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A STUDY OF THE STRUCTURES, PROCESSES AND CRITERIA
FOR CURRICULAR DECISION-MAKING

IN
SELECT MICHIGAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By
Raymond E. Gatza

A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE STRUCTURES, PROCESSES AND CRITERIA FOR CURRICULAR DECISION-MAKING

IN SELECT MICHIGAN COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By

Raymond E. Gatz

The major purpose of this study was to describe the structures, processes and criteria for making decisions about programs and courses of study in a sampling of Michigan community colleges. A correlative purpose was to describe personal and group involvements in the decision-making process and the nature of their responsibilities. The relationship between the community services of the community college and the community education programs of the public schools was also explored.

Decision-making was recognized at the outset as the central act and problem of administrators. What is taught and learned in the community college was visualized as singularly important to the community a college serves.

A review of pertinent literature reported the basic issues in curricular decision-making in general, and specific fundamental decision-making issues in each of the several community college curriculum. External influences arising from the national and regional, state and local levels and internal influences deriving from governance structure were

reported. Traditional processes of program and course selection were reviewed, and a systems analysis approach to curriculum development was described.

The rationale for selecting the colleges to be studied was then explained, and a description of the colleges selected given. The method and description of the study was presented, and was followed by the research questions and related hypotheses.

Structured interviews were conducted in three colleges following a pilot study in another college. Six major interviews, each of approximately two hours length, were conducted with carefully chosen respondents identified on the organization chart or otherwise noted as important in the curriculum decision-making process. More than 250 questions embodied in a 33-point interview-guide were discussed in these interviews. Short interviews with several other persons in each college--faculty and administrators--averaged 15-30 minutes and had as their purpose either reaffirmation of specific information given or resolution of doubts expressed.

Findings in each college were reported, and a statement of acceptance or rejection made for each hypothesis. Data gathered from the three colleges were then considered together under each hypothesis. The individual and collective results of hypothesis' acceptance or rejection were charted.

Conclusions to this Study are the following:

1. The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made are not completely and fully described in print or publication in any college.

2. Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established in each college studied. The relative importance of each decision point, however, and the division of responsibilities among them is generally obscure.
3. Divisional Chairmen are particularly important in the curricular decision-making process. The dimensions of their control is contingent upon administrative influence and power.
4. Comprehensive written criteria are not found at any decision point in the processes of the colleges studied and often none are written.
5. A systems approach to curricular decision-making is observed in one of the three colleges studied. Traditional approaches are found in the other two.
6. Community involvement in the curricular decision-making process is apparent in the community service curriculum, but practically reduces to the political influence of the board and the academic advisement of selected and invited committees in other curricula. Student involvement is minimal or non-existent.
7. Participative involvement in curriculum development depends upon an administrative interest and faculty cooperation.
8. Authority/control in matters of curricular decisions is shared by administrators and faculty in two colleges. Administrative primacy or control is evident in the third.
9. Curricula confusion and imbalance between academic and occupational programs/courses, resulting from an organizational by-pass of the chief instructional officer by the director of occupational programs, is not a problem in any college.
10. A curriculum committee is found in one college. Functions usually ascribed to such a committee are performed by committees that are responsible for many activities, curriculum among them, in the other two. The curriculum committee is not generally recognized as one of the most important college committees. Its functions, and the curricula responsibilities of its surrogate, does not constitute a major role in curriculum development. Their functions are largely unclear and/or unacceptable to administration, faculty, students, and members themselves. Released time and special compensation is given members in one college.
11. Programs (professional) accrediting associations regulate specific curriculum. The North Central Association and the various State agencies are not generally viewed as regulatory. Although their influence is recognized, they are thought to parallel, for the most part, ideals and regulations internal to the college.

12. Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current relevant literature is unassigned and assumed.
13. Pragmatic concerns (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution) govern decisions when resources are too limited to admit more than one of several new courses or programs of equal importance into the college curricula.
14. The colleges view themselves as leading agencies of community education.
15. Advisory Boards to the Community Services Division of the colleges do not require and do not specifically seek qualified representation from the public schools' community education interest.
16. A unified relationship between the community service efforts of the colleges and the community education efforts of the public schools is not found. Leadership in effecting such a unified relationship has not been demonstrated in any college.
17. Community Service non-credit academic programs/courses and activities--and in one college credit-bearing courses also--are offered without the need of approval from academic and occupational administration and faculty.
18. A specifically designed developmental (remedial) curriculum is not established in any college, and the need for such a curriculum is not recognized. Divisions handle individual problem students.
19. A specifically designated general curriculum is not found in any college. General courses are accentuated and frequently evaluated in one college, and are decided by transfer institutions in the other two.
20. Continuing (adult) education credit-bearing courses are not distinguished from academic or occupational curricula in two colleges and are offered by the Community Service Division in the other. Continuing education non-credit academic programs/courses, as also cultural, enrichment, skill-training, and hobby-training programs/courses, are offered in each college as a community service.

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CHAPTER I

Statement of the Problem

Introduction

An argument which is ancient pitted opposing extremist philosophical perspectives against one another. The Philosophers of Being with Parmenides viewed being as immutable: "All is; there is no becoming." Heraclitus and other Philosophers of Becoming negated stability in anything: "All is becoming; there is no is." Alvin Toffler's current and widely discussed Future Shock updates an argument that was once speculative and perhaps fanciful. Not recognized as an extremist, Toffler would appear, however, more comfortable with the "becomingists," and perhaps most of his contemporaries would agree with him. Change is a natural phenomenon, everyone concedes, but Toffler argues that the rapidity of change that the whole of society has witnessed in recent years and will continue to experience at a growing rate in the future will create a tremendous coping problem that will increasingly challenge the psychological health and life of every man.¹ Organizations, as moral persons, will experience similar problems of coping. Coping ability, or survival, will depend upon foresight and planning, healthy psychological gearing, the creation of ideas and vehicles to meet problems as they begin to develop, before they become critical, before they become overwhelming!

¹Toffler, Alvin, Future Shock, New York: Random House, 1970.

"Organizations are social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed (underscoring mine) to seek specific goals."¹ Etzioni defines organizational goals as "that state of affairs which the organization as a collectivity is trying to bring about."² Goals are expressed in the philosophy and purposes which an organization delineates, and they are realized through effective, efficient decisions in keeping with them. "Organizations are constructed to be the most effective and efficient social units. The actual effectiveness of a specific organization is determined by the degree to which it realizes its goals. The efficiency of an organization is measured by the amount of resources used to produce a unit of output."³ (underscoring mine)

The goals of an organization are not easily set, but unless they are clearly established and set forth, they can be mistaken even by those who constitute the human grouping. Etzioni cautions, for example, against equating organizational goals with output, though they are related.⁴ A school's unit of output, for example, is clearly the student. Whether the finished student or the general welfare of society is the school's goal cannot perhaps be answered categorically, or at least readily.

Once goals for an organization have been established, decisions directed toward them become an on-going process. Decision-making is affected by many variables. "Executive work is not that of the

¹Etzioni, Amitai, Modern Organizations, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, p. 3. Etzioni is quoting Talcott Parsons, Structure and Process in Modern Societies, Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960, p. 17.

²Ibid., p. 6.

³Ibid., p. 8.

⁴Ibid., p. 9.

organization, but the specialized work of maintaining the organization in operation."¹ Whether an organization is a corporation, an army, school, hospital, prison...its maintenance depends upon executive administration which is "a generalized type of behavior to be found in all human organizations."² Central to administration is decision making.³ Griffiths delimits the administrative role and responsibility toward an organization by specifying its function as "developing and regulating the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible,"⁴ and places, as the criteria by which an organization may be evaluated, "the quality of decisions which the organization makes plus the efficiency with which the organization puts the decisions into effect."⁵

At the beginning of the twentieth century, "the prevailing attitude was that educational problems could be resolved through appeals to five sources: common sense, authority, intuition, revelation, or 'reason'."⁶ Sax recognizes that dependable knowledge about education has come from various of these sources, and he does not wish necessarily to exclude appeals to them in decision making. He does take the position, however,

¹Chester Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1956, p. 215.

²Daniel Griffiths, Administrative Theory, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959, p. 71.

³Ibid., p. 92.

⁴Ibid., p. 73.

⁵Ibid., p. 113.

⁶Gilbert Sax, Empirical Foundations of Educational Research, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968, p. 2.

that "science provides the most reliable means for obtaining knowledge about empirical relationships and that education can be studied scientifically."¹

The Problem

Since decision making is so important, "the central process of administration,"² an administrator needs acute awareness of the sources of knowledge and of all forces that cause things to happen. If education is to be scientific in gaining its objectives, fundamental recognition of those parts of a decision-making process that are generally recognized by theorists in administration³ and research⁴ appears basically useful and wise. Expert care in validating premises that precede decisions can then be founded in a scientific process.

Decision making is involved in every facet and phase of an organization's life. This study will look at select community colleges in Michigan as organizations of focus, and will examine specifically their processes of "directing and controlling life"⁵ in curricular decision making. The curriculum--what is taught and learned and how it is taught and learned, is the essence of the community college. It is the specific process upon which organizational goals are contingent. Effective and efficient realization of organizational goals is the criterion of evaluation.⁶

The review of literature and preliminary investigation that preceded this study revealed no generally accepted procedural model for curricular

¹Ibid., p. 6.

²Griffiths, op. cit., p. 92.

³Ibid., p. 94.

⁴Sax, op. cit., p. 6ff.

⁵Griffiths, op. cit., p. 72.

⁶Ibid., p. 113.

decision making that could serve as a guide to administrators in exercising their responsibilities to make goal-oriented things happen (direct and control life) through effective and efficient decisions. Indeed, the general absence of correlation between statements made in college catalogues, newsletters, and brochures with reality are more apparent in the literature!¹

If a model of the decision-making process is to be designed, certain influences upon its characteristics are immediately recognized in even a cursory review of literature. For example, it will need to reflect the recommendations of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, suggestions and guidelines of the American Association of Junior Colleges, leadership and/or other influences of the State Community College Board, and perhaps the Michigan Community College Association, regulatory and/or advisory pressure of the state agencies upon the curriculum, legislative requirements, financial strength or weakness, including the analyses required for the Planning Program Evaluation System, new to the State of Michigan. Collective bargaining that brings pressure upon decisions affecting curricula may affect the design of a model. The community education efforts of the K-12 system will deserve attention, too. Overlapping of efforts obviously is to be avoided. The community college and the K-12 system evidently should function harmoniously, though perhaps at different levels and with differing emphases, each helping the other in a unified objective to serve the people who make up their constituencies. Information

¹Tom Spencer, "Is Our Integrity Above Reproach?", Junior College Journal, Vol. 41: June, 1971, p. 20-23.

from the U. S. Office of Education, state and national current emphases on model requirements, requests from the community for service, plans and programs in other colleges... All these influences will bear upon the characteristics of a curricular decision-making model!

Each college, in addition, needs continually to search out for itself whatever is needed for its vitality in fulfilling its responsibility to provide for all the post-high-school educational needs of the community. Any portended model, therefore, will include intra-institutional influences that help fashion it. Faculty advisement, it will be noted, for example, cannot be considered ancillary but is essential.

A model that will serve the needs of students planning further education in senior colleges will incorporate the guidelines of those institutions. Local businesses, industries and professions require in-put into model-design if students' career education will be adequate and useful. The students themselves and the whole community needs a voice in any model construction, for its needs are diverse and its aptitudes for education varied. Model flexibility is a must!

Seventeen of the Michigan public community colleges are accredited by the North Central Association. The remaining colleges, including branch campuses, are either recognized candidates for accreditation or are in a correspondent status, having indicated intent to work toward accreditation and appearing to have the potential for attaining this goal within a reasonable time.¹

¹1971-1972 Directory of Institutions of Higher Education, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Department of Education.

Various professional associations are currently accrediting programs in eight colleges. The National League for Nursing accredits an associate degree program in nursing at Delta and Henry Ford Community College, and a practical nursing program at Mid-Michigan. The American Medical Association, Council on Medical Education, accredits radiologic technology programs at Delta, Kellogg, and Washtenaw Colleges. The American Dental Association, Council on Dental Education, accredits programs for dental assistants at Delta and Genesee Community Colleges and in dental hygiene at Genesee and Grand Rapids!¹

It is expected that each of these accrediting associations place constraints upon curricular decision makers as do all the factors and forces that contribute to a decision-making model or to the process of curricular decision making, with the clear view of a real model or without it.

Fundamental, of course, to any model is concern with "determining the nature and degree of existing conditions"² currently obtaining. An investigation into the curricular decision-making processes in select Michigan community colleges, the focal institutions of this study, will provide basic information necessary as a starting point in the creation of a meaningful model. Remediating or ameliorative action can be taken

¹Ibid.

²Irvin J. Lehmann, William A. Mehrens, (Editors), Educational Research, Readings in Focus, New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, Inc., 1971, p. 95.

only after the current status of a problem is described. Once this information is available, resolutions to existing problems can begin.¹

Significance of and Need for this Study

Historical Perspectives

The Junior College Movement is engaging and fascinating.² For the purposes of this study, Thornton's historical developmental patterns are of special interest:

The present-day community junior college has evolved in three major stages. The first and longest lasted from 1850 to 1920. During that period the idea and the acceptable practice of the junior college, a separate institution offering the first two years of baccalaureate curriculums, were achieved. Next, the concept of terminal and semi-professional education in the junior college...gained widespread currency with the foundation of the American Association of Junior Colleges in 1920. By the end of World War II in 1945, this idea was an established part of the junior college concept. The changes in post-high-school education brought by the war emphasized a third element of responsibility, service to the adult of the community, and so the period from 1945 to the present has seen the development of the operative definition of the community junior college.³

The community college has become the fastest growing segment of the educational system, and has rapidly taken its place in education's "Jacob's

¹Sax, op. cit., p. 36.

²See, e.g. Ralph Fields, The Community College Movement, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962, p. 15ff. Also, James Thornton, The Community Junior College, Third Edition, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1972, p. 46ff and others. Fields notes that historical research into the beginning of the Junior College Movement has not yet occupied the serious efforts of an historian. See also The Open-Door Colleges, Policies for Community Colleges. A special Report and Recommendations by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., June 1970, Chapter 3, "The Growth and Development of Community Colleges," p. 9ff. This chapter highlights several important causative factors in the community college expansion in the United States.

³Thornton, Ibid., p. 47.

Ladder." "Public junior colleges now operate in forty-nine of the fifty states and enroll more than two million students. Countless other Americans attend non-credit courses in continuing or adult education or participate in college-sponsored cultural and recreational programs, conferences and workshops."¹ In the public community college movement, growth has been steady. Between 1959 and 1969, numbers of colleges have grown from 390 to 794 and enrollments from 551,760 to 2,051,493.² "There are now over 1,000 two-year colleges in the United States, and in recent years new colleges have been created at the rate of about one each week."³ The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education projects enrollments for 1980

¹ American Junior Colleges, 8th Edition, Edmund J. Glaezer, Jr. Editor, Jane Follett Cooke, Associate Editor, American Council of Education, Washington, D. C., 1971, p. 3. Figures finalized by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC) show a total of 2,680,762 students registered for courses in community and junior colleges and technical schools in the fall of 1971. Of these 2,543,901 students attended public community colleges and 136,861 attended independent two-year institutions. The AACJC's office of Data Management on 1,111 colleges estimates that in 1972 enrollments in American two-year colleges have hit the three million mark. Community and Junior College Journal, Vol. 43, No. 1: August/September 1972, p. 34.

² Ibid., p. 3. The latest figures from the AACJC office of Data Management (fall, 1972) are 1,111 colleges and enrollment estimates of three million. Community and Junior College Journal quoted in footnote one.

³ The Open-Door Colleges, op. cit., p. 12. The AACJC office of Data Management lists 1,111 colleges and 2,543,901 students enrolled in the fall of 1971 and an estimated number of three million students currently enrolled in community and junior colleges and technical schools. Community and Junior College Journal, quoted above in footnote one.

between 3,100,000 and 4,400,000, depending upon certain assumptions for the future.¹

"Recent figures show that community college students account for nearly thirty percent of all undergraduates and twenty-five percent of all students in higher education in the nation.² The age span of the student bodies is likewise of interest in this study: "Approximately half of the students in the two-year colleges are adults, ranging in age

¹Leland L. Medsker, Dale Tillery, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971, p. 28. Three assumptions are the bases for three projections: "For Projection A, the assumption is that the proportion of undergraduates in the two-year colleges will remain the same as that in 1968 (29 percent).

For Projection B, it is assumed that 60 percent of the future growth in undergraduate enrollment will be absorbed in two-year colleges. (This 60 percent figure has been exceeded in four states during the past five-year period.)

For Projection C, it is assumed that the future annual increase in percentage of undergraduate enrollment in the two-year colleges in each state will be the same as that estimated for each state from data for the past five-year period. According to Projection C, the proportion of undergraduates enrolled in the two-year colleges, including two-year branches of universities, will rise from 29 percent in the United States in 1968 to about 35 percent in 1980."

Most recent estimates by the AACJC Office of Data Management (Community and Junior College Journal, Vol. 43, No. 1: August/September 1972, p. 34.) give these fall enrollment projections:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Public</u>	<u>Independent</u>	<u>Total</u>
1972	2,797,000	142,000	2,939,000
1973	3,047,000	146,000	3,193,000
1974	3,293,000	149,000	3,442,000
1975	3,539,000	153,000	3,692,000
1976	3,785,000	156,000	3,941,000
1977	4,032,000	160,000	4,192,000
1978	4,278,000	163,000	4,441,000
1979	4,524,000	167,000	4,691,000
1980	4,470,000	170,000	4,940,000
1981	5,017,000	174,000	5,191,000

²The Open-Door Colleges, op. cit., p. 3.

from twenty-two to seventy or more, with the median age of about twenty-five years."¹

Michigan was among the first states to introduce the two-year college--Grand Rapids in 1914, Highland Park, 1918, and Flint and Port Huron in 1923.

The early two-year colleges developed as divisions of the public schools and were formed as upward extensions of the K-12 public school system. Close articulation with the public school curricula, shared faculty, and administrative staffs and utilization of high school facilities were common.²

"These two-year colleges, or junior colleges as they were called, were organized in response to a growing interest in higher education. They were designed to meet the needs of a limited number of students for whom a four-year college away from home was not feasible."³

Shoup, in his doctoral study, continues:

The enrollment in Michigan Community Colleges grew slowly until the 1950's. By then the community college had developed a reputation for its excellent vocational-occupational programs in addition to its traditional transfer courses. As the demand for occupational training beyond high school was stimulated by rapid advance in science and technology, and as the educational aspirations of the general populace moved upward, community colleges experienced a vigorous growth. From 1950 to 1960, the

¹Ibid., p. 6.

²Clyde E. Blocker, Robert H. Plummer, Richard C. Richardson, The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965, p. 25.

