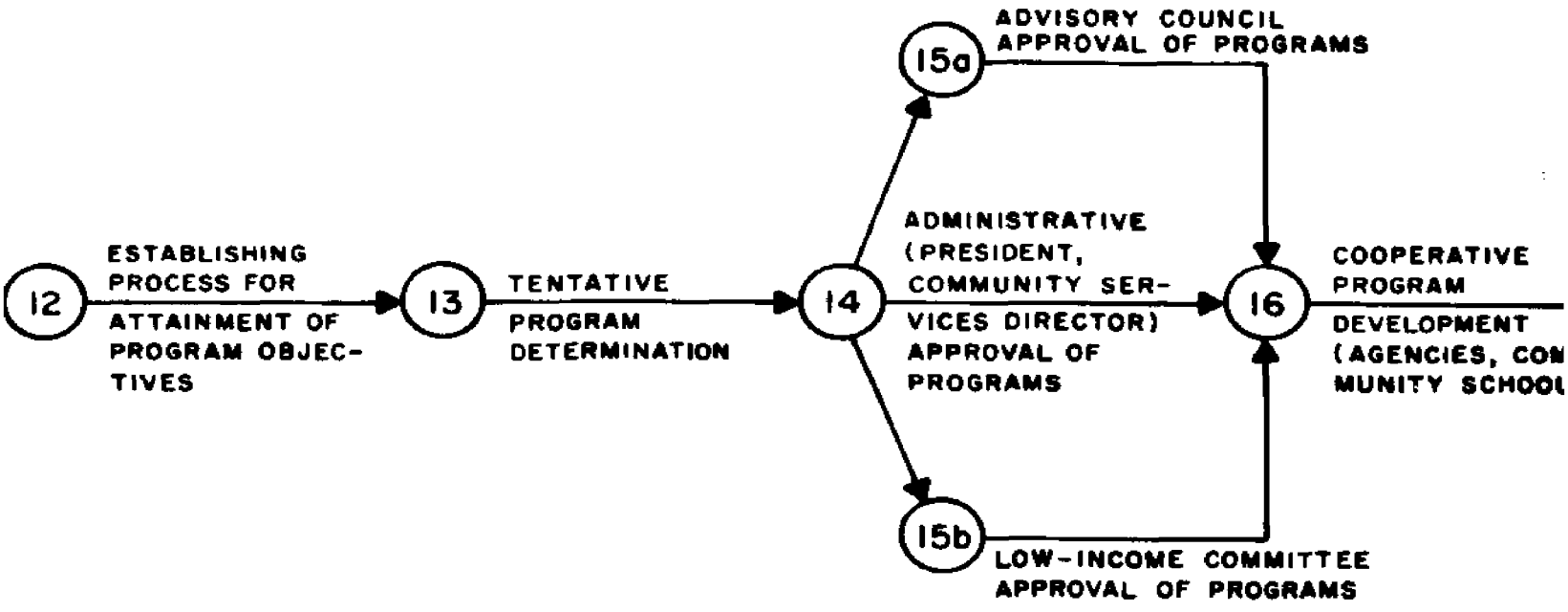
DELIMITATIONS

PROGRAM

TIME SEQUENCE

JULY, 1971 — OCTOBER, 1971

MAKING DECISIONS

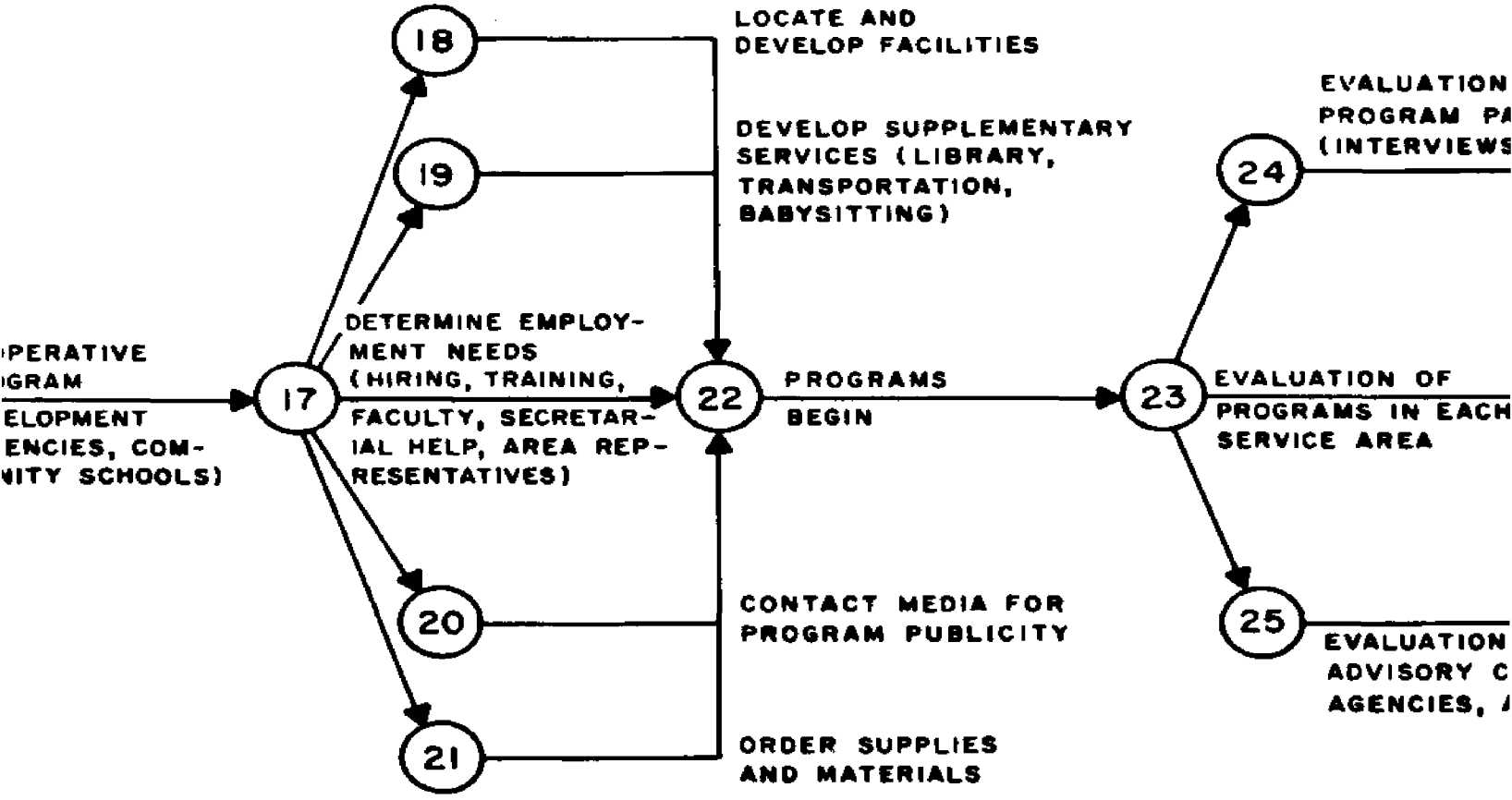


...M DETERMINATION: COMMITTMENT TO ACCOUNTABILITY