³Charles A. Shoup, A Study of Faculty Collective Bargaining in Michigan Community Colleges, Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969, p. 24.

number of Community Colleges grew from nine to sixteen and the enrollment multiplied to over 27,000.¹

Growth of the public two-year college in Michigan has been even more dramatic since 1960. The latest figures show 132,059 students enrolled in twenty-nine institutions for the fall of 1971, a growth of 14.5% since 1969 and a staggering increase of 362% during the past decade. Community colleges in 1970 enrolled 32.6% of the 405,716 students in Michigan's institutions of higher learning--a new record--and 53.8% of first-time-in-college enrollees, establishing a new high. One out of every three students attending Michigan public and private colleges and universities was enrolled in a community college in 1971. Enrollment of more than double the current enrollment is conservatively anticipated in the next two decades.² The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education estimates an enrollment growth in Michigan of between roughly 60% and 100% by 1980!³

Most colleges formed after 1950 were, unlike earlier organizational patterns, independent of the public school and served a county or regional area rather than a single public school system. In addition, all but six⁴ of the colleges originally associated with public schools have now formed

¹Ibid., p. 24-25.

²Financial Requirements of Public Baccalaureate Institutions and Public Community Colleges, Michigan Department of Education, Statistical Bulletin 4052, 1971, Section II: "Enrollment Projections." Cf. also Community College Enrollments, Michigan Community College Research Series, Vol. 72, No. 1, Lansing, Michigan, Dec., 1971. Also, see Statewide Community College Services in Michigan, A special report with recommendations by the Michigan Community College Association, Lansing, Michigan, June 1971. The latest Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) shows a headcount enrollment of 132,059 for the fall of 1971 and a headcount enrollment of 137,634 (an increase of 5,575) for the fall of 1972.

³Medsker, op. cit., p. 30.

⁴State Plan for Higher Education, Michigan Department of Education, Revised, 1970, p. 1-7.

independent and enlarged districts. Already community colleges have become accessible to the majority of Michigan residents, and additional colleges are in the planning.

Philosophy and Purpose of the Community College

Accepted purposes of the community college are several: general education, education for transfer to a senior college, occupational (vocational) and technical education, adult (continuing) education, developmental (remedial) education, counseling and guidance of students and community service programs.

The community college ideally strives to meet all of the educational needs of the community that are not met by other existing institutions or that, recognizing its limitations, it can meet best. The philosophy and purposes of present-day Michigan community colleges have been stated by the State Board for Public Community and Junior Colleges as follows:

The community college is becoming the one versatile educational institution with the flexibility and adaptability to meet the ever-changing requirements of community needs in a dynamic world. It is coming of age under the spiraling needs that a modern, democratic society has for educated and trained manpower. It offers hope that in this nation there shall not exist an educational gap breachable only by the economically, the socially, or intellectually elite.

Public community colleges can and should provide additional educational opportunities leading not only to advanced academic study in our four-year institutions of higher education, but also to the best in continuing education programs, in vocational/technical, occupational and retraining programs, in general and in broad educational programs beneficial to the entire community and to society, in diversified community enrichment activities and functions that will elicit maximum participation by both youths and adults.¹

¹A Position Paper by the State Board for Public Community and Junior Colleges, Lansing, Michigan, Michigan Department of Education, 1967, p. 1-2.

The Michigan Community College Association amplifies and details expression of philosophy and purpose which parallels that of the State Board in eighteen statements entitled "This we Believe." "We believe:

1. That the central object of concern should continue to be people, and that community colleges should continue to offer a range of learning options and career opportunities.
2. That the concept of "open-door" admissions is inherent in the community college philosophy and should continue to be a primary objective and function of Michigan community colleges.
3. That the community college should continue to seek its identity in the life-style of the community it serves, always aware that its educational reason for being is unique and should not be abandoned by becoming a baccalaureate degree institution.
4. That comprehensive programs of general academic, developmental and career education are inherent to the concept of the community college, and that the scope and priority of these services should continue to be consistent with the priorities of related community needs.
5. That the allocation of human, material, and property resources of the community college should always continue to be viewed in relation to the benefits accruing to the community.
6. That the community college should continue its efforts to function in full and complete harmony with all other institutions and agencies providing educational services to the constituency it serves.
7. That the community college should be physically and financially accessible to all people throughout their lives.
8. That control of the community college's destiny always be an unalienable right of the community which it serves.
9. That the community college, by the nature of its purpose, should relate to its local community and be governed by a locally elected board.
10. That a single non-partisan lay-board of Michigan citizens should be responsible for statewide coordination of all public higher education in Michigan, the sole responsibility of this board being to coordinate and advise higher education in Michigan on matters which do not conflict with the constitutional right of local boards of trustees to supervise and control their institutions.

11. That admission and tuition reciprocity agreements between states is in the best interests of community colleges and should be continued.
12. That tuition charges not be allowed to inhibit educational opportunity.
13. That the establishment of tuition rates should continue to be a responsibility of locally elected boards of trustees.
14. That tuition rates should continue to be as low as possible.
15. That the community college should receive financial support from the community it serves.
16. That community colleges are properly a part of the basic governmental services provided throughout the state and that guaranteed basic support for such services should continue to be required of all citizens.
17. That adequate state financial support is essential for insuring equal opportunity for higher education in Michigan.
18. That the paramount concern in extending community college services to all Michigan citizens should continue to be that of enriching the quality of human experience and community life."¹

In 1970, the Carnegie Commission presented a special report on policies for community colleges. In the recommendations submitted for the development of a comprehensive community college are elements supported by current literature which speaks to the essential characteristics and functions (philosophy and purpose) of the community college. Curriculum is at the heart of each of the eight recommendations which, therefore, are useful to this study:

¹Statewide Community College Services in Michigan, op. cit., p. 5-7.

Open Access: The Commission recommends that all states enact legislation providing admission to public community colleges of all applicants who are high school graduates or are persons over 18 years of age who are capable of benefiting from continuing education.

Preserving the Two-Year Institution: The Commission believes that the comprehensive public community college has a unique and important role to play in higher education and that public two-year colleges should be actively discouraged by state planning and financing policies from converting to four-year institutions.

Meaningful Options: The Commission recommends that all state plans for the development of two-year institutions of higher education should provide for comprehensive community colleges, which will offer meaningful options for college-age students and adults among a variety of educational programs, including transfer education, general education, remedial courses, occupational programs, continuing education for adults, and cultural programs designed to enrich the community environment. Within this general framework there should be opportunities for varying patterns of development and for the provision of particularly strong specialities in selected colleges.

Opportunities for Degrees: The Commission recommends that all two-year colleges should award an Associate of Arts or Associate of Applied Science degree to all students who satisfactorily complete a two-year prescribed curriculum and that students who enter with adequate advanced standing should have the option of earning the Associate degree in less than two years. Non-degree-credit courses should be confined to short-term courses and to training of the skilled craftsman type, for which certificates should be provided, and to remedial work.

Transfer Programs: The Commission recommends that policies be developed in all states to facilitate the transfer of students from community colleges to public four-year institutions. Whenever public four-year institutions are forced, because of inadequacies of budgets, to reject students who meet their admission requirements, top priority should be given to qualified students transferring from community colleges within the state. Private colleges and universities should also develop policies encouraging admission of community college graduates. In addition, there should be no discrimination against students transferring from community colleges in the allocation of student aid.

Occupational Programs: The Commission recommends coordinated efforts at the federal, state, and local levels to stimulate the expansion of occupational education in community colleges and to make it responsive to changing manpower requirements. Continuing education for adults, as well as occupational education for college-age students, should be provided.

Guidance: The Commission recommends that all community colleges should provide adequate resources for effective guidance, including not only provision for an adequate professional counseling staff but also provision for involvement of the entire faculty in guidance of students enrolled in their courses. The Commission also recommends that all community college districts provide for effective coordination of their guidance services with those of local high schools and for coordination of both counseling and placement services with those of the public employment officers and other appropriate agencies.

Remedial Education: The Commission recommends that community colleges provide remedial education that is flexible and responsive to the individual student's needs, that such programs be subject to continual study and evaluation, and that community colleges seek the cooperation of other educational institutions in providing for remedial education. In addition, the Commission reaffirms its recommendation that an individualized "foundation year" be made available on an optional basis to all interested students.¹

Educational institutions of every kind certainly should be expected to be at the forefront of community interest, involvement and learning. The above statements in large measure speak to community education, though they single out the community college for particular definition of philosophy and purpose. Leadership in the community education movement is more and more coming to understand that community education is not a prerogative of any system, but must be actualized at every level of education. The Community Education Journal, for example, in every issue since its recent inception, gives credence to the role of the community college in its concern and involvement in people and community interests and services. Indeed, the community services development of the community college and the community education movement in the K-12 system are remarkably parallel.² The community college cannot be grouped with other

¹The Open-Door College, op. cit., pp. 15-23.

²See, for example, "Educational Interlink: Community Services and Community School," Gundar A. Myran and Jerry G. Solloway, in Community Education, Vol. 1, No. 2, May 1971, pp. 42-46.

institutions of higher learning which may be or may have been criticized as being "Ivory Towers" unrelated to people and real life.

Flexibility and versatility should be descriptors of the community college! The new focus of the educational process has changed from "input" to "output." Public judgments of academic excellence no longer are made on the basis of real or presumed administrative and staff competence, on facilities or campus, or even on admission requirements. An institution that rates well in its graduates--degreed and others--who have completed programs/courses successfully are viewed favorably. Opportunities and success of students in the employment market come under public scrutiny, and evidence of enrichment in the lives of those who, with diverse objectives, utilize the human and material resources afforded by the college are expected. Output clearly depends upon the process, and the process in the community college is its curriculum--what is taught and how it is taught.

Community College Curriculum: A Result of Decision

The educational needs of a community should be reflected in the community college curriculum which sets as its goal the practicalization of its philosophy and purposes. Community college catalogs generally announce both institutional philosophy and purposes in strikingly uniform expression. The statement from the Genesee Community College Catalog (1971-1972) provides an example which also addresses, pointedly, the subject of this study:

There are many measures of the effectiveness of a college. Some persons look only at size--the number of faculty, the size of the student body, or the number of buildings in use. The growth pattern of Genesee Community College would suggest something about its effectiveness and the value attached to it by the community.

But a more fundamental appraisal--a look at the part of the institution that sets it apart as a college is its curriculum.

One of the most pertinent criteria in appraising curriculum is the extent to which it meets the needs of the students. A continuing program of student testing, studies of community needs, and constant self-appraising is continuously improving the College's ability to meet changing standards.¹

The curriculum is vital to the community college. "The curriculum of any junior college truly identifies the institution's philosophy and objectives."² Programs and courses detail the diversified kinds of post-high-school educational opportunities made available for different people with differing needs within the community.

The curriculum elaborates educational opportunities judged appropriate through decision-making processes that require careful consideration and analysis of numerous factors which differ from place to place and from time to time. The curricular decision-making process is vital to the effective and efficient realization of the community college philosophy and purpose; it is the criterion of evaluation.³

Because decision-making is so important, it represents the chief problem to administration. Thornton recognizes that community junior colleges have not solved the problems of designing courses that will be appropriate.⁴ Blocker speaks of the problem of organizational structure:

Internally, the two-year private and public colleges have not demonstrated outstanding leadership in the implementation of new concepts of administrative organizations and

¹Genesee Community College Catalog, 1971-1972, p. 53.

²M. K. Paterson, "Curriculum of the Junior College," Junior College Journal, Vol. 29, No. 8, April 1959, p. 437.

³Griffiths, op. cit., p. 113.

⁴Thornton, op. cit., p. 38.

functioning. College administrators have been slow to recognize that, as the roles of their colleges expand both in terms of programs and in number of students served, administrative organization and relationships must be adapted to new needs within their institutions.¹

The administrative decision-making process is not a problem to be resolved once and for all, but to be improved continually. The concern of Blocker and Campbell appears rhetorical when they write that:

It may be true that junior colleges are carrying out their functions under their current administrative structure.

The question to be considered is whether these same institutions could move forward faster and on a higher qualitative level if another type of administrative structure were set up for them.²

Medsker speaks more directly to the purpose of this study:

The control pattern must be such as to recognize an institution as an entity with a character which it must achieve through pursuit of goals. (underscoring mine) In other words, each institution is a personality which like a human being has--or should have--hopes and ambitions to be fulfilled, and if not fulfilled, will wither and leave the institution sterile. This would seem particularly applicable to an agency such as the community college with its avowed purposes and objectives.³

Blocker, Plummer, Richardson, Campbell, and Medsker speak softly of the problem they each see. But Tom Spencer, referencing the Texas Coordinating Board and writing recently in the Junior College Journal is both direct and unapologetic in his approach. Ineffective and inefficient curricular decisions are so common, he writes, that community college educational integrity in providing programs for all members of the community needs to be questioned.⁴

¹Blocker, Plummer, Richardson, op. cit., p. 197.

²Clyde E. Blocker, Henry A. Campbell, Attitudes of Administrators Toward the Administrative Organization of Public Junior Colleges in Seven States, Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1962, p. 5.

³Leland L. Medsker, Patterns for the Control of Community Colleges, Establishing Legal Basis for Community Colleges, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1961, p. 15.

⁴Spencer, loc. cit.

Curricular Decision Making: Current, Vital, Comprehensive

Every institution is founded on and hopefully develops out of the needs of the people it serves. These needs "are continually growing, contracting, or changing in reaction to shifts in the forces of society and the evolving attitudes and needs of individuals and groups. Such is the nature of the junior college."¹

The changing needs and attitudes of individuals and groups induces constant pressure upon an institution's reserves and ingenuity, its flexibility and versatility to survive and prosper. The community college has been a response of society to its growing needs resultant upon the massive and rapid changes in Michigan and everywhere. It must seek to supply ideas and vehicles to meet community problems as they arise by addressing itself to the educational needs of every man.

Today, certainly as never before, the challenge to institutional growth and development in accordance with the accepted community college philosophy and purpose is surpassing. How, for example, does an institution which projects every person in the community as a potential student develop and continually modify curriculum for the economically, financially, culturally, educationally, and socially disadvantaged? How can it offer real and satisfying help to the high school non-graduate, minority, and ethnic groups, the low achiever? How can it address itself to the entire adult population in every age grouping and diversity of interest? How can those not academically inclined or able find occupational and vocational educational benefits that will enrich their lives and make useful their earning endeavors?

¹Donald E. Stanbury, A Study of the Administration of Michigan Junior Colleges, Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965, p. 5.

Short courses, term courses, vocational and occupational programs, developmental and special programs, adult and continuing educational opportunities...a sound and academically creditable program for the degree seeking who will continue their education in a senior college--each presents problems calling for decisions! "There is a growing consensus about the nature of the program of the comprehensive community college, which can best be summed up as a program for all."¹ (underscoring mine)

"Input" from those being served is necessary for effective decisions. Faculty attitudes bear too upon decisions. Recruitment care and in-service training has a particular significance in curriculum decisions, for faculty can often cause designed goals to be met or thwarted.

Many considerations affect the curricular decision-making process! Financial constraints and other limitations in human and material resources may present problems that demand careful choice of priorities among alternatives. What criteria are valid in making difficult decisions? Common sense, authority, intuition, revelation, or reason may not provide the most reliable means for obtaining knowledge about empirical relationships² when decisions are demanded and all considerations affecting them may not be readily perceptible or even known.

The administrator, therefore, must be continually alert to community needs and real life forces of every kind. Change is rapid. Societies' needs are impelling. The more that is known about the curricular decision-making process, the better it can be examined for effectiveness and efficiency. It is hoped that this study will provide a needed touchstone for

¹ Medsker, op. cit., p. 53.

² Sax, op. cit., p. 6ff.

administrators and others responsible for curricular decisions, to help bring about an optimally effective and efficient curricular decision-making process in the Michigan community colleges.

Purpose of this Study

The whole community comprises the potential student body of the community college. Educational opportunity for the people should be unlimited, for the community college is committed to providing education at changing points of need in the life of each individual.

It will readily be seen that basic functions of community colleges are not wisely determined by assumptions, preconceived notions or by mere imitation of senior-college programs; not even by following the plans of other community institutions, however well they may be suited to meet the needs of the people of communities in which they are located. Communities differ in many respects. While some needs may be universal, ...they also vary according to the manner in which people make their living.¹

Bogue repeats his thoughts for strong emphasis: "If the final goal, namely, proper education for all the people of the community without regard to race, sex, religion, color, geographical location, or financial status is missed in the initial planning stages, the basic functions (underscoring mine) of the community college will be only partially provided."²

The community college curricula in each institution must be broadly inclusive and carefully designed for the community it serves. The rapid changes in society are such that the community college, alert to them, needs constantly to alter its curricula for functional efficiency and effectiveness.

¹Jesse Parker Bogue, The Community College, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950, p. 46.

²Bogue, loc. cit.

It is proposed in this study to learn "the nature and degree of existing conditions"¹ in curricular decision-making processes, and criteria that affect decisions made in selected Michigan community colleges.

Specifically, the decision-making processes in these selected colleges will be examined to elucidate the discriminating paths of a curricular suggestion's origin and/or initiation, diversion, rejection, or acceptance, and the criteria of decision at each evaluative point. Common and unique characteristics of the decision-making processes and criteria affecting decisions will be examined and presented. Recommendations drawn from this study and in the light of generally recognized community college philosophy and purpose will be offered as a touchstone for those responsible in making curricular decisions.

Research questions proposed for this study are, therefore, the following:

- RQ₁ What is the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made?
- RQ₂ What are the various decision points in the process?
- RQ₃ At which decision point are arguments favoring a curriculum modification most carefully and minutely drawn?
- RQ₄ Are written criteria specifically established at each decision point (other than the final point of acceptance/rejection) as guide to the judgment of decision makers?
- RQ₅ Is a systems analysis approach to problem solving (such as that described by Bushnell) used in the curricular decision-making process?
- RQ₆ Who is involved in the curricular decision-making process?
- RQ₇ What is the nature of their involvement?
- RQ₈ What is the balance of authority and control over curricular decisions between the administration and the faculty?

¹Lehmann, op. cit., p. 95. The authors speak of descriptive research as being "primarily concerned with determining the nature and degree of existing conditions."

- RQ₉ Do the deans (directors, coordinators...) of the academic (liberal arts, transfer...) curriculum and of the occupational (vocational, technical...) curriculum report to the same dean of instruction or chief instructional officer?
- RQ₁₀ What importance is attached to the curriculum committee in curriculum development?
- RQ₁₁ Which groups, external to the college, place regulatory constraints on the curriculum?
- RQ₁₂ What sources of information are used by curricular decision makers?
- RQ₁₃ How are priorities chosen when needs are equal and resources are limited?
- RQ₁₄ In decisions related to non-credit community-need programs and courses, and in the establishment and implementation of community enrichment and cultural programs, what influence of the K-12 system in its community education efforts is found?
- RQ₁₅ Are community service non-academic-credit programs and courses integrated into the same decision-making process as credit-bearing courses or what in-put do they receive, prior to decision, from divisional or curriculum committee members?
- RQ₁₆ What are the channels or steps a proposal for an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows to its final acceptance, modification, or rejection?

Hypotheses to this study are the following:

- H₁ The complete procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made is not set forth in any college publication.
- H₂ Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established.
- H₃ The division evidences major control over curriculum development.
- H₄ Criteria specifically written as a guide to the judgment of decision makers are not found at any decision point.
- H₅ A curricular decision-making model which uses a systems analysis approach to problem solving is not found in the colleges studied.
- H₆ Everyone in the community, theoretically at least, is involved in the curricular decision-making process.
- H₇ Actual involvement in curriculum development is reserved to teaching faculty and administration.
- H₈ In matters of curriculum decisions, administration evidences a primacy of control over the faculty.

- H₉ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of occupational (vocational, technical...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of credit-bearing continuing (adult) education programs report to the same single officer.
- H₁₀ The curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development.
- H₁₁ Program accrediting associations and groups which control money-flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints on the curriculum.
- H₁₂ Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed.
- H₁₃ When needs are equal and resources are limited, priorities are chosen pragmatically (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution).
- H₁₄ The community college views itself as a leading agency of community education.
- H₁₅ Advisory Boards to the Community Services Division of the community college do not require qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest.
- H₁₆ A unified relationship between the community service efforts of the community college and the community education efforts of the K-12 system is not found.
- H₁₇ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of Community Service Divisions which offer non-credit academic courses and non-academic programs, courses or activities function without the approval of academic and occupational administration and faculty.

Assumptions to this Study

The accepted worth of all the community college objectives is acknowledged by everyone. Although each college may find itself at a different stage in the realization of what is ideal, the general acceptance of community college philosophy and purpose is assumed in this study. Similarly, it is unquestioned that community education includes meaningful options for college-age students and adults, including general education, education for transfer, occupational programs, remedial courses and continuing education programs for adults. Of paramount importance are cultural

programs designed to enrich the community environment, programs not otherwise available, offered in harmony with other institutions and agencies which provide educational services.

Physical and financial accessibility to all people in the community--including the culturally, educationally, economically and socially disadvantaged, high school non-graduates, minority and ethnic groups--is assumed in this study, even though it may express only an ideal to be strived for in some colleges.

In general, it is accepted in this study that an ideal which identifies an institution's philosophy and purpose by its curricula is uncontested.

Delimitations of this Study

This study, which examines the curricular decision-making processes in select Michigan community colleges, is not designed to critique any one process or program. While recommendations will naturally evolve from it, this study is "primarily concerned with determining the nature and degree of existing conditions,"¹ and should not be viewed as an evaluative study, as such, of any college. As Sax points out in his Empirical Foundations of Educational Research, remediating or ameliorative steps can be taken only after the current status of a problem is described. Once this information is available, resolutions to the problem can begin.²

This study is confined to the selected colleges under review. While such a study hopefully will provide a touchstone and therefore be useful

¹Lehmann, loc. cit.

²Sax, op. cit., p. 36.

to those responsible for curricular decisions in other Michigan community colleges, it does not generalize its findings or conclusions to them.

In every organization, both formal and informal, elements are at work in the administrative process. This study is limited to the formal element. Blau and Scott define the formal organization as "any organization which has been set up to accomplish stated objectives requiring collective effort on the part of many individuals."¹ The informal element could be the basis for another important study.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this paper, the following terms will be understood as defined herein:

Community college educational limitations--These are understood as set forth in the definition of a community college.

Community college, two-year college, and junior college--These terms are used interchangeably to describe an institution which offers two years of post-high school education encompassing general education programs, education for transfer, terminal programs, adult education, developmental programs, community service programs, programs in counseling and guidance, or at least several of these.

Community Service Programs--Any program, sometimes including adult education programs, that is designed to serve the community and individuals which comprise it, by making available, as an extension of the regular school program, educational opportunities of a broad nature in response to general community needs and/or the expressed interest of a community group.²

¹Peter M. Blau, Richard W. Scott, Formal Organizations, San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962, p. 39.

²Thornton, op. cit., pp. 67-68.

Continuing Education, Adult Education--Any program of training, offered in cooperation with other public educational institutions, which provides for the diverse educational needs (including cultural and vocational education) of adults living in the area.¹

Counseling and Guidance Programs--Any program of training designed to help a student "discover his aptitudes, choose a career, and prepare for it."²

Criterion--A test, means of judging, a standard of judging; any established law, rule, principle or fact by which a correct judgment may be formed.³

Curriculum--"The aggregate of courses of study given in a school, college, university, etc."⁴

Decision-making process--Those steps, similar to the following, which precede a decision and are described by Griffiths:

- A. Recognize, define, and limit the problem.
- B. Analyze and evaluate the problem.
- C. Establish criteria or standards by which solutions will be evaluated or judged as acceptable and adequate to the need.
- D. Collect data.
- E. Formulate and select the preferred solution or solutions. Test them in advance.
- F. Put into effect the preferred solution.
 - 1) Program the solution.
 - 2) Control the activities in the program.
 - 3) Evaluate the results and the process.⁵

¹Bogue, loc. cit.

²Bogue, op. cit., p. 53.

³Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary, Unabridged, Second Edition, Jean L. McKechnie, Editor, New York: The World Publishing Co., 1958.

⁴Random House, op. cit., p. 356.

⁵Griffiths, op. cit., p. 94.

Developmental Programs--Any program that provides opportunities for students who are deficient in meeting established college entrance standards to help them qualify for admission in the senior college they may choose.¹

Education for transfer--"Lower division or the first two years of senior-college work for the limited number of students who plan transfer to a university after completing two years in junior college."²

Effective--"Adequate to accomplishing a purpose; producing the intended or expected result."³

Efficient--"Performing or functioning in the best possible and least wasteful manner."⁴

Essence--"The basic, real, and unvariable nature of a thing or its significant individual feature or features."⁵

General education--That training which prepares (a person) to function effectively as a member of a family, a community, a state, a nation.⁶

Occupational, vocational, terminal, and/or technical education--These terms are used interchangeably in this study to describe community college programs of formal education which are completed in two years or less and are "designed to provide occupational competence, civic competence and personal adequacy."⁷

¹Bogue, loc. cit.

²Bogue, loc. cit.

³Random House Dictionary of the English Language, Jess Stein, New York: Random House, 1969, p. 455.

⁴Loc. cit.

⁵Ibid., p. 487.

⁶Bogue, loc. cit.

⁷Bogue, loc. cit.

Process--"The action of moving forward progressively from one point to another on the way to completion; the action of passing through continuing development from a beginning to a contemplated end; the action of continuously going through each of a succession of acts, events or developmental stages; continued onward movement (or flow)."¹

Touchstone--"A test or criterion for determining the quality or genuineness of a thing."²

Overview of the Study

The curricular decision-making processes in select Michigan community colleges is the subject of this study. Characteristics of effectiveness and efficiency in this process, viewed against the backdrop of recognized community college purposes and philosophy and drawn from this study will be highlighted. Suitable recommendations, consequent to the study, will be offered.

An extensive review of pertinent current literature is seen as a major part of this study, and will be reported in Chapter II. Questions basic to curricular decision making will be reviewed and problems inherent in and fundamental to each curriculum will be noted.

The literature will be searched for relevant thought addressed to criteria--constraints, barriers, influences, determinants--which affect curricular decisions to be made. Pressures upon the curricula, whether regulatory, advisory, stimulating or informational will be reported as found in the literature and summarized.

¹
Webster's Third International Dictionary, P. B. Gove, Editor,
Springfield, Massachusetts: G and C Merriam Co., Publishers, 1965, p. 1808.

²
Webster's Seventh Collegiate Dictionary, Jess Stein, Editor,
Springfield, Massachusetts: G and C Merriam Co., Publishers, 1971, p. 935.

Traditional models of curricular decision-making processes will be noted and more recent processes--systems analysis models--will be carefully described.

The question of administrative, faculty, student, and other participative involvement in the curricular decision-making process will be incidental to this review, though not neglected--its value generally recognized insofar as the traditional role of the administrator has already been, and is likely to be, more democratized.¹

In Chapter III the method used in conducting this study will be presented. The sources of data will be described and the reasons for their selection explained. Personal, structured interviews will be conducted in each college to gain answers to the research questions of this study and to test its hypotheses.

Preliminary to this study, personal informal interviews with personnel of the State Board for Public and Community Junior Colleges and of the Michigan Community College Association were arranged to engage the interest of these groups, to gain relevant information and to exchange, informally, useful thoughts about this research problem.

The findings of the investigation will be presented in Chapter IV. Following the presentation of data from each college, a summary of the findings will be given. Under a general summary, the findings in each college will be related to one another.

¹See, e.g., "Needed: New Directions in Administration," Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 6: March 1970, pp. 16-22. Also, William L. Deegan, "Students and Governance: Where are We? Where are We Going?" Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 5: February 1972, pp. 38-50. Note also the changes in the traditional role of the administrator consequent to collective bargaining.

Chapter V will present a summary of this study. Recommendations forthcoming from this study will be offered and suggestions given for further research as a corollary of this study will be made.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

Introduction

In 1961, in his study of Evaluation in Higher Education, Dressel was able to reflect back upon the increased importance research in higher education had taken on in the 1950's. He predicted that the demand for and the patterns of research in the years ahead would depend upon the then current studies.¹

The problems of increasing costs, numbers of students and demands upon educational institutions to meet the needs of society in a developing "age of discontinuity"² were already, at the end of World War II, pressing the imaginations of serious-minded educators for solution. Evidence of educational adequacy and effectiveness had to be searched out then as now. Predictions and assessments of future needs had to accentuate expected costs and estimate whether they could be satisfied.

Current literature reveals new problems and new emphases. They do not necessarily replace the old ones--justification of budgets, increasing enrollments, plant-facility assessments. They more likely add to them as the rapidity of change in society creates cycle upon cycle without allowing the administrator the comfort of first seeing the completion of those already perhaps long-since set in motion.³

¹Paul L. Dressel and Associates, Evaluation in Higher Education, Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961, p. 389.

²Peter F. Drucker, Age of Discontinuity, New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

³Alvin Toffler, Future Shock, New York: Random House, 1970.

Perhaps never before in the history of American higher education has there been such a flux and change as the enterprise reacts to the pressures and problems, costs, increased amounts of new knowledge, and greater social demand for service. As colleges and universities struggle to adapt techniques and programs to new conditions, the curriculum obviously becomes a major focus of attention.¹

Basic Issues in Curriculum Decision Making

In this review of literature, attention centers upon the processes of curricular decision making and on criteria that affect decisions to be made. Decisions are possible only within one's area of freedom, for constraints, when they exist, necessarily limit one's conduct. Even bounded by the same restrictions, decision makers choose differently when confronting identical problems. An examination into "the mind of the decision maker" of course transcends this study. Nonetheless, since basic issues are resolved or accommodated in accordance with each decision-maker's biases, convictions, or philosophy, they need to be reported in this review. It is generally recognized, furthermore, that not only individuals but institutional groupings of people develop an outlook that becomes definitive when challenged by certain kinds of problems.

Among these issues, basic to curricular decision making, Mayhew suggests several questions: stressing culture vs. utility in the college's endeavor; transmitting general overviews of knowledge vs. providing concentrated effort in a limited field; an open or closed, elective or prescribed curriculum; whether programs and courses should be designed for the elite or for everyone; whether they should be student or subject oriented, discipline or problem oriented; should the sciences or the

¹ Lewis B. Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, Georgia: Southern Regional Education Board, 1966, p. 1.

humanities most characterize the curriculum?¹ In recent attempts at curricular construction, according to Mayhew, a struggle to accommodate all of these issues is found.²

After enumerating several curricular efforts, Mayhew sums up by saying that "no clear resolution of basic issues has yet been accomplished... and that resolution is not likely, for the issues seem rooted in man's condition, in the change and flux of life, and in society. "However," he is quick to add, "each institution and each professor must attempt to resolve them."³ To assist in this process, Mayhew offers several suggestions: "a clear recognition that the undergraduate college is neither a graduate nor a professional school, ...that the needs and demands of undergraduates can be identified by watching what they do outside of the formal curriculum, ...and by a systems analysis approach to curriculum."⁴

There are many ways to approach curriculum development, according to Dressel. Too often a systematic approach to curriculum development is lacking and curricular decisions are made on the basis of expediency rather than sound judgment.⁵

Discussions of curriculum too often are preoccupied with means rather than ends, with details rather than structure, and with courses rather than learning. Although many hours may be spent developing a statement of objectives, the statement hardly provides practical guidance for curriculum planning. Faculty members usually recognize that the college exists to educate students. Driven by the

¹Ibid., pp. 1-4.

²Loc. cit.

³Ibid., pp. 11-13.

⁴Loc. cit.

⁵Paul L. Dressel, College and University Curriculum, Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Company, 1968; p. 12.

administration to restudy curriculum, they feel obligated to state (or restate) objectives. Bewildered, disturbed, and exhausted by the time and energy expended in reaching an agreement, the faculty finally issues a statement of pious hopes and exhortations rather than a program of curriculum review. The statement contains some reference to each of the disciplines to please the various segments of the faculty, some expression of concern for citizenship and social participation to satisfy the personnel staff and some allusion to religion or values to satisfy the president, trustees, and parents. The objectives are so inclusive, vague, and inconsistent that they satisfy no one, and no one expects they will be met. Moreover, faculty members think primarily in terms of their own courses and most of the objectives do not define the conduct of a single course.¹

Administrative officers, according to Dressel, have lost control over the curriculum because they have been "unwilling to face the unpopularity of a ruthless review of curriculum and curriculum development practices."² Circumstance, rather than deliberation, has conceded to departments' curriculum control even though administration is best "able to grasp the total curriculum and to evaluate it in relation to the individual student and to pervasive educational goals...."³ Curriculum profusion, confusion, and waste is the result of happenstance management, and "the ensuing pressure upon the student to choose a vocation early threatens to destroy liberal and general education."⁴

Failure to confront issues, according to Dressel, creates a no-policy situation that makes decision making a game of chance, lacking both system and objectivity. Basic issues need resolution if decision making is to be based on sound judgment rather than upon what appears expeditious

¹Ibid., p. 15.

²Ibid., p. 12.

³Loc. cit.

⁴Loc. cit.

at the moment. For example, "(a) What student shall we educate? (b) To what ends shall they be educated? (c) What shall constitute the materials and means of instruction? (d) How much diversity in programs and goals shall be encouraged and permitted? (e) How can the quality of higher education be evaluated and improved? (f) How is higher education to be financed?"¹

Dressel discusses three distinctive approaches to curriculum development. That "which involves considerations of educational philosophy," he says, "is instructive but unsuitable to pluralistic institutions."² Unsuitable or not, however, it is evident in the literature that philosophical attitudes, biases, theories, value judgments, and underlying decisions of curricular decision makers are extremely important criteria, constraints or determinants of curriculum in the practical order of reality.³

The approach (see figure on following page) which "defines objectives, selects and organizes appropriate educational experiences, then evaluates their effectiveness...is commendable," Dressel says, "but it does not describe what goes on in actual curriculum development."⁴

Dressel's four continuums, he suggests, is an approach to a structure for curriculum analysis especially adapted to colleges and universities.⁵ Each involves resolution of basic issues in the creation of policy by which decision makers should be guided in the exercise of their curricular

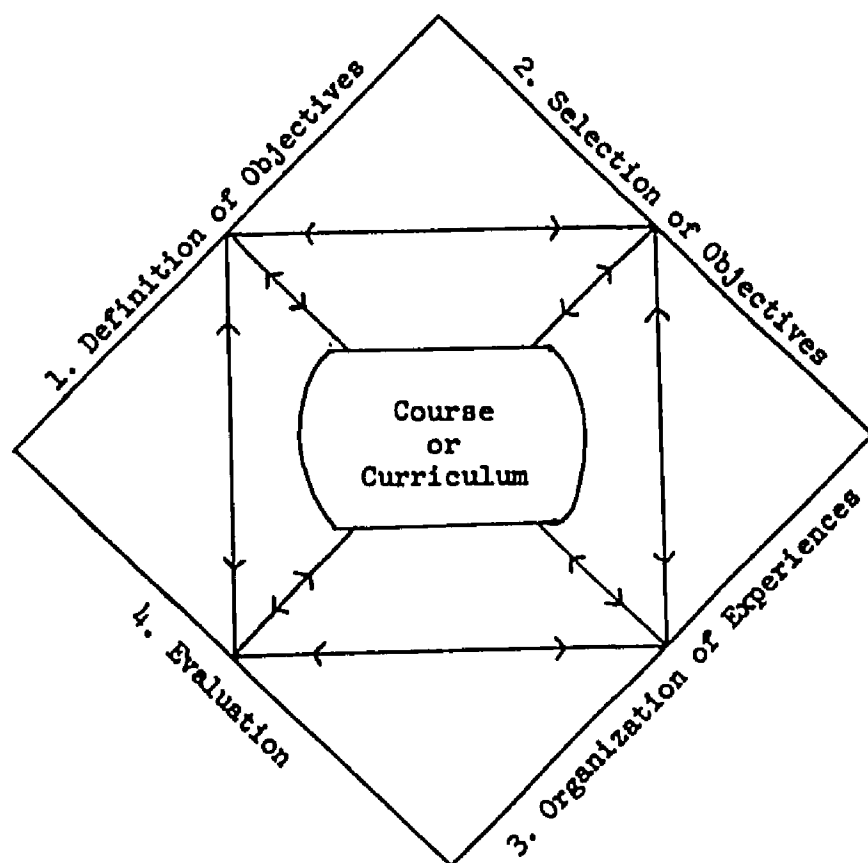
¹Loc. cit.

²Ibid., p. 15.

³Cf., e.g., James W. Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1969, pp. 141-142.

⁴Loc. cit.

⁵Dressel, College and University Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 16-25.



Footnote 1.

responsibilities, and, as such, become criteria against which decisions are examined before being drawn.

¹ Paul L. Dressel, The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education, Stages in Curriculum Planning (from Chapter II, Figure 1, "Basic Considerations in Curriculum Planning"), The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., Washington, D. C., 1963, p. 25.

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|--|--|
| 1. <u>Individual student.....</u> | <u>Disciplines</u> |
| Personal development | Mastery of content |
| Behavioral orientation | Structure and methodology of disciplines |
| Affective concerns | Scholarly objectivity |
| 2. <u>Problems, policies, actions.....</u> | <u>Abstractions, ideas, theories</u> |
| Competencies | Verbal facility |
| Present and future oriented | Past oriented |
| 3. <u>Flexibility, autonomy.....</u> | <u>Rigidity, conformity</u> |
| Adaptation to individual's needs and interests | Prescribed program and standards based on demands of disciplines and/or "average" student or ideal scholar |
| Democratic | Authoritarian |
| 4. <u>Integration, coherence, and.....</u> | <u>Compartmentalization, inconsistency, and discord in learning experiences</u> |
| <u>unity in and from learning experiences</u> | |

Continuums Suggestive of Possible Curricular Emphases¹

"The first contrasts concern for the individual student with concern for the discipline. If concern for the individual dominates program development, then objectives emphasize the growth and development of the individual in a wide range of areas and roles.... At the other extreme of this continuums, the disciplines represent the accumulated wisdom of mankind and are more important than the individual who merely assimilates them."²

"The second continuum contrasts a practical with an 'ivory tower' conception of education. On one side, the curriculum focuses on problems and on the policies, actions and competencies required to deal effectively with them.... The other extreme of the continuum emphasizes knowledge and understanding of abstractions, ideas and theories."³

¹Ibid., p. 16.

²Ibid., p. 16-17.

³Ibid., p. 17.