IMPLEMENTING

E

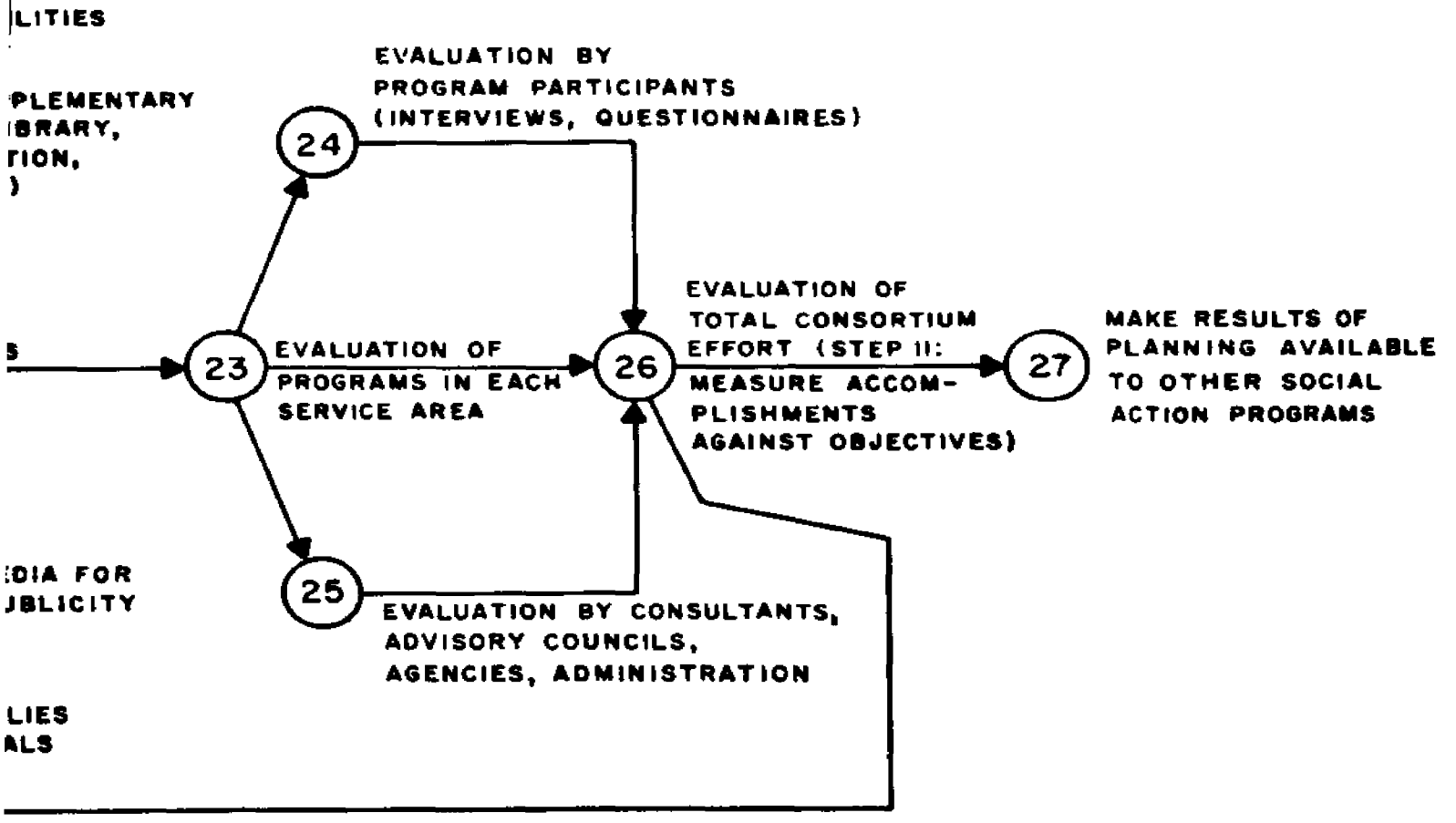
EXAMPLES:



NOVEMBER, 1971 — APRIL, 1972

APRIL, I

EVALUATING



Dean MacLeod
March, 1972

APRIL, 1972 – JUNE, 1972