"The third continuum contrasts highly flexible, adaptable programs with rigid, uniformly imposed patterns. At the left extreme, the student is free to plan his program, state his goals, and perhaps even set his standards for attainment of them. At the right the student conforms to prescribed programs and standards."¹

"The fourth continuum contrasts programs which seek integration, coherence and unity with those which ignore these qualities."²

Dressel cautions that despite the obvious relationships between these continuums, they are largely independent of one another, so that, for example, "concern for the individual student does not necessarily lead to a problem-oriented curriculum."³

Among other basic issues, therefore, which affect curricular decisions to be made, and must be viewed as criteria, when and if they are resolved, are these questions which must be confronted:

1. Should the curriculum emphasize the disciplines or the interests, needs, and motivations of the individual?
2. Should the curriculum be theoretical and abstract, or should it confront the issues and the problems of the era?
3. Is a discipline an accumulation of knowledge or a mode of thought?
4. How is the attainment of breadth, depth, integration, coherence, and unity in learning related to the use of the disciplines as a basis for curriculum organization?⁴

¹Ibid., p. 17-18.

²Ibid., p. 18.

³Loc. cit.

⁴Ibid., p. 39.

Frederick Shaw, writing in The Review of Educational Research, declares that curricula has developed as a simple result of "the facts of life" or circumstances. Social, economic and demographic forces, advances in technology, political influences (governmental programs, interest groups) and the knowledge explosion have been more important to the approach of a structure for curricular development than has theory. "The most important curricular innovations were introduced (in recent years) in response (not to curricular theory, but) to social, economic and intellectual problems, such as the influx of minority groups into big cities, the growth of automation in industry, and the knowledge explosion."¹ And yet everyone seems to agree that "the community college is destined to be a keystone for fundamental structural changes which can be expected in higher education in America in the next half-century"²—that the program of the community college should be comprehensive and "must be rationally planned, coordinated, and renewed so that students are encouraged through classroom and guidance experiences to re-examine their educational and career goals and to change direction if they so choose."³ Medsker and Tillery say that "the educational package designed for each student from the several components of the comprehensive program is what makes the community college something special."⁴ Wise curriculum planning shares

¹Frederick Shaw, "The Changing Curriculum," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36, No. 3: June 1966, pp. 349-350.

²Clifford G. Erickson, "The Community College--Keystone for Change," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 6: March 1970, p. 16.

³Leland L. Medsker and Dale Tillery, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971, p. 53.

⁴Ibid., p. 53-54.

a world of new promise, according to Shane and Shane, and demands that particular attention be given to the speculative process.¹

Kelley and Wilbur recognize the curriculum as the center of the community college, and report survey samples of faculty views that point up issues and problems basic to a structured and efficient curricular-making process.

The problem is where a two-year college education should begin and end.

Trying to offer both terminal and transfer programs simultaneously is like serving two masters.

In the junior college there is a procedure of repetitiveness of high school subjects; there's a need for more varied subjects.

What subjects best prepare students for transfer?

With so many things to be taught, what should be selected?

In establishing curriculum, how can we remain a college and yet help people become adults?

How do you develop a comprehensive college, one that offers subjects that meet the needs of all the students who wish to enroll?

The problem of emphasis on programs--what should it be?

How can the junior college programs bridge the gap between high school and senior colleges or universities?

Presentation of a curriculum geared to all aspects of the modern world and present-day society with the future in mind but not forgetting the past.

Finding curriculum and study designed for terminal students, the non-major, and majors in a given field.

Reconciliation of differences between various disciplines as to their relative importance and emphasis in the curriculum.²

In looking at basic issues that underlie curricular decision making, Burns and Brooks place emphasis on the learner. In their review of curricular reform since 1950, they conclude that curricular reform must deal

¹June Grant Shane and Harold G. Shane, "Cultural Change and the Curriculum," in Richard W. Burns and Gary D. Brooks (Editors), Curriculum Design in a Changing Society, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1970.

²Win Kelley and Leslie Wilbur, Teaching in the Community Junior College, New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Merdith Corporation, 1970, pp. 203-204.

first with content which has changed little since the 1880's and that "none of the reforms have gone far enough to produce the curricula needed for today's education."¹ Of particular importance, they say, "is the development of curriculum designs worthy of modern technology."²

Science instruction is leading the way in recognizing the process deficiency in education. Learners need to know more than mere information--they need to know how information is gathered, identified and transformed; in short, they need to know how information is used. Learning must involve more than the mere memorization of facts and principles. Learning must involve an understanding of the methods by which fields of knowledge have been constructed. Learners should know the "hows" and "whys"--the whole structure of the sciences, mathematics and social sciences. Learners must develop skill in using the same processes that physicists, historians, zoologists, economists, and others use to study and pry information out of our natural and social environment. Learners need to know the methods, the ways--the processes--by which factual information, once gained, is transformed into generalizations, concepts, principles and laws. Learners need to know how to learn, how to use what they have learned and how to communicate about what they have learned.³

Change, adaptation, flexibility, vitality--these are terms running through a vast amount of literature that discusses the community college curricula. Wilcox, after conceding that the curriculum "is in a state of transition"⁴--that he "hasn't the vaguest idea" about a new curriculum and thinks that no one else does either ("et nemo alius quid scit")--advises that "any curriculum that does not provide for rapid adaptation,

¹Burns and Brooks, "The Need for Curricular Reform," in Curriculum Design in a Changing Society, p. 4.

²Loc. cit.

³Ibid., p. 5.

⁴Edward T. Wilcox, "The New Curriculum," Junior College Journal, Vol. 33, No. 6: February 1963, p. 16.

that cannot, almost at a moment's notice, override college or departmental rules and regulations, that leaves no provision for by-passing prerequisites or substituting requirements--such a curriculum, however freshly designed today, will tomorrow be moribund and of only historical interest."¹ Wilcox predicts more adaptive change, and notes that "it is the overriding flexibility that makes it possible to define and encompass the 'new curriculum'."²

Medsker and Tillery conclude their excellent study Breaking the Access Barriers with the same theme of change and the implications that relate the community college to society:

The two-year college movement has made significant strides during the first six decades of the twentieth century. Without doubt, however, its supreme test is yet to come, perhaps during the seventies. Almost certainly the period immediately ahead will bring profound social changes, and there will be a need (that exceeds even that of prior years) for an institution like the community college. For it to respond to these changes will require the greatest possible input on the part of those within the institution as well as of persons who occupy leadership positions in government and other segments of education. Planning must be done and appropriate staff prepared. Adequate resources must become available and the public's understanding of the two-year college role must increase. The process will require time, understanding, and cooperation on the part of students, faculty, administrators, board members, legislators, and the public at large. The potential of the two-year college to revitalize American education is high, and it is waiting to be realized fully.³

Burns and Brooks outline a series of cogent reasons, not so clearly and carefully delineated by others, to point up the need for a curricular decision-making structure and system to accommodate them effectively and efficiently:

¹Loc. cit.

²Loc. cit.

³Medsker, op. cit., p. 153.

1. We are living in a global society wherein "provincialism and isolationism are rapidly becoming dead ideologies."¹
2. Our world is rapidly changing:

What is needed are curricula designed not as collections of independent bits of knowledge, not as isolated and static subjects learned in a vacuum. Instead, our curricula must reflect the complex interrelationships and processes inherent in the many problems facing our society. Knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, appreciations, interests and processes should be studied as integrated units in curricular designs which reflect the rapidly changing aspects of our society. Learners must think; that is, use all of the mental processes implied in problem solving, instead of merely remembering, as they are currently required to do in recalling information.²

3. "Knowledge is increasing at a geometric ratio...information usage must be emphasized in the curriculum."³
4. "Present curricula and present teaching methods emphasize information learning rather than discovery, problem solving.... Textbook learning, teacher telling, lectures and factual achievement tests all indicate the overwhelming emphasis placed on the mastery of information in our present system."⁴
5. "There is a lack of relevancy between in-school education and out-of-school life."⁵
6. "There is a prohibitive time lag in education between the discovery of new techniques and the incorporation of these techniques into educational practice."⁶
7. "General education and core curricula are presently too survey oriented."⁷

¹Burns and Brooks, op. cit. p. 6.

²Ibid., p. 7.

³Ibid., p. 8.

⁴Loc. cit.

⁵Ibid., p. 9.

⁶Ibid., p. 10.

⁷Ibid., p. 11.

8. "There are new technical innovations for which new curricular patterns can be designed."

Learners should be brought into visual and audio contact with government, business, religious, social and military leaders. The environment of far-away places should be brought into the classroom. Efficient learning materials must be designed that are guaranteed to result in learning if used properly. Children should be trained in computer language, computer skills and similar functions so that they can use technological aids in learning.¹

9. "Urban Living, Family Structure, Mobility and Individual Responsibility" are considerations needing attention.

Should schools stress individuality and individual freedom, or should they train individuals to become effective members of groups—such as families, communities, states and nations? They should do both. Should schools educate students to develop their personal role, their unique talents, or should schools develop good citizens, with a high degree of interest and responsibility in public affairs? They should do both.

Urban living, giant industries, huge federal programs, increased mobility of the population, large tax burdens, military service and changing moral values cause individuals to become lost, isolated and alienated.²

10. "There is an increased recognition of the needs of minority groups and minority group problems."³
11. "Our knowledge of what is true is constantly changing."⁴
12. "Significant advances have been made in learning theory--which have not been applied to classroom practices to any significant degree."⁵
13. "The behavioral definition of learning products has revealed deficiencies in our present curricula.... Present and past educational reforms in courses, curricula, methods

¹Ibid., p. 13.

²Loc. cit.

³Ibid., p. 13-14.

⁴Ibid., p. 14-15.

⁵Loc. cit.

and testing will never achieve the desired and necessary changes until specific objectives are carefully defined."¹

14. "Productivity has released man from the necessity of long labor, so that he can pursue recreational skills and leisure-time skills of a creative nature."²

Quite obviously, unless basic issues are identified and resolved in each college, they will inhibit policy decisions that should guide curricular decisions and will impede or delay the vital process by which a community college must respond to the continually changing forces of life. Unless articulated and resolved, underlying attitudes, biases, philosophies, theories and value judgments of the board, the administration, the faculty, even the students and the community, of the curricular decision makers will form indefinable and obscure criteria for decision. Inefficiency and ineffectiveness, frustration and apathy must then be expected in the decision-making process.

Cohen exposes a few more basic issues ("myths," he calls them) which need to be clarified and understood with common mentality by the curricular decision makers in each college:

1. Only transfer credits are "college level."
2. "College level" courses are determined by the nature of the subject taught.
3. Education for immediate employment is less "collegiate."
4. Everything must be formally taught to be learned--
everything must be taught.
5. The method of instruction is all-important.
6. "Value-free instruction" is possible and useful.

¹Loc. cit.

²Loc. cit.

7. The community college is an open-system.
8. Junior colleges offer a liberal, general education to their students.¹

Institutional Goals and Decision Making

In the Journal of Higher Education, Alexander W. Astin writes that "...few activities are more important to American higher education than systematic, perceptive planning and decision making."² Espousing management by objectives, he adds, in another place, that "...the starting point for effective planning and decision making should be a clarification and understanding of the goals of the institution...."³

According to Medsker and Tillery, there are some leaders in American education who think that the community colleges cannot fulfill its comprehensive function.⁴ Medsker and Tillery, with so many others, recognize that positive action in various directions will be required by innumerable individuals and many agencies if junior colleges are to reach their potential in the decade ahead.⁵ They recognize too that "the precise nature of these actions will vary according to the perception of the individuals who will take them"⁶--resolution of basic issues in accord with the recognized philosophy and objectives of the community college movement, and a well thought-out plan of action. The public community colleges--

¹Arthur M. Cohen, Dateline '79: Heretical Concepts for the Community College, Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1969, p. 78-83.

²Alexander W. Astin, "Open Admissions and Programs for the Disadvantaged," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 42, No. 8: November 1971, p. 669.

³Ibid., p. 673.

⁴Medsker, op. cit., p. 147.

⁵Ibid., p. 146.

⁶Loc. cit.

specifically members of governing boards, administrators and faculty-- bear an exceedingly heavy responsibility to reassess their goals and the means of attaining them. "Greater faculty commitment to community college program development will require (1) opportunities for faculty to study new approaches to curriculum and instruction and to try new models; (2) systematic faculty involvement in the decision-making process at the campus and interinstitutional levels...."¹

The formulation of educational objectives involves basic decisions consciously made by those responsible for making them. Unless they are acceptable to those affected by them, and are realistic and feasible, they are unlikely to be attained. The present level of student development, their needs and interests is one type of source commonly used in thinking about institutional objectives. The conditions and problems of contemporary life is another. "The nature of the subject matter and the deliberation of subject-matter specialists on the contribution their subject is able to make to the education of the individual" is a third source.² "...objectives are not only the goals toward which the curriculum is shaped and toward which instruction is guided, but they are also the goals that provide the detailed specification for the construction and use of evaluative techniques."³

Tyler offers four fundamental questions which, he says, must be answered in developing any curriculum and plan of instruction.

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

¹Ibid., p. 147.

²Benjamin S. Bloom, Editor, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956, pp. 26-27.

³Ibid., p. 27.

2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?¹

Tyler affirms, with others, the importance of acceptable resolution of basic issues in each institution, for "in the final analysis objectives are matters of choice and they must therefore be the considered value judgments of those responsible for the school."²

In their report from Project Focus, Bushnell and Zagaris offer evidence that a consensus on the multiple purposes that the community college should serve is emerging. If it is true that basic issues are being hammered out and that general recognition of community college institutional goals is being reached as appears from the consensus of the 12,800 respondents to the Project Focus goal inventory, then community colleges are indeed fortunate as compared with other forms of higher education.³ Curricular decision making depends upon defined institutional goals as it does also upon the resolution of all issues basic to it. These are indeed criteria by which curricular decisions are made.

¹Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Illinois: University of Chicago, 1950, pp. 1-2.

²Ibid., p. 3.

³David S. Bushnell, Ivars Zagaris, Report from Project Focus: Strategies for Change, Washington, D. C., American Association of Junior Colleges, 1972, p. 55. (In August 1970, Project Focus was established under the auspices of the American Association of Junior Colleges with financial support from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. Edmund J. Glaezer, Jr., Executive Director of the Association, took a year's leave of absence in order to serve as director of the project. David S. Bushnell and Ivars Zagaris undertook to marshal statistical data related to the information obtained by Dr. Glaezer during his extensive field visits. It is this data, gathered by means of questionnaires and other data sources, which is reported and interpreted in Strategies for Change.)

Fundamental Decision-Making Issues in Community College Curricula

The growing consensus about the nature of the program of the comprehensive community college "can best be summed up as a program for all."¹ The comprehensive program, designed to serve the most diverse population in all of education, encompasses general education, preparation for advanced study (preparation for transfer to a senior college or university), career education (including vocational, occupational and technical education), developmental (or remedial) education, continuing (often called "adult") education for life and community service. The function of student guidance, unquestioned as of paramount importance, is expected as part of the comprehensive program in a community college, but does not relate directly to this study which focuses upon curricula.

Agreement about curricular emphases is not universal. The literature reveals various points of tension among writers, and sometimes heated argument for specific points of view is found. A balanced program in any institution appears easier to discuss than to fashion. Each curriculum presents special problems that must be confronted in the decision-making process and resolved.

Transfer Curriculum

Historically, junior colleges were either "upward extensions of secondary education, feeder colleges to four-year colleges, or decapitated four-year colleges."² Their programs of study were predominantly,

¹ Medsker, op. cit., p. 53.

² James F. Hall, "Program for the Community College," The Community College in Higher Education, John A. Stoops, Editor, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania: Lehigh University, 1966, p. 30.

if not entirely, preparatory in nature. Transfer programs today continue to be the most constant and usually the main feature in most junior and community colleges. "Not only do all community colleges offer transfer level courses, but an inspection of community college catalogs reveals a striking similarity between the academic courses in the community college and the academic courses in the first two years of the senior colleges."¹ Reynolds gives several reasons that account for the popularity of preparatory educational programs in the community college. Each becomes a criterion for curricular decision:

1. Availability of teachers in the academic fields.
2. Availability of instructional facilities.
3. Inexpensive to expand.
4. Forms large core of the professional curriculum.
5. Can be offered in junior colleges with small enrollments.
 - a. The per-student cost is much higher, eventually becoming prohibitive.
 - b. There are not enough students to provide enrollments in a wide range of courses.
6. Popular with regional accrediting associations.²

Major Problems in Designing a Transfer Curriculum

Course articulation requirements with senior colleges and satisfactory preparation of transfer students are major problems for community college curriculum designers, and hardly any author who addresses himself to community college curricula fails to emphasize them. Many students who enroll in preparatory or senior college-parallel courses, authors also note, transfer to another program or fail to continue their education

¹Charles R. Monroe, Profile of the Community College, A Handbook, San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers, 1972, p. 59.

²Hall, op. cit., pp. 30-31. Cf also James W. Reynolds, The Junior College, New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1965, pp. 32-35. Reynolds suggests, in addition to the above, that a junior college with a strong preparatory program comes nearer to the popular image of what a college should be.

past the community college level. Curriculum designers are therefore pressed to develop courses, insofar as possible, that serve not only a preparatory function but have a general or inherent value as well.¹ For those who do transfer, the problem of university articulation is more keen, for senior colleges are not uniform in requirements for the first and second years,² and their requirements are constantly changing. "It is not at all uncommon for graduates of a junior college to be enrolled at as many as 30 or even 50 upper-division institutions in a given year."³ The student himself may complicate the problem. Some need to complete prerequisite courses from high school before they can proceed; some will drop a single difficult course from a carefully planned program and be delayed in making it up; others will change their educational objectives or their choice of transfer institution with a corresponding loss of time.⁴

The community college "cannot duplicate every one of the lower division offerings of even one large university, let alone 40 or 50."⁵ Exaggerated community college faculty enthusiasm causes part of the problem when it slavishly attempts to duplicate course for course and perhaps elaborate transfer courses far beyond the lower-division needs of their students and beyond the limits of acceptability at the upper-division colleges.⁶ Thornton and others who have recognized university dominance

¹James W. Thornton, The Community Junior College, Third Edition, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1972, p. 223.

²Hall, op. cit., p. 31.

³Thornton, op. cit., p. 160.

⁴Kelley, op. cit., p. 17.

⁵Thornton, op. cit., p. 161.

⁶Ibid., p. 241.

over a major part of the community college program suggest, nonetheless, that this dominance at times is an excuse rather than an adequate course for junior college conservatism.¹ Within very recent years, Medsker wrote that "some two-year colleges identify themselves so closely with a four-year institution that they organize and teach most courses in exactly the same manner as in the four-year college. When this happens," he added, "the junior college forfeits its identity and its opportunity to experiment in the development of a program most appropriate for it."² Monroe, too, feels that community college faculties have been unwilling to experiment and break new ground in their curricular designs, perhaps by reason of fear that the university would not give credit for experimental courses. Such fear, Monroe feels, is "unjustified if the community college people approach the university officials in a cooperative spirit."³

The Knoell-Medsker National Study of nearly 8,500 students focused on the transfer programs in more than 300 two-year colleges located in forty-three states. In 1960, the students had transferred to forty-one senior colleges located in ten states. The study involved comparative success of transfer and native students--the native students being taken from the 1962 class of the same senior colleges. The study concluded that community colleges are meeting the goal of providing adequate transfer programs.⁴

¹ Ibid., p. 242.

² H. T. Morse, "Between the Ivory Tower and the Market Place," Junior College Journal, Vol. 35, No. 7: April 1965, p. 17, quoting Leland L. Medsker, The Junior College: Progress and Prospect, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960, p. 53. Morse argues that the rightful place of the junior college is "between the Ivory Tower and the Market Place."

³ Monroe, op. cit., p. 60.

⁴ Dorothy M. Knoell, "Focus on the Transfer Program," Junior College Journal, Vol. 35, No. 8: May 1965, pp. 5-9. Cf. another useful summary of this study in Monroe, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

Progress with the problem of senior college and university articulation with community colleges is being made. The student is more readily accepted as the real concern of all educational institutions, and the utility of junior and senior college collaboration "in experiments, re-forming of course content and curriculum in both kinds of institutions to attend to the basic, individual creative needs of students" is better recognized as necessary for his well-being.¹ The differences between the junior and senior colleges is generally accepted with content rather than displeasure by the authors, and a cooperative spirit in the preparation of community college faculty, which cannot model its practices on those found in secondary schools and universities,² is frequently reported. Similarly, formal efforts to facilitate articulation between junior colleges and senior institutions have expanded in recent years. California and Florida were among the leaders in developing articulation arrangements.

For Californians, innovations in the articulation process are best developed through the Articulation Conference (a quadripartite statewide organization devoted, by informal supervision, to the efficient progress of students from the high school through graduate school). The great strength of this organization is that it carries the weight of agreement not of edict; it is dedicated to bringing about greater understanding among the four segments of public education rather than allow impositions of will of one upon another.³

Such a plan of cooperative interest among the school levels is seen by educators as an opportunity rather than an obstacle to student growth, financial economy and efficiency through non-duplication and useless waste.

¹James H. Nelson, "Guidelines for Articulation," Junior College Journal, Vol. 36, No. 6: March 1966, pp. 20-23.

²Arthur M. Cohen, "Developing Specialists in Learning," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 1: September 1966, p. 22.

³Frederick C. Kintzer, "Articulation is an Opportunity," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 7: April 1967, p. 19.

Florida's program for improvement of articulation has demonstrated the need too for formal structure:

1. A representative body of professional persons who are responsible for developing techniques and avenues for solving transfer difficulties and for expressing basic guidelines which may be used by all institutions.
2. The backing of legal bodies responsible for the operation of the institutions.
3. A commitment by the representations of institutions to seek solutions to problems.
4. A staff to follow through on the details.
5. Constant and alert attention to all matters related to articulation.¹

Strawbridge and Wattenbarger claim that these principles are tried and tested, that they work in Florida and would be helpful in any state.² Kelley and Wilbur seem to recognize the need for the same "principles" in what they call "the machinery of articulation."³

Articulation between junior and senior institutions is an area of common interest which has received considerable study among the membership of the Joint Committee on Junior and Senior Colleges. Membership in this committee is drawn from the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, the American Association of Junior Colleges and the Association of American Colleges, and, since 1957, according to Nelson, has proved to be an important step toward improving transfers from junior to senior colleges. Nelson has presented a summary

¹James R. Strawbridge, James L. Wattenbarger, "Articulation---Florida Style," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 6: March 1967, p. 52.

²Loc. cit.

³Frederick W. de Bolman, "New Opportunities in Articulation," Junior College Journal, Vol. 36, No. 6: March 1966, p. 18.

of the recommendations of this Joint Committee as guidelines for articulation, under five general groupings: "1) admissions; 2) evaluation of transfer courses; 3) curriculum planning; 4) advising, counselling and other student personnel services; and 5) articulation programs."¹

The Associated Press reported on November 10, 1972, that an agreement had been made between the two-year community colleges in Michigan and many of the state's four-year colleges and universities. The Michigan Association of College Registrars and Admissions Officers concluded a five-year negotiating period to produce what is believed to be the first such voluntary agreement in America. Under the agreement, community college graduates will readily transfer their general education credits to the senior colleges that have pledged to accept them. Community college students, beginning in the 1973-1974 school year will know which colleges will accept their school's general education credits, thus eliminating the fear of losing credits when transferring.

State officials reported, according to the Press, that most of Michigan's thirty-eight four-year and twenty-nine two-year colleges are expected, eventually, to join the seventeen four-year schools and fourteen public community colleges in this agreement.²

Articulation problems exist not only between junior colleges and senior colleges, but between junior colleges and high schools and separate trade, vocational or technical schools. The latter separate schools often prepare students in a very limited area imbalanced between general

¹ Nelson, op. cit., pp. 24-26.

²"Colleges in State Will Sign Pact on Credit Transfer," The Flint Journal, Flint, Michigan, November 10, 1972, p. 18.

and special education.¹ High school graduates often come to the community college undecided upon educational goals, unaware of what a selected program may entail and totally unprepared to enroll in courses their program may require. Smith points up the need for high school counseling centers to articulate junior college objectives to prospective in-coming students.² Kelley and Wilbur, among others, voice this same concern. "Articulation, to put it simply, is coordination between schools or levels of schools."³ These authors recognize, however, the contrast between these two terms--articulation and coordination--as given by Knoell and Medsker, and which may be useful to present for the purpose of this study:

Articulation and coordination may in fact be contrasted in terms of their differing concerns--articulation centered on the students and their courses of study and coordination on institutional budgets and building programs. Coordinating agencies tend to represent the interests of the state and its citizenry; articulation programs consider the interests of the individual student and his instruction.⁴

The problem of upward mobility from a two-year occupational program into a four-year baccalaureate degree program has not yet been resolved, but some success in removing the barriers between an associate degree on the path upward to the baccalaureate degree has been noted.⁵ Paul De Cora registers the same observation, and suggests that since recent evidence

¹Thornton, op. cit., p. 190.

²Albert K. Smith, "Bridging the Gap--High School to Community College," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 51: February 1970, pp. 33-36.

³Kelley, op. cit., p. 17.

⁴From Junior to Senior College: A National Study of the Student, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1965, p. 75.

⁵Norman C. Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1966, pp. 58-59. Addresses and Recommendations presented at a Conference sponsored by the Midwest Technical Education Center and the American Association of Junior Colleges in St. Louis, Missouri, 1966.

indicates that "terminal graduates" have been continuing at an increasing rate to go on in higher education rather than enter an occupation immediately upon graduation, the basis of granting the requests for transfer of occupational students be considered by registrars and admissions officers.¹

In general, however, articulation problems are yielding to solution. Monroe sums up the present condition and injects a note of hope for a complete solution with this present decade:

...as transfer students demonstrate their ability to do college work satisfactorily and as the senior colleges learn to know and trust community colleges to give high-quality instruction, the problems of articulation and of the transfer of students have largely vanished. A few state universities, and some private ones, have so completely accepted the community-college idea, that they are beginning to admit community-college graduates who have a C average or better for credit for all courses. This does not mean that the transfer student does not have some deficiencies upon admission to certain departments or colleges or that the student will graduate in only two more years. By 1980 the nit-picking system of evaluating each student's transcript, course by course, will undoubtedly be replaced by a blanket transfer policy which will automatically admit all community-college graduates.²

The areas of curriculum and instruction, counseling and economic problems, according to the Knoell-Medsker study, have to be a continuing real concern for both junior and senior institutions. Of greatest importance remains "producing the best kind of educational experience possible for the transfer students from junior colleges."³

Curricular decision makers, according to the literature, must look to the senior schools for knowledge of requirements to be met and must

¹Paul J. De Cora, "Two-Year College Transfers: Graduates of Organized Occupational Curriculums," College and University, Vol. 40, No. 1: Fall 1964, p. 68. Cf. also Monroe, op. cit., p. 65.

²Monroe, op. cit., p. 65.

³Dorothy M. Knoell, Leland L. Medsker, From Junior to Senior College. A National Study of the Transfer Student, Berkeley, California: Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, 1965, p. 59.

have an in-put into formulating them. They must cooperate with these regulations, retain their own flexibility and vitality by which they should be characterized, insofar as possible, and demonstrate their interest in and integrity toward their students whose time, energy, and economic resources are carefully budgeted.

In the curricular decision-making process, criteria for decisions to be made must include the availability or non-availability of competent teachers and students able and willing to meet the challenge of their program of study. Garrison speaks of this concern.¹ Dressel thinks that curricular reform "that begins with an existing faculty usually ends in complexity and compromise." He sees faculty selection, training, and orientation as one of the major problems in curriculum reform.² The study of Bushnell and Zagaris revealed that "full-time faculty at the community and junior colleges are a relatively inexperienced group," that almost one-third have been teaching for five years or less, that "of those who were employed in other educational institutions before accepting their present employment, 38 percent were employed in a high school, 11 percent worked in an elementary or junior high school, and 27 percent served as faculty members of a four-year college or university."³ The study also demonstrated that full-time faculty members in the community college came from backgrounds similar to those of the students they teach, and raised the question whether upward mobile faculty from a comparable or lower

¹Roger H. Garrison, Junior College Faculty: Issues and Problems, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967, pp. 82-87.

²Dressel, College and University Curriculum, op. cit., p. 111.

³Bushnell, op. cit., p. 35.

socio-economic status could empathize with their students. The study observes further that most faculty have little experience with life apart from the academic world and, in addition, have teaching credentials acquired from the university environment that is geared to a different kind of student.¹ Medsker and Tillery, among others, suggest a nationwide drive to prepare and develop faculty and administrators suited for and trained for the specific problems and environment of the community college. Job requirements, they suggest, should be separated from personnel and educational requirements of the staff; potential staff should be recruited from the representative segments of the population, particularly ethnic groups; staff preparation should include significant supervised observational and work experience in the junior college. These authors suggest that the Doctorate of Arts degree might have considerable validity for junior college teaching and personnel staff.²

Student admissions and placements (or program/course selections) as related to the "open-door policy" remains a debated question. It is important to curricular decision makers as a criterion of choice, for the "quality" of student obviously affects both programs and courses. John W. Huther argues for what he calls a "totally open door policy" to the institution and all curricula, and for each student, without prerequisite developmental curriculum to be allowed to enroll in the curriculum he chooses.³ Robert Birnbaum believes that "maximum choice coupled with

¹Loc. cit.

²Medsker, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges, op. cit., p. 72.

³John W. Huther, "The Open Door: How Open Is It?," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 7: April 1971, pp. 25-27.

supportive services yields students the greatest opportunity for self development."¹

Expressing an opposite view is Norman C. Harris: "...it is nevertheless (despite the inexactitude of testing, interviewing and elaborating) indefensible to allow students to enroll in any curriculum or course which suits their fancy."² Roueche and Sims express a like view:

In junior colleges there now exists the ludicrous situation of students enrolling in programs and working toward educational goals for which they are unqualified. These students make heavy demands upon their instructors and impede the progress of their fellow students. Often these students are³ qualified for other programs offered in the same college.

These authors make a plea for selective placement: "The junior college has an obligation to place students in programs in which the student has a good chance of succeeding, and, conversely, to keep students out of programs in which they will probably fail."⁴

Institutional policy decisions about admission requirements to the college and to its various programs and courses become criteria that confront curricular decision makers in curricular design.

In a most recent study,⁵ Willingham set as his primary purpose a review of literature concerning research and development pertaining to the various problem areas that affect students transferring from junior to

¹Robert Birnbaum, "Open Door College or Curriculum?," Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 3: November 1971, pp. 25-27.

²Harris, op. cit., p. 49.

³John E. Roueche, David M. Sims, "Open Door College or Open Door Curriculum?," Junior College Journal, Vol. 38, No. 5: February 1968, pp. 18-19.

⁴Loc. cit.

⁵Warren W. Willingham, The No. 2 Access Problem: Transfer to the Upper Division, Washington, D. C.: Prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education, George Washington University, Published by the American Association for Higher Education, July 1972.

senior colleges. Four national projects¹ that examine general aspects of the transfer issue were surveyed and ten specific transfer problems were presented: curriculum articulation, adequate guidance at the community college, adequate orientation at the senior college, diverse admission procedures, academic standards and the question of credit, access/retention and financial aid.

Willingham believes that smooth transfer between institutions is a basic requirement for the hierarchical model of higher education. He is encouraged by evidence of increasing flexibility and cooperation between community colleges and four-year institutions and describes the future as optimistic. At the same time, he recognizes that progress in flexibility and cooperation is too slow and that important transfer problems, e.g., access rates, student aspirations, financial aid, minority representation... are too often ignored.

Occupational Curriculum

Validation of the occupational curriculum as an integral function of the community college cannot be part of this review. It is useful to note, however, that while the transfer function of the junior college was initially its sole function, far thinking persons,² and the passage of

¹The Knoell-Medsker study of student performance, The Joint Committee Guidelines and The Kintzer national survey of articulation have been referenced earlier. The fourth is the Willingham-Findikyan survey of admission patterns.

²For example, Dean Alexis F. Lange of the University of California, Dr. Merten E. Hill, principal of Chaffee Junior College and William H. Snyder of Los Angeles Junior College.

vocational education bills during World War I,¹ impelled the American Association of Junior Colleges to expand its definition of the junior college in 1925:

The junior college is an institution offering two years of strictly college-age grade. This curriculum may include those courses usually offered in the first two years of the four-year college, in which case these courses must be identical, in scope and thoroughness, with corresponding courses of the four-year college. The junior college may, and is likely to develop a different type of curriculum suited to the larger and ever-changing civic, social, religious and vocational needs of the entire community in which the college is located. It is understood that in this case also the work offered shall be on a level appropriate for high school graduates.²

Lange, in 1917, had insisted that the junior college could not make preparation for the university its reason for existence; in 1933, Snyder insisted equally that the junior college could not allow itself to become merely a vocational institution--that, rather, it must embrace both cultural and utilitarian subjects in its offerings.³

Occupational Education in the community college context is understood generically to include vocational preparation and technical training. Specifically it has as its primary objective the preparation of students "for immediate entry, after leaving the community college, into middle-level vocations or to upgrade the skills of persons already employed. For the vocations in question, a high school education is inadequate and a

¹Notably, the Smith-Hughes Act P.L. 64-347. Cf. Administration of Vocational Education: Rules and Regulations, Vocational Educational Bulletin No. 1, Revised 1966, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1967, p. ix and Grant Venn, Man, Education and Work, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1964, p. 1122 ff et al for a detailed description of this act and its important ramifications for future federal and state legislation.

²Thornton, op. cit., p. 53.

college degree is unnecessary."¹ Monroe suggests distinguishing characteristics of middle-level occupations:

1. They require training beyond the high school level;
2. They require some theoretical knowledge of mathematics and science, equal to the first year or two of a professional program;
3. They require training in the development of manipulative skills for using delicate and precise laboratory instruments and equipment;
4. They often require that a person have personality characteristics which allow him to understand human behavior, especially if he is employed in a supervisory position or in a social-service or human-relations occupation;
5. They train students as assistants to professional workers or administrative officials.²

The rapid expansion of occupational courses, following the new definition of the AAJC, is of historical record. The great depression that extended over nearly a decade encouraged training to prepare workers for much needed and competitively sought jobs. The national emergency and defense needs of World War II further promoted occupational education, and the increase of automation following the War aggravated the need for skilled, trained manpower and the realization of both employers and workers that those who did not qualify for employment would be left out of the employment ranks. Finally the Vocational Education Act of 1963, P. L. 88-210, removed the restriction of the Smith-Hughes Act (which had limited itself to courses less than college grade), and made monies available to help

¹Monroe, op. cit., p. 82. Thornton, op. cit., p. 180, uses the term "occupational education" in the same way as does Harris, op. cit., pp. 40ff and others. He finds that "vocational education has become restricted, in much educational writing, to preparation of less than college grade" (cf. p. 178). "Career education" seems to be a newly-acceptable term for education which leads to immediate employment (cf. e.g., Bushnell, op. cit., pp. 106ff). "Terminal education" appears unacceptable today when education is recognized as a life-long process.

²Loc. cit.

fulfill pressing occupational education needs at the community college level.¹

The Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963, enacted by Congress at almost the same time as the Vocational Act, proposed "to assist the nation's institutions of higher education...to accommodate mounting student enrollments and to meet demands for skilled, technicians and for advanced graduate education."²

Major Problems in Designing an Occupational Curriculum

In reporting the first year activities of the AAJC's Occupational Education Project in 1967, Skaggs and his associates noted the Association's concern in the development of occupational programs which had become "overwhelmingly important." They quoted Venn to express the Association's point of view: "The two-year colleges in America, if they are to assume their proper and effective role in the educational system of the nation, should make vocational-technical education programs a major part of their mission and a fundamental institutional objective."³

¹For summaries of Federal Legislation for Vocational and Technical Education, cf. Administration of Vocational Education: Rules and Regulations, op. cit., pp. ix-xi, and especially Venn, op. cit., pp. 112-128. A detailed review of this legislation is not feasible in this study. Philosophies underlying the Smith-Hughes Act and The Vocational Act of 1963 are related also in Venn, op. cit., pp. 64-66.

²Venn, op. cit., pp. 127-128.

³Kenneth Skaggs, Douglas W. Burris, and Lewis R. Fibel, "AAJC's Occupational Education Project," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 4: March 1967, p. 23. Cf. Venn, op. cit., p. 165.

In agreement with Venn¹ are Harris,² Monroe,³ Reynolds,⁴ Burt,⁵ Clark,⁶ Henniger,⁷ and all authors who recognize that a community college is a new type of educational institution. Each of these authors has addressed himself both to the manpower needs of the nation and to the needs of youth and adults who characterize middle-level manpower. Harris, for example, notes that at the turn of the century, five percent of the labor force worked in the realm of ideas and the other ninety-five percent worked! "Today," he relates, "more than half the labor force is engaged in 'work' whose intellectual content is such that post-high-school education is essential."⁸ Middle-level manpower needs, he estimates, accounts for thirty percent of the labor force.

¹Venn, op. cit.

²Norman C. Harris, Technical Education in the Junior College/New Programs for New Jobs, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1964.

³Monroe, op. cit.

⁴James W. Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., and Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit.

⁵Samuel M. Burt, Industry and Vocational-Technical Education, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.

⁶Burton R. Clark, Educating the Expert Society, San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962.

⁷C. Ross Henniger, The Technical Institute in America, New York: American Council on Education, 1964.

⁸Harris, Technical Education in the Junior College/New Programs for New Jobs, op. cit., p. 32.

Today's high schools do not offer adequate preparation for these jobs, nor do four-year colleges and universities. Responsibility for the necessary preparation rests, instead, with the community junior college. But the educational programs must take new directions--they must be oriented toward middle-level youth rather than academically superior youth. The educational programs for these youth must be characterized by diversity, rather than by highly selective admissions policies only; and by practicality rather than by sheer intellectuality.¹

Harris says that the future technicians and semi-professional workers in our society will come from the middle fifty percent of high school graduates who outnumber academically superior students two to one--that the needs of such a large number has to be recognized as important--that educational programs designed for them certainly are to be regarded as respectable.

In spite of these facts, commonly recognized by the authors, "more than half of all junior colleges offer fewer than five curriculums emphasizing any occupational skills; among the courses offered, the business rather than the technical competences predominate."² Reynolds, referencing the American Junior Colleges, 6th edition, gives a similar report.³ Monroe, writing as did Thornton, in 1972, spoke about progress in development of occupational programs, even though the progress seemed more the result of various external forces to the colleges than the result of forward institutional thinking and bold decision making.⁴ Today, according to Monroe, "a third of all community college enrollees are in

¹ Ibid., pp. 46-47.

² Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 189.

³ Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 36.

⁴ Monroe, op. cit., pp. 92-93.

occupational courses, while some community colleges can boast that half their students are in these courses."¹

Poor attitudes of certain defensive types of students create some curricular problems, according to Monroe,² Bushnell and Zagaris,³ and Venn.⁴ Monroe,⁵ Wilbur,⁶ Bushnell and Zagaris,⁷ Harris,⁸ and others report negative attitudes of many liberal arts faculty toward occupational curriculum. A superior or snobbish attitude of faculty deters the whole-some recognition that all learning is respectable as is every honorable occupation. Clark seems to stand alone when he speaks of the "triumph" of vocationalism: "That vocational orientation as the primary orientation to college is held in very respectable quarters, finds expression in books on educational philosophy, and has many spokesmen both among college teachers and administrators."⁹ In agreement with others who have considered the line between liberal and vocational education to be thin, Clark thinks that "we undoubtedly will see the conflict result in various combinations of the academic and the vocational subcultures. The

¹Ibid., p. 93.

²Ibid., p. 94.

³Bushnell, op. cit., p. 107.

⁴Venn, op. cit., p. 139.

⁵Monroe, op. cit., p. 96.

⁶F. Parker Wilbur, "Occupational Education and Administration," in Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 18.

⁷Bushnell, op. cit., p. 108.

⁸Norman C. Harris, "Major Issues in Junior College Technical Education," The Educational Record, Vol. 45, No. 2, Spring 1964.

⁹Clark, op. cit., p. 243.

difference," he concedes, "will lie in whether they are combined in generous proportions or blended by adding a drop of one to a heavy dose of the other."¹

Venn² and Monroe³ are among those who elaborate the critical need for vocational counseling. Curricular decision makers need to understand institutional and divisional policy relative to "openness." How far the college should go in offering training programs for "lower-level occupations" (e.g., beauty treatments...or appliance repair), for the hardcore unemployed and for high school dropouts has to be understood by counselors and curriculum designers alike. The question, of course, is not rhetorical and the answer should not be supplied by the faculty as much as by the community. "If the local community has no other training facility or skill center to assist the illiterate, the marginal worker, and the unemployed in finding a job, then it would seem proper that the community college undertake this level of occupational education also."⁴ Harris declares that facing these issues demands both courage and conviction, "conviction based on the realization that higher education today must have broader base and a greater degree of diversity than has ever before been attempted in the collegiate world."⁵ Harris insists that our needs of the past are unlike those of the present when training for the "world

¹Loc. cit.

²Venn, op. cit., p. 147.

³Monroe, op. cit., p. 90.

⁴Ibid., p. 97.

⁵Harris, "Major Issues in Junior College Technical Education," op. cit., p. 128.

of work" is a task that has to be accepted by higher education. "Society's Disaster Gap," in Harris' terminology, is the educational void that would result from separating an elite, academically gifted group from a mass group of neglected citizens.¹ For administrators and faculty this means a "recognition of the fact that occupational education is a respectable role for colleges."²

It is a fact that at least half- and perhaps 70-percent of junior college freshmen will never matriculate as juniors in a baccalaureate degree program. It is a fact that over 50 percent of junior college students will eventually find their life careers in fields for which a two-year program of semi-professional and technical-vocational education is the optimal preparation. It is fact that for successful living in America today, not just one-fourth but perhaps three-fourths of all youth need a college experience of at least two years. And they cannot all be extruded from the same academic mold.³

Venn takes up the same argument and appears to be in full agreement with Harris.⁴

The importance of occupational programs in the community college is generally recognized. The needs of the community, the abilities and needs of students, community attitudes, values and perceptions of the board, the administration, the faculty and students create criteria that needs to be respected by those who decide curricular matters. The criteria of decision making may appear elusive, but decision making without criteria is guess-work, make-shift and probably immature in wisdom and judgment.

¹ Ibid., p. 129.

² Loc. cit.

³ Loc. cit. and ff. Harris, in the same treatise, suggests five significant factors about the community junior college that point to it as the answer to the national need for semi-professional and technical manpower.

⁴ Venn, op. cit., pp. 145-151.

The authors give recognition to "dead-end educational programs," and suggest remedies in collegiate offerings of "clusters of programs," "career-ladder concepts," the utility of short courses for certain students, suitable occupational programs for the disadvantaged, low-achieving student, work-study programs and other innovative, forward thinking planning that looks to the needs of both the student and society. The community college is a service organization, not a tower of ivory unrelated to the real world.¹

Curriculum designers need to be concerned with the quality of programs for each diversely able and interested student. Harris says that,

...community colleges should provide two different levels of curriculums in the technologies, ranging from the engineering technologies across the spectrum to the industrial or highly skilled technologies, in order to accommodate the needs of business and industry and also the abilities and interests of students of middle-level academic potential. Exactly the same line of reasoning applies to business fields, the health, technologies, and to curriculums in public service.²

Proper balance among the various curricula also has to be the concern of curriculum designers, for too much stress on occupational programs can be deleterious to the college, the community, and its students as can be too much stress on transfer programs.

¹ Cf., e.g., Monroe, op. cit., pp. 97-100; Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 196; Robert H. Finch, "Career Education: A Program for Community Colleges," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 3: November 1969; Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., pp. 37ff; David Leeb, William C. Prentiss, "Learning through Participation," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 8: May 1970; Keith D. Lupton, "'Campus Stretching' through Cooperative Education," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 5: February, 1970; Mary R. Hunt, "Co-op Education: A Remarkable Instrument for Learning," Junior College Journal, Vol. 36, No. 4: January 1966.

² Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, op. cit., pp. 51-52.

Monroe,¹ Thornton,² Henniger,³ and Burt⁴ are among those who address themselves to quality programs, the use of advisory committees, cooperation with industry (management and labor). Some states--Michigan among them--require, by legislation, that advisory committees from industry be appointed to consult with vocational and technical educators.⁵ In addition to an over-all occupational advisory committee, many colleges establish an advisory committee for each occupational program offered.⁶ Unfortunately, according to Burt, too many advisory committees, when they exist, are not really operational, but become "paper committees."⁷

Nonetheless:

There is a general unanimity among educators and industry leaders regarding the desirability and mutual benefits to be derived through cooperative effort in the development and conduct of the vocational and technical education program offerings of local schools and school systems. Employers can gain desired training facilities, reduce their own training costs, and participate in the development of workers and in the development of training programs which meet the needs of members of their specific groups. The schools benefit by offering courses of instruction and training programs attuned to the needs of industry and labor, and therefore play a more meaningful role in the community which, hopefully, provides a broad base of community support for vocational and technical education.

When industry and education ignore each other or fail actively to cooperate, the inevitable result is schools turning out unqualified workers and industry suffering skilled manpower shortages. The student and community

¹ Monroe, op. cit., pp. 94-96.

² Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 165, p. 191ff, p. 242.

³ Henniger, op. cit., pp. 34ff.

⁴ Burt, op. cit., pp. 3ff.

⁵ Loc. cit.

⁶ Ibid., p. 7.

⁷ Ibid., p. 4.

are cheated while industry is forced to engage in expensive in-plant training or be satisfied with untrained workers giving low-grade performance. The cost is passed on to the public who thus pays twice--once for ineffective schools and again for the expense of ineffectively-trained workmen in industry. The effect on our nation's manpower development and utilization efforts is not only negative, but, when allowed to persist, disastrous.¹

In addition, there is widespread recognition of the value of general education in all occupational curricula. "In 1968, the North Central Association of Colleges and Universities, the accrediting agency for high schools and colleges in the midwest, recommended that approximately one-fourth of the total occupational curriculum be in general education."² F. Parker Wilber, President of the Los Angeles Trade-Technical College, regards as necessary to an occupational curriculum the ingredients that broaden the student's learning to give him an appreciation of the riches of life's values over and above, or along with, a more narrow specialization.³ Henniger argues that the reluctance of educational institutions to balance occupational programs with general education is "one of the reasons why the public has been so slow to accord the technical institute its proper place in the spectrum of higher education."⁴ Some "among liberal arts educators and particularly the specialists in social-humanistic studies...hold that all segments of American education share an obligation to prepare young men and women for participation in our democratic society, that the higher the education, the greater the

¹ Ibid., pp. 41-42.

² Monroe, op. cit., p. 97.

³ F. Parker Wilber, "Occupational Education and Administration," in Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, op. cit. pp. 18-19.

⁴ Henniger, op. cit., p. 44.

obligation, and that only general subject matter can accomplish this result."¹ Venn argues in the same vein,² as does Thornton.³

The successful transition of young people from school to job will become easier to accomplish as the artificial wall between the schools and the outer world breaks down. Fortunately, the wall has been crumbling for some time, and is certain to disintegrate further. The vast development of industrial, military, and other educational programs outside the formal system is striking evidence of that fact... Also disintegrating is the notion that education is something that goes forward with no interruption until it is capped by some sort of graduation ceremony, whereupon it ends forever. We are coming to recognize that education must be lifelong, that it may be interrupted at many points, and that it may take place in many settings.

Venn interestingly asks, as a special issue, "How can learning, regardless of how or where achieved, be given equivalent credit?"

Facilities for occupational programs need to be available and costs need to be justified. Harris suggests a general cost-justification of occupational curriculum as compared with the transfer program.⁶ Reynolds explains the higher costs of vocational education as being reasonable, but recognizes, with authors generally, that lack of expenses surely can block or deter the offering of needed occupational programs.⁷ Venn

¹ Loc. cit.

² Venn, op. cit., pp. 140-143; also pp. 153-154.

³ Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 191.

⁴ John Gardner, "From High School to Job," 1960 Annual Report of the Carnegie Corporation, New York: The Corporation, 1961, p. 19, quoted in Venn, op. cit., pp. 150-151.

⁵ Venn, op. cit., p. 143.

⁶ Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 45.

⁷ Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 37-38.

singles out the problem of federal supporting policies which, he says, are inadequate, improperly coordinated, too categorical and too indefinite. Vocational and technical education:

...are closely linked to the economic, military, and social well-being of the country; therefore, federal programs of assistance should, presumably be designed to support federal policy in these broader areas. This is not always the case. The programs of the Department of Defense and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration generate growing demands for technical-level personnel: federal programs to provide technical education are, by comparison, small. Federal vocational and technical education programs seek to use the educational system as the means to prepare students for job entry; another federal agency is making plans to provide job training for teen-agers outside the educational system. Equal opportunity for occupational education remains a vital and widely accepted national goal; in practice, gross examples of denial of such opportunity occur within the federally-supported program. Similarly, federal policy in such matters as fair employment practices, the awarding of defense contracts, area redevelopment, manpower training, labor-management relations, overseas middle-level manpower development, apprenticeship, youth unemployment, tax policy, and public works can all have a vital effect on the educational system and on vocational and technical education.

The obvious problem is that the Federal Government has no policy regarding the role of vocational and technical education in the resolution of national problems. The effect of federal action on social, economic, and security issues is to place educational institutions, which are locally controlled, in positions of uncertainty about the long-range policy of the Federal Government. This uncertainty retards educational planning for program, facilities, staff, and discourages the research and experimentation needed to obtain vocational and technical education.¹

The problem of adequate faculty staffing for occupational courses confronts the curricular decision maker, and can be a determining

¹Venn, op. cit., pp. 155-156.

criterion in program planning. Monroe¹ and Venn² both speak of the necessity of college and university occupational teacher preparation programs. Many of the practicing teachers lack the necessary practical experience in business and industry, according to Monroe, and Venn sees the desperate shortage of qualified teachers and administrators as one of the greatest handicaps to the improvement and expansion of vocational and technical education. Thornton expresses the same viewpoint,³ as does Reynolds.⁴ The ideal occupational-staff person has both academic credentials and on-the-job experience. Sometimes it is necessary, however, to compromise what is ideal and accept work experience as the equivalent of graduate work. The flexibility of the community college may allow this decision, but when made, "it does tend to intensify the split between those in the academic programs and those teaching non-academic courses."⁵

As an added consideration for curricular decision makers, under the question of community college capability to satisfy recognized manpower needs, state requirements need to be mentioned, namely, "the fact that administrative agencies at the state level often tend to become specific concerning the exact nature of vocational-technical programs and thus leave little to the imagination and educational philosophy of local colleges and technical institutes."⁶ Finally, the absence of cooperative

¹Monroe, op. cit., p. 100.

²Venn, op. cit., p. 151.

³Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 198.

⁴Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 38.

⁵Bushnell, op. cit., p. 112.

⁶Leland L. Medsker, "Changes in Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes," in Wilson (Editor), Emerging Patterns in American Higher Education, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1965, p. 81.

planning for the future development of vocational and technical education among the various levels of education has to be seen by each curriculum designer as a problem that is all his own. Donald Michael, quoted in Man, Education and Work has stated the issue well.

The problem involves looking ahead five, ten, twenty years to see what are likely to be the occupational and social needs and attitudes of these future periods; planning the intellectual and social education of each age group in the numbers needed, motivating young people to seek...certain types of jobs and to adapt the desirable and necessary attitudes; providing enough suitable teachers; being able to alter all of these as the actualities in society and technology indicate...

If we do not find the answers to these questions soon, we will have a population in the next ten to twenty years more and more out of touch with...realities, ever more the victims of insecurity on the one hand and ennui on the other, and more and more mismatched to the occupational needs of the day. If we fail to find the answers, we can bumble along, very probably heading into disaster...¹

A recent article in The Flint Journal (Michigan) expressed this recognition and spoke of state plans to provide for it:

A revolution is happening in Michigan...plans are being made to turn the whole state education system into a 'career education' program.

The aim is to guarantee that if a youth goes through the entire process, he can be assured of placement in a good-paying job matching his abilities--whether he goes to college or not.

The student might wind up as a plumber, nurse, or nuclear physicist, but first he would have a salable skill to earn a decent living.

Behind the emphasis on a job-oriented education system are these facts:

*Only twenty-six percent of all Michigan students starting the first grade continue their education long enough to receive a college degree--in other

¹Donald Michael, Cybernation: The Silent Conquest, Santa Barbara, California: Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, 1962, pp. 41-42, quoted in Venn, op. cit., p. 153.

words, nearly three-fourths go no further than a high school diploma, if that far. (sic)

*More than 32,000 public school students, 17 percent of the states' total, attend schools offering no vocational education at all.

To meet these needs, the State Board of Education and the State Department of Education have approved a Career Education Plan which will lead to every local school district and community college becoming part of a coordinated system. Several years and millions of dollars in state and federal funds still lie ahead before the plan is in full operation... 'Michigan is on the cutting edge in providing national leadership in career education,' said Dr. Jack Michie, state vocational education director. 'We're going to expose kids to career opportunities from kindergarten on up. The foresight of many legislators and the cooperation in general from unions is very encouraging.'¹

In Michigan general recognition of occupational program issues and problems for curricular decision makers is articulated by the State Board of Education, Department of Vocational Education Services² and by the Michigan Advisory Council for Vocational Education.³ Two hundred and thirty-five occupational programs are offered in the twenty-nine public community colleges. Individual college offerings range from nine to sixty-nine. Eighty-two college apprenticeship programs are being offered in the public community colleges; individual college offerings vary from zero to twenty-eight.⁴

¹"Revolution Occurring in Vocational Education," The Flint Journal, Flint, Michigan, September 21, 1972, pp. 1, 18.

²Vocational Education Services of the Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, 1970, pp. 1-32.

³Opinions About Vocational Education in Michigan, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Advisory Council for Vocational Education, 1971, pp. 114-117.

⁴Occupational Program Inventory: Public Community and Junior Colleges in Michigan, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Department of Education, 1969.

The area of occupational curriculum is a vastly important one. Unfortunately--or perhaps fortunately--curricular decision-making criteria do not yield neatly into a universally usable compact package.

General Education Curriculum

Course offerings in higher education are significant in part because they reveal "the educated community's conception of what knowledge is most worth transmitting to the cream of its youth."¹

The term "general education" is not new, and the concepts it implies date back to ancient history.² The general education movement seems to be traced especially to the period following World War I,³ and most notably to the Harvard Report of 1945. The dominant theme in the report was stated by Harvard's President in 1943 when he appointed a Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society:

The primary concern of American education today is the development of the 'good life' for young gentlemen born to the purple. It is the infusion of the liberal and humane tradition into our entire educational system. Our purpose is to cultivate in the largest possible number of our future citizens an appreciation of both the responsibilities and the benefits which come to them because they are Americans and are free.⁴

Considerable dissatisfaction with existing college curricula and with overspecialization of undergraduates to the detriment of their broader

¹Richard Hofstadter, C. DeWitt Hardy, The Development and Scope of Higher Education in the United States, New York: Columbia University, 1952, p. 11, quoted in Michael Brick, Forum and Focus for the Junior College Movement: The American Association of Junior Colleges, New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1965, p. 112.

²Philip C. Chamberlain, "General vs. Sepcialized Education: Sources of Institutional Tension," in Burns, op. cit., pp. 246ff.

³Brick, op. cit., p. 112. Cf. also, Monroe, op. cit., p. 69-70.

⁴General Education in a Free Society, Report of Harvard Committee, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1955, pp. xiv-xv.

understanding of social issues and life's problems was the motivating cause for careful curriculum analysis. The "shocks of the first world war, a depression, growing fascism, a second world war, threat of atomic destruction and the challenge of Communism (were forces that caused the) re-examination of the college curricula."¹ Higher education, it was recognized, was not preparing youth to make decisions concerning the critical issues which they had to face in the real world.

Since the Harvard Report, the volume of literature that has been published on this subject, including that of the American Association of Junior Colleges has been staggering. The search for an acceptable definition of general education has, however, not yet been found! Nonetheless, there are common elements in each effort to define the term that can be synthesized into a statement of basic, common agreement. The American Council on Education, for example, declared that general education "refers to those phases of non-specialized and non-vocational education that should be the common possession, the common denominator...of educated persons as individuals and as citizens of a free society."² The AAJC emphasized "ministering to the common needs of human beings in contemporary democratic society."³ By general education, Bell means focusing on "...courses which cut across disciplinary lines (as in the case of contemporary civilization and humanities' programs) to deal with the history, tradition and great works of Western civilization, and in courses which

¹Brick, op. cit., p. 114.

²Ibid., p. 113.

³Karl W. Bigelow, "Report on the Discussion Groups," Junior College Journal, Vol. 21: May 1951, p. 491.

deal with the integrative problems or common subject matters of several disciplines."¹ Reynolds calls general education "that body of education the need for which is shared by all people,...a pervasive value system (not just a collection of courses) touching all phases of the student's educational life."² Thornton says that "general education refers to programs of education specifically designed to afford young people more effective preparation for the responsibilities which they share in common as citizens in a free society and for wholesome and creative participation in a wide range of life activities."³ Every author who discusses general education presents a personal view or an amalgamation of views. Thornton further specifies his definition which seems to give an overall and sufficient indication of the goals of general education.

It is that part of education which prepares the student to assume his roles as an individual, as a member of a family, and as a citizen. While it may contribute to his choice of occupation and to his success as a worker, vocational skills are not its main objective. It is called 'general' because its purposes are considered to be common to all men; it is that part of the total collegiate offering which is concerned with men's likeness rather than with their divergent interests. It intends to assist the student to feel intellectually and psychologically at home in a world which makes new economic, social, civic, physiological, spiritual, and intellectual demands upon him.⁴

Reynolds observes that the overlap between general and preparatory curriculum is pronounced, and the line dividing one from the other is a

¹Daniel Bell, The Reforming of General Education, New York: Columbia University Press, 1966, p. 180.

²Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 28.

³Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 202.

⁴Ibid., p. 202-203, quoted from James W. Thornton, Jr., General Education: Establishing the Program (pamphlet). Washington, D. C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1958, p. 2. Cf. also Chamberlain in Burns, op. cit., pp. 251-252.

thin one. To distinguish one from the other, he looks to the purpose for which the course is taught or to the content of the course as emphasized by the instructor. General education, he says, emphasizes learning for personal use--preparatory courses emphasize meeting requirements in an academic or professional field. Some courses, he notes, are designed to achieve both purposes simultaneously. He goes on to say that the distinction is useful in simplifying the work of the junior college curriculum-development staff and permits greater detailed attention to be given to the planning.¹

Institutional perceptions of general education, whatever they are, become a criterion for curricular decision makers!

Major Problems in Designing a General Education Curriculum

Authors in general impugn community colleges for their failure to develop a general education curriculum or at least integrate general education courses into the college program. Thus, Mastin and Walsh find that: "The literature on general and liberal education is characterized by apology, criticism, polemic and a continued search for values."² Reynolds notes that "there is a wide diversity among junior colleges as to what proportion of the two-year curriculum will be required to devote to general education."³ Morse and Dressel find that "college courses designed

¹Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 29-30, and Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 32.

²Ralph R. Fields, John W. Mastin, James P. Walsh, "Educational Programs," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 35, No. 4: October 1965, p. 292.

³Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 29. Reynolds says that, with few exceptions, junior colleges have shown little creativeness in organizing general education programs--that most junior colleges do not have them.

to assist students in meeting their personal problems are still novel."¹ Monroe, writing most recently, references Bogue, B. L. Johnson, Thornton and Reynolds to demonstrate that "the general-education movement never caught fire in the community college."²

College faculties differ as to the desirability of providing general education courses at the college level, and scrutinize, criticize, reappraise and revise programs according to their own need-perceptions.³ Faculty members who are unsympathetic to the idea of general education "argue that the humanistic, civilizing values of general education can be found in the subject matter of every department."⁴ Even if a body of subject matter is agreed upon, the many questions that can be asked about their manner of presentation can deter action, frustrate proponents and end in a morass.⁵

Student lack of motivation to utilize general courses is a problem confronting curriculum designers. Many students are geared strongly, if not exclusively, to vocational goals. Prescription of courses is likely to create separate problems.⁶ Bell observes also that "the pretensions of secondary schools about 'upgrading' and 'enriching' their courses" causes damage to the social sciences and humanities by giving students

¹Horace T. Morse, Paul L. Dressel (Editors), General Education for Personal Maturity, Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., Publishers, 1960, p. ix.

²Monroe, op. cit., p. 71.

³Morse, General Education for Personal Maturity, op. cit., p. ix.

⁴Monroe, op. cit., p. 71.

⁵Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 28, and Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 29.

⁶Reynolds
⁶Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 31.

the illusion that they have already acquired a general education before entering college.¹ Community college-high school articulation needs cannot be ignored!

Chamberlain feels that the compression of college time and the dominance of the graduate schools results in undue specialization in undergraduate colleges.² Insofar as this may be true, pressure is upon both faculty and students to narrow their sights and look to expediency as a criterion of decision.

The problems in designing a general education curriculum are real and honest. Thornton summarizes them with what appears a keen and fair insight: "The sheer complexity of the undertaking; the leadership, the money, the time, and the faculty members simply have not been available for planning on a necessary scale."³ The autonomy of each college makes individual planning or imitation of other curriculums necessary, he says, and resources have not been available. Transfer requirements limit further; community college time is compressed; university dominance inhibits experimentally developed courses.... "The net result of these difficulties has been to paralyze initiative and to discourage experimentation in general education, so that no public junior college exhibits a coherent,

¹Bell, op. cit., p. 182. Cf. Lamar B. Johnson, General Education in Action, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1952, p. 347, wherein Johnson reminds junior college faculties that students are not, nonetheless, "virgin minds" devoid of past experience and achievements.

²Chamberlain, op. cit., in Burns, op. cit., p. 248.

³Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 213ff.

well-planned, and carefully evaluated curriculum to lead all its students toward the twelve goals of general education."¹

The goals of general education are not contested by the authors nor, apparently, by the practitioners. How to gain them is the point of contention. Various approaches or methods have been used to organize the subject matter "in a systematic and intelligible fashion in order that the student will be motivated to comprehend (it) and to apply (it) in his personal living."² The use of the great books, or ample selection from them, to study Western civilization in all its aspects is one of them. The problem approach which accentuates the manner of presentation and teaching rather than content is another. Problems used for study are of

¹Ibid., p. 214. The twelve goals of which Thornton speaks are enumerated by B. L. Johnson in General Education in Action, op. cit., pp. 21-22, and since each may be a criterion in curricular decision making, they are reproduced here:

1. Exercising the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship.
2. Developing a set of sound spiritual and moral values by which he guides his life.
3. Expressing his thoughts clearly in speaking and writing and in reading and listening with understanding.
4. Using the basic mathematical and mechanical skills necessary in everyday life.
5. Using methods of critical thinking for the solution of problems and for the discrimination among values.
6. Understanding his cultural heritage so that he may gain a perspective of his time and place in the world.
7. Understanding his interaction with his biological and physical environment so that he may better adjust to and improve the environment.
8. Maintaining good mental and physical health for himself, his family and his community.
9. Developing a balanced personal and social adjustment.
10. Sharing in the development of a satisfactory home and family life.
11. Achieving a satisfactory vocational adjustment.
12. Taking part in some form of satisfying creative activity and in appreciating the creative activities of others.

²Lewis B. Mayhew (Editor), General Education: An Account and Appraisal, New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1960, p. 62ff.

any kind so long as they have a real and current interest and value. The conventional and most commonly used method requires the student to take a number of courses which must be distributed over three or four large areas of study.¹

Monroe cautions that "many proponents of general education do not agree that this latter practice is in any way general education since the courses are neither organized nor taught to develop within a student an integrated body of knowledge organized around a few basic concepts and principles which can be used in the solution of ethical, social, and personal problems."² Many certainly appear to think otherwise, and the "core curriculum" offers the advantage of student freedom of choice and faculty opportunity "to teach their specialities without being bound by the restraints of the framework of a committee or inter-disciplinary course."³

Thornton,⁴ O'Connell,⁵ Burns and Brooks,⁶ are among those who find value in the core curriculum concept and attempt to describe and refine it. Harris has designed a special scheme incorporating a core of general or liberal arts education into curriculums of occupational education at the associate degree level.⁷ For all undergraduates, Dressel suggests

¹Monroe, op. cit., pp. 72-73.

²Ibid., p. 73.

³Ibid., p. 74.

⁴Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 217.

⁵Thomas E. O'Connell, Community Colleges: A President's View, Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1968, p. 42. O'Connell quotes Harris approvingly.

⁶Burns, op. cit., p. 11.

⁷Harris, Emphasis: Occupational Education in the Two-Year College, op. cit., pp. 46ff.

some common general education requirements--a common core--that embraces the major fields of knowledge.¹

Cohen addresses himself to a "core curriculum that combines elements of sequences formerly designated as 'college-parallel' and 'remedial' education" to help students individually and as a community service.²

The core curriculum is based on the idea, old in education, that there are basic principles that must be learned by all members of a community if it is to function effectively and with a minimum of disorder. Problems in various domains of human living, viewed through various subject areas, are its organizing center. The curriculum is constructed so that interrelationships among bits of knowledge are clarified. It is not designed particularly as a preparation for university specialization; it stands alone as a contribution to the students' knowledge, and it helps them understand their world. Thus the students receive something of value even if they never take another formal course in school. The general-education curriculum at the college includes four core courses, in the traditional areas of communications, humanities, sciences, and social sciences.³

Criteria which must guide curricular decision makers are real--sometimes elusive. Each institution formulates its own conceptual basis for the general education curriculum, and its constraints will be somewhat like, somewhat unlike those of other colleges. Certain of Cohen's myths, noted earlier, are repeated in this context, for they also spell out ideas that, whether accepted or not become decision criteria.

4th myth: that everything must be formally taught to be learned.

5th myth: a college should assume all knowledge to be its province.

6th myth: the method of instruction is all-important.

¹Dressel, The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education, op. cit., pp. 64-66.

²Cohen, Dateline '79: Heretical Concepts for the Community College, op. cit., p. 14.

³Loc. cit.

7th myth: value-free instruction exists and students, somehow on their own, will learn to apply critical thinking to social, political and personal issues.¹

Whatever the present condition of general education in the community colleges, Cohen has no doubt that the curriculum in the college of '79 will be built on the unifying theme of general education.² For him this conclusion may be all-important as a criterion in curricular decision making.

Remedial (Developmental) Curriculum

Professional literature has, at least until recently, neglected curricula for the marginal student.³ The development of the idea of the comprehensive community college has sharpened the identity and role of the community college in recent years, however, and the recommended policies of the Carnegie Commission undoubtedly will change all this.⁴ It has been common for remedial offerings to serve as a pacifier on the one hand and a subterfuge on the other to screen out candidates for other curricula "rather than serve as a tool and technique for providing learning experience for marginal students commensurate with their needs, abilities and aspirations."⁵

Education has played a decisive role as a medium in transmitting culture, knowledge, beliefs, customs, values and skills. The schools act

¹Ibid., pp. 80-82.

²Ibid., p. 13.

³William Moore, Jr., Against the Odds, San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 1970, p. 169.

⁴Cf., for example, The Open-Door Colleges: Policies for Community Colleges, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970; and Medsker, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges, op. cit.

⁵Moore, op. cit., p. 170.

as a socializer in the preservation and formation of society. They provide historical continuity of culture and are idea-centers for cultural adaptation and development.¹ The importance of neglecting none of America's youth becomes obvious when one recognizes that common values both preserve society and make possible an open exchange of minds in communicating fairly those differences among men that require mutual respect and mutual acceptance of and adjustment toward one's fellow man. Men live peaceably with one another when common values bind them together and are both stronger and more important than their differences.

Curriculum is a tool of instruction. It is a body of knowledge, an experience activity, a performance opportunity, and a response to societal needs. It is designed to assist the student in coping effectively with his environment. For the marginal student, it is much more. It is actually a prescription for his success or his failure. In short, the curriculum is a means to an end.²

Students who have difficulty competing with others for passing grades in traditional academic courses have been called "marginal students," "high-risk students," "socially-different students," "low-achievers," "culturally disadvantaged students." ...Causative factors leading to their unfortunate conditions are discussed by the authors,³ and are not directly related to this study. These students are identified quite readily by their problems and will suffer from one or more of the following characteristics:

¹John E. Roueche, Salvage, Redirection, or Custody? Remedial Education in the Community Junior College, ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968, p. 21. Cf. also Clarke, op. cit., p. 11, and Burns, op. cit., p. 219.

²Moore, op. cit., p. 168.

³For example, Moore, op. cit., William Moore, Jr., The Verticle, Ghetto: Everyday Life in an Urban Project, New York: Random House, 1969, Clark, op. cit., Roueche, op. cit., Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., Monroe, op. cit., Bushnell, op. cit., et al.

1. Graduated from high school with a low C average or below.
2. Are severely deficient in basic skills; i.e., language and mathematics.
3. Have poor habits of study (and probably a poor place to study at home).
4. Are weakly motivated, lacking home encouragement to continue in school.
5. Have unrealistic and ill-defined goals.
6. Represent homes with minimal cultural advantages and minimum standards of living.
7. Are the first of their family to attend college, hence have a minimum understanding of what college requires or what opportunities it offers.¹

Quoting Gordon and Wilkerson,² on the basis of a number of their published studies, Monroe summarizes the basic social, economic and psychological characteristics of disadvantaged students in a statement much more amplified than that of Roueche.³

Low-achieving students are increasingly becoming a larger percentage of the community college student body.⁴ They are handicapped at least in this that they cannot "make the grade in traditional courses taught in traditional ways and measured by traditional standards."⁵ Curriculum designed for these students cannot be neglected. Curricular decision makers must take them into serious account!

The junior college must develop a curriculum designed to meet the identifiable educational needs of the disadvantaged student with specific reference to the effects of deprivation on aspirations, values, motivation, and self-concept, and to the influence of class or caste on

¹Roueche, op. cit., pp. 12-15. Cf. also Raymond W. Mack, Transforming America: Patterns of Social Change, New York: Random House, 1967, p. 66. Mack relates I.Q. to achievement expectation.

²E. W. Gordon, D. A. Wilkerson, Contemporary Education for the Disadvantaged, New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966.

³Monroe, op. cit., pp. 107ff.

⁴Roueche, op. cit., p. 41. Moore claims that "60% of all students who enroll in the community college are at the 30th percentile or below." Moore, Against the Odds, op. cit., p. 155.

⁵Monroe, op. cit., p. 104.

academic progress. This student needs to develop (1) positive feelings of personal worth, (2) values compatible with society in general, and (3) the conceptual, social, and manipulative skills necessary to fulfill his goals. A good program will provoke the changes needed for this development by concentrating on what it can do within the context of the student's own nature and the pressures upon him.¹

Major Problems in Designing a Remedial Curriculum

Lack of commitment to the disadvantaged is singled out by the authors as a chief reason for the absence or poor quality of remedial programs.² Lack of agreement on the objectives of a remedial program is another serious obstacle that curricular decision makers will have to accept or surmount.³ "...in the final analysis, junior colleges must decide what remedial programs are supposed to do and how best to implement the objectives. Yet, it appears that goals and objectives for remedial programs are nebulous and ill-defined because no one is absolutely convinced that it is even possible to remediate."⁴ This mentality appears evident following an examination of most existing programs,⁵ all of which have proved ineffective.⁶

¹Johnnie Ruth Clarke, "A Curriculum Design for Disadvantaged Community College Students," Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida, 1966. (Abstract from ERIC, EDO15754-JC 670 974) Cf. also Bushnell, op. cit., p. 118 for a more brief but similar statement, and Moore, Blind Man on a Freeway, San Francisco, California: Jossey-Boss Inc., Publishers, 1971.

²Moore, op. cit., p. 90ff, Moore, Against the Odds, op. cit., pp. 69-70, Roueche, Salvage, Redirection or Custody? Remedial Education in the Community Junior College, op. cit., pp. vii, 15, et al.

³James Coleman, "The Concept of Equality of Educational Opportunity," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 38, No. 1: Winter 1968. Monroe, op. cit., p. 114, and Roueche, op. cit., pp. 24f, 57.

⁴Roueche, op. cit., p. 25.

⁵Cf., for example, Moore, Against the Odds, op. cit., pp. 10, 170, Roueche, Salvage, Redirection or Custody? Remedial Education in the Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 3, Bushnell, op. cit., p. 120ff, Monroe, op. cit., p. 119.

⁶Roueche, op. cit., pp. 21, 42, 47.

Moore credits or blames the administrator for the success or failure of any developmental program,¹ and marshals strong argument for this position. The administrator should be the pace-setter, the believer, the persuader and motivator of both board and faculty. He has the listening ear of the community.

The administrator's funding recommendations are also clearly heard. Glazer says that generous financial support of remediating is essential and cannot be sold to the public on the basis of low cost. "...no one must be fooled into believing that the open door means the usual college curriculums at community college bargain prices."² Unequal amounts of resources must be expended for educating Negro as compared to white children and poor as compared to rich children, and the notion that the educational system alone can and should bear the responsibility for achieving equal educational opportunity must be laid to rest.³ The decision makers in the community college insofar as they are free from constraints in their decisions, must make up their minds what to strive for and how to go about accomplishing what they decide.

Staffing problems need to be considered too by curricular decision makers. Finding faculty prepared or willing to teach underachievers is a major barrier to educating all junior college students.⁴ The authors in general address themselves to this problem. Teaching culturally deprived

¹Moore, op. cit., pp. 126ff.

²Edmund J. Glazer, Jr., "Concerns and Cautions for Community Colleges," Junior College Journal, Vol. 38, No. 6: March 1968, p. 20.

³Samuel Bowles, "Toward Equality of Educational Opportunity" Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 38, No. 11: Winter 1968.

⁴Richard L. Meeth, "Expanding Faculty Support for Underachievers," Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 5: February 1972.

youth of the lower class, all agree, is hard, different from the teaching of middle and upper-class students and calls for special adaptations. Clark says that, "The problem for the school is to change the 'vicious cycle' of interaction between student characteristics and teacher response-- through such means as increasing the motivation to achieve on the part of the pupils and strengthening the commitment of the best teachers to the worst schools."¹ Donald A. Eldridge, past President of the American Association of Junior Colleges, names faculty recruitment to teach the low-achiever a matter of major importance.² David Rogers speaks about it.³ Moore prefers hiring satisfactory teachers with "the right attitude and commitment who may not have the right credentials" to the properly credentialed who lack the needed attitude and commitment toward the students who need their help.⁴ Monroe observed the teacher's need for "empathy and understanding for the lower-ability students."⁵

Roueché also has noted with irony that the inexperienced instructor is the one most often found in the remedial classroom. "The questions of status and prestige among teachers must be resolved," he says, "if instructors are to become interested in the teaching of remedial students."⁶

¹Clark, op. cit., p. 99.

²Donald A. Eldridge, "New Dimensions for the Two-Year College," Junior College Journal, Vol. 38, No. 1: September 1967.

³David Rogers, 110 Livingston Street, Politics and Bureaucracy in the New York City Schools, New York: Random House, 1968, p. 328.

⁴Moore, Against the Odds, op. cit., p. 147.

⁵Monroe, op. cit., p. 115.

⁶Roueché, Salvage, Redirection or Custody? Remedial Education in the Community Junior College, op. cit., pp. 51, 62.

He suggests that institutions may want "to consider the possibility of employing qualified elementary teachers to teach students in remedial courses," teachers "experienced with the level of subject matter taught in remedial courses."¹

The importance of proper teacher attitudes towards low-achieving students are stressed by Roueche, for, as he observes, one who is not enthusiastic certainly cannot motivate those for whom motivation may be a most serious problem. A special workshop on programs for low-achievers spelled out the following justifications needed by teachers in remedial programs. They provide a summary of current literature on the subject:

1. The instructor must seek change in the present curriculum or ignore it.
2. The instructor must understand his teaching field, but more important, he should be able to present the material at the level of the students.
3. The instructor must be willing to live with the knowledge that many people believe such students have no place in college.
4. The instructor must give up the belief that to be non-verbal is to be a non-learner.
5. The instructor must believe in the educational worth of the remedial student.
6. The instructor must be willing to give up his subject-centered orientation in favor of involving himself with the student in relevant educational experiences which stress the processes by which learning takes place.²

Curricular decision makers need institutional guidelines or policies to serve as criteria in their efforts to design a curriculum truly geared for the unprepared or otherwise culturally disadvantaged student.

¹
Loc. cit.

²Quoted in Roueche, Salvage, Redirection or Custody? Remedial Education in the Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 19, 62.

Adult or Continuing Education Curriculum

Many of the authors, in order to place the community college adult or continuing education curriculum in perspective, trace its early beginnings to human needs experienced and recognized a century ago. 1926, however, was a key year, according to Bryson, for in that year adult education "ceased to be a combination of sporadic and scattered impulses and began to take shape as an organized pattern within both our public school system and many of our urban collegiate institutions."¹

Junior colleges were late in accepting responsibilities in this field or work. The AAJC Committee on Junior College Adult Education found widespread interest in 1941, but as recently as in 1952, Brick reports, only a small group discussed adult education at the AAJC Convention.² It appeared evident that while "many junior colleges were doing a remarkably effective job, many others were not aware of their responsibility and opportunity to provide education for adults."³ However, as Brick continues,

The Curriculum Commission in recent years has recognized the importance of adult education and has made this one of its priority projects. While it is not the peculiar responsibility of junior colleges, those two-year institutions that are truly oriented to community service should perform a major share of the nation's total program for adults. With the increased emphasis on the value of education throughout life, with more leisure time, and with the increased need for re-training, continuing education is a new frontier in American education.⁴

¹Lyman Bryson, Adult Education, New York: American Book Company, 1936, pp. 20-21.

²Brick, op. cit., p. 141.

³Loc. cit.

⁴Loc. cit.

The term "adult education," while still used by many authors, is now considered inappropriate by many others who prefer "continuing education."¹ No longer is it possible to differentiate "adult" courses, many feel, on the basis of student age, full-time employment, and utilization of evening classes. Many regular full-time students enrolled in the community college are adults in the most restrictive sense.

Thornton points out that for this reason "community colleges are giving increased attention to providing evening courses identical to those given in the day, carrying the same requirements and credits, and leading to the same objectives."² Evening classes are becoming more an integral part of the college curriculum, indistinguishable from day-time classes. Furthermore, since the community college exists to serve the educational needs of all, it can hardly operate differently when one-half or more of its students are part-time students.³

Continuing education, formal or informal is recognized as a life-long reality. The community college serves the adult community in several ways: basic education leading to a certificate of high-school equivalency or a diploma, occupational training or re-training, cultural education which encompasses a wide variety of avocational interests, civic education to prepare for American citizenship, associate degree programs, workshops,

¹Monroe, op. cit., p. 129, et al.

²Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 245.

³Monroe, op. cit., p. 130, also Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 246. Thornton finds that there is substantial agreement among junior college administrators that continuing education is distinguished from the regular day-time program as a matter of convenience rather than because of essential differences, p. 254.

seminars and non-credit courses designed to meet the special needs of the community.¹ Monroe, among others, notes that "the variety of the offerings in adult education are so diverse and unique to each community college that it would be impossible to set forth a sample curriculum as typical or desirable."²

Major Problems in Designing an Adult or Continuing Education Curriculum

Basic issues need to be resolved into institutional policies if curricular decision makers can hope to design an optimely useful program in continuing education. The question of college credit for courses is an example. Some feel that credit should be offered only for courses that parallel their day-time offerings; others feel that any course worthy of being offered is worthy of credit. Some colleges, and perhaps most, offer short courses and courses of limited scope and specialized interest courses without credit and allow students to take classes that are equivalent to the day-time classes for credit or as auditors.³

Other questions have to do with the treatment of regular and "adult" students in regard to relative tuition charges and other sources of revenue.

The scope and diversity of the program creates issues that find great disagreement among administrators and need to be resolved before curriculum planning can begin. The public schools, perhaps, and other agencies doubtlessly engage in adult education services, and should not find

¹Bushnell, op. cit., pp. 90-91. Thornton adds "home-making education" and a "geriatric purpose," Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit. pp. 250-251.

²Monroe, op. cit., p. 133.

³Ibid., p. 134, also Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 255-256.

needless or useless competition from the community college.¹ Articulation with the educational agencies--for example, the community education services of the public schools--is an acute need. "Organized decisions should be sought that will result in making available to the people of the community the finest possible continuing education program, with due regard for economy to the school districts and for harmony among all workers."² Thornton enumerates a series of questions related to scope and diversity--to what extent should the community junior college seek to meet all educational needs of the adults of the community--and suggests that administrators who adopt the community junior college point of view "lean toward the aggressive, all-inclusive, extended-service concept of the adult education program."³

Faculty and administration qualities cannot be overlooked by curricular decision makers. Monroe thinks that it is "sometimes better to abandon the adult-education program than to attempt to operate it...with the half-hearted support of the college's board and administration." The faculty for college-credit continuing education programs should probably be the same as for the regular programs; instructors must, however, be able to adapt to a different, more mature and exacting clientele. Professional and skilled workers from non-academic backgrounds who instruct on a part-time basis can provide a rich teaching resource for the community college; academic credentials may well be waived in favor of "hard practical knowledge and work experience."⁴

¹Ibid., p. 136. Cf. also Bushnell, op. cit., p. 93-94.

²Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 255.

³Loc. cit.

⁴Monroe, op. cit., p. 137.

Bushnell and Zagaris see that a non-tenured faculty, plus a program considered by many to be "low status," plus limited dollar resources for planning and development make the continuing education program most vulnerable when the college is faced with a budget squeeze. The examination of state budgets, in addition, they find shows that rarely are separate funds provided for continuing education, and further evidences the marginal status of continuing education programs in the community college.¹

Forces which tend to restrict the development (of the size and scope of junior college adult education) to conventional classroom programs are the definition of adult education as a community service inferior to transfer and terminal programs, the lack of imagination shown in adult classes, the ill-conceived state reimbursement schemes, the lack of co-operation with adult educators in other institutions, and the lack of training for administrators.²

Griffith sees the necessity for a distinction between educational activities and community service programs as being of fundamental importance. Others recognize this distinction, even though they relate continuing education and community services to one another as a part to the whole.³ Still others speak of them in the same breath.

Flexibility in continuing education programs must be a watch-word for curriculum planners. If college administrators see as the ideal "to offer anything and everything of educational value for which there is a sufficient and sustained demand"⁴ then "demand" becomes an indeed important

¹Bushnell, op. cit., p. 94.

²William S. Griffith, "Adult Education: The Challenge of the Junior College," Address presented at the Third Annual Illinois Junior College Conference, Rockford, Illinois, October 25, 1968; Los Angeles, California: University of California: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education, EDO 25691-AC003126, 1968.

³Monroe, op. cit., e.g., and Harlacher, whom Monroe references, p. 129.

⁴Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 257.

criterion in program planning. In any event, administrative willingness to offer programs at times and places when they can be utilized appears a sine qua non for the growth and development of an adult education curriculum.

Community Service Programs

Most recent among the recognized major functions of the community college is community services. Before 1960, adult or continuing education--the evening classes--was the summation of community service functions. Medsker reported that in 1956 very little community service other than this was being offered anywhere.¹ Harlacher notes a significant increase in the recognition of the community service function of the community college since 1965,² and that while expansion of these services is occurring, they are still relatively undeveloped.

The origin of the community service function in the community college can be traced to two different movements in American education, according to Harlacher, the community school concept in the public schools and the community development concept in the four-year institutions of higher education.³ The acceleration of interest in community services during the 1960's was the result of several factors. These included "the infusion

¹Leland L. Medsker, The Junior College: Progress and Prospect, op. cit., p. 79.

²Ervin L. Harlacher, The Community Dimension of the Community College, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969, p. 18.

³Ervin L. Harlacher, Effective Junior College Programs of Community Services: Rationale, Guidelines, Practices, Los Angeles, California: University of California, 1967, pp. 14-17. The relationship and interlinking of the community education of the public schools and the community services of the community college is the subject of an interesting and useful article by Jerry G. Solloway, Gundar A. Myran, "Educational Interlink: Community Services and Community School," Community Education, Vol. 1, No. 2: May 1971.

of federal monies, particularly in areas related to poverty, urban redevelopment, and man-power training; the civil rights movement and demands to open society for Blacks and other minorities; the visibility of community services programming provided by the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the increasing social concern for the urban crisis, racial inequalities, and illiteracy."¹

Reynolds, in a frustrating attempt to define the function of community services, concludes that the community service program which he says is so diffuse and so ephemeral "includes all the educational services provided by a junior college over and above the regular day program for full-time students."²

Harlacher includes not only educational services, but cultural and recreational services...all in cooperation with other community agencies. Community Services, he says, is now widely recognized as a major function of the community college. This recognition and general acceptance obliges the community college to:

1. Become a center of community life by encouraging the use of college facilities and services by community groups when such use does not interfere with the college's regularly scheduled programs;
2. Provide for all age groups educational services that utilize the special skills and knowledge of the college

¹Solloway, op. cit., p. 42.

²Reynolds, The Junior College, op. cit., p. 42. Reynolds says elsewhere that "the comprehensiveness of a community services program depends on the perceptiveness and ingenuity of its innovators who are responsible for discovering the educational needs of the community." Quote taken from Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 91. A taxonomy of community services functions, prepared by Max R. Raines, Michigan State University, describes the present scope of community services and provides, really, an extended and detailed definition of community services. Gundar A. Myran, Community Services in the Community College, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1969, pp. 14-16.

staff and other experts and be designed to meet the needs of community groups and the college district community at large;

3. Provide the community, including business and industry, with the leadership and coordination capabilities of the college, assist the community in long-range planning, and join with individuals and groups in attacking unsolved problems;
4. Contribute to and promote the cultural, intellectual, and social life of the college district community and the development of skills for the profitable use of leisure time.¹

To accomplish these objectives, the following principles, Harlacher says, need also to be recognized and accepted:

1. In a community college the campus is the length and breadth of the junior college district.
2. The program of community services is designed to bring the community to the college and take the college program out into the community.
3. The educational program of the college must not be limited to formalized classroom instruction.
4. The community college recognizes its responsibility as a catalyst in community development and self-improvement.
5. The program of community services meets community needs and does not duplicate existing services in the community.²

Major Problems in Designing Community Service Programs

Program planners do not escape difficulty in designing community service programs, but the problems appear to be fairly straight-forward. The need for leadership and for total faculty involvement is mentioned by several authors.³ Reynolds notes that administrative policies are highly

¹Harlacher, The Community Dimension of the Community College, op. cit., p. v of Preface.

²Ibid., p. 15. Harlacher is evidently a recognized leader among authors in the field of community services. Monroe, op. cit., p. 138ff and others quote his thoughts quite extensively. Articulations of others, e.g., Max R. Raines, Gundar A. Myran, "Community Services: A University-Community College Approach," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 2: October 1970, run parallel to them.

³Raines, op. cit., Bushnell, op. cit., Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., Harlacher, The Community Dimension of the Community College, op. cit.

influential in determining the type of curriculum the college provides. The community service program often is directly controlled by the educational philosophy of the chief administrator. His "relationship to the college board, the faculty, and the public relations program...makes his attitude critical in causing the program to succeed or fail; since these three parts of the organization exercise a great deal of power, it appears that their view would be decisive."¹

The attitude of the board is important and can indirectly determine policy through its selection of the president, or it may directly favor or object to the positive philosophy of the chief executive toward community services. The attitude of the president can be decisive similarly when he hires new faculty as well as in his normal influential relationship with the instructional force.² Faculty members may object to non-credit courses as flaunting well-established traditions in higher education, and may resist community service programs for which they are not ready and which, they may feel, attack their status.³

Adequate resources or their absence may be decision-making criteria for program planners. Costs of staff, added service functions (e.g., extended library hours), utilities, custodial service, supervisory administrative personnel, secretarial help, guidance and counseling services are not small expenses. In addition, course credit is often the criterion the state uses in giving or withholding supporting funds.⁴

¹Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 91f.

²Ibid., p. 92.

³Bushnell, op. cit., p. 98.

⁴Loc. cit.

Reynolds points out that the size of the community served by the community college can be an inhibiting factor in community services program development. In a small community, both instructors and interested program participants may be scarce. In larger communities, Reynolds observes, larger enrollments, more comprehensive curriculum, richer resources in faculty and instructional aids are more readily expected. Colleges in such areas may be inhibited by competition from other community serving agencies--a problem not usually experienced by colleges in the smaller communities.¹

Community Services instructors, often recruited from the community for their special interests and abilities, are often untenured and may be paid at an hourly rate. Credential requirements expected of full-time faculty members may be waived and wages paid may be substantially lower than that paid full-time faculty. Bushnell and Zagaris suggest that "recent developments in collective bargaining may end or reduce this flexibility in hiring," eliminating the extensive use of resource persons and pricing community service programs out of the market.² These same authors point out that practical or psychological handicaps felt by those who would utilize the community services programs (e.g., the need for care of dependents, lack of transportation, a sense of inadequacy in the learning situation and inflexible work schedules need to be overcome.³ These, insofar as they exist, should be recognized by program planners for they are criteria of decision.

¹Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 93.

²Bushnell, op. cit., p. 99.

³Ibid., p. 100.

Harlacher enumerates eight major problems and issues--some already mentioned--that curriculum decision makers in planning a community services program will need to resolve or recognize as criteria guidelines for decision:

1. internal and external communications;
2. securing the support of boards of trustees, the administration, and faculty for community services;
3. coordination of service with other community and regional groups;
4. identification of community needs and interests;
5. planning and evaluation of the program;
6. development of a program philosophy and identification of objectives;
7. administration and supervision of the program;
8. adequate resources.¹

External Influences upon Curricular Decision Making

In this review of literature, thought addressed to the process of program and course selection and to criteria which affect decisions to be made is the important focus. Kirst and Walker, in a lengthy and stimulating article appearing in the Review of Educational Research object to what authors in general call "influences" on curricular decision making. Authors without exception, they find, treat "conflict always as conflict among ideas, never as conflict among individuals, interest groups or factions within school system bureaucracies."² For Kirst and Walker, the determination of public school curriculum is not just influenced by political events, but is a political process resolved through political

¹Harlacher, The Community Dimension of the Community College, op. cit., pp. 43-67.

²Michael W. Kirst, Decker F. Walker, "An Analysis of Curriculum Policy Making," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 41, No. 5: December 1971, pp. 481.

conflict "generated by the existence of competing values concerning the proper basis for deciding what to teach."¹ Value conflicts, authoritatively allocated, is the essence of what they mean by the political process in curriculum decision making,² and each value basis has its supporters and detractors who use political techniques to bolster their position.

When a definite value base is accepted, determination of the curriculum is simplified, these authors say, for then there is provided a limited and well-defined set of criteria for narrowing the bewildering array of curricular choices. But even though the acceptance of a single clear and consistent basis of value simplifies the process, the resolution of political conflict in curriculum policy making requires a decision procedure in addition to a value basis. Thus, usually, an individual or small group is given authority to make decisions by exercising professional and "expert" judgment. The power given this decision-making body ranges from tight control to virtual independence.

Kirst and Walker, quoting Lindblom and Braybrooke, suggest that the decision procedure these groups will follow is one of "disjointed incrementalism--a collection of 'relatively simple, crude, almost wholly conscious, and public strategies' for decision making, which 'taken together as a mutually reinforcing set...constitute a systematic and defensible strategy'"...³

The major features of disjointed incrementalism are (a) acceptance of the broad outlines of the existing situation with only marginal changes contemplated, (b)

¹
Ibid., p. 480.

²
Ibid., p. 483.

³
C. Lindblom, D. Braybrooke, A Strategy of Decision, New York: Free Press, 1963, p. 82, quoted in Kirst, "An Analysis of Curriculum Policy Making," op. cit., p. 484.

consideration of a restricted variety of policy alternatives excluding those entailing radical change, (c) consideration of a restricted number of consequences for any given policy, (d) adjustment of objectives to policies as well as policies to objectives, (e) willingness to formulate the problem as data becomes available, and (f) serial analysis and piece-meal alterations rather than a single comprehensive attack.¹

The conclusion reached by Kirst and Walker is that "curriculum decision makers use informal methods of decision making," and that the "absence of formal decision-making procedures complicates the task of comprehending the political processes involved in decision making since informal methods are more complex, diffuse and irregular."²

Dispute among authors as to the political processes and informal methods of decision making has not been evidenced in this review. Furthermore, "influences," "determinants," "constraints," and all other pressures upon the curriculum, whatever they are called, provide criteria for curricular decision makers and the question of semantics need not here be of concern.

National and Regional Influences upon Curricular Decision Making

Richardson, in examining influences from the national perspective, notes three complications: "(1) confusion as to national goals and lack of clearly-defined objectives for higher education, (2) rapidly changing and vacillating leadership on the national level, and (3) the late arrival of the two-year college as a national priority."³ Without clear objectives, plans cannot well be designed on a long-range basis, but must be devised

¹Kirst, "An Analysis of Curriculum Policy Making," op. cit., p. 484-485.

²Ibid., p. 485.

³Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Clyde E. Blocker, Louis W. Bender, Governance for the Two-Year College, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972, p. 6.

to meet short-term critical needs that demand prompt satisfaction. The question of higher education's role and purpose in society has been unresolved on the national level, as "an almost endless succession of committees, commissions, task forces, and self-appointed critics (suggest) fundamental redefinitions of the roles of higher education."¹ The long time recognition of both the public schools and four-year institutions as being of national importance kept the short-sighted from appreciating the important place the new community colleges were taking everywhere and the special problems which they faced. A clearly evident pull toward centralized bureaucratic control on the state or national levels is resulting from the absence of a unified and sound national policy structure and a reliable and consistent funding program.²

Federal funding policies powerfully influence the curriculum at every educational level. Millett is not alone in observing that "federal funds do mean various kinds of control and do exercise various kinds of influence upon the decision making of colleges and universities."³ Colleges really cannot expect to be both affluent and autonomous, Millett says.

Senator Harrison C. Williams (D.--N. J.), who introduced the Comprehensive Community College Act of 1969 to the Senate, saw that "the Federal Government had failed in its full responsibilities to these colleges which represent almost half of all institutions of higher education and approximately one-third of all students in higher education."⁴

¹Ibid., p. 7.

²Loc. cit.

³John D. Millett, Decision Making and Administration in Higher Education, Ohio: Kent State University Press, 1968, p. 27.

⁴Harrison A. Williams, "To Close the Opportunity Gap," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 1: September 1969, p. 8.

Without adequate financing at the federal level, supporting the state and local efforts, community colleges, Harrison recognized, could not "close the opportunity gap" that separates American society into educational "haves" and "have-nots."

Encouragement is generally found in a "new Washington climate" that will enable community colleges to serve their communities better.¹ The "Grantmanship" has probably been a greater problem in the four-year colleges and universities. Federal funding programs for one year (or any short term) is a problem more acutely experienced, perhaps, in the community colleges. Without a secure view toward the future, long-range plans become impossible and short-range development unlikely. The AAJC Commission on Legislation has called for a restructuring of federal programs. "Some forty-four different agencies of the Federal Government are currently administering scores of educational programs. The Office of Education alone administers more than seventy-five programs."² The Commission has called for more effective coordination among the federal agencies, simplified grant forms, regional coordinating agencies where the various colleges can find help in clarifying their needs and in making maximum use of appropriate agencies. Still further decentralization to state departments of education and urban centers is asked by AAJC."³

¹Frank R. Mensel, "Federal Support for the Two-Year Colleges: A Whole New Ballgame," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 1: September 1969.

²"Toward Universal Opportunity: Goals and Priorities for Federal Programs," (Statement adopted by the AAJC Commission on Legislation, December 1970, as its first formal statement of legislative goals), Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 6: March 1971, p. 17.

³Loc. cit.

A single national system of higher education is not favored by the authors. Recommendations for federal support emphasizes its increased role for specialized and supplemental purposes, not as a dominant source of basic financial support that leads to federal dominance in influence and control.¹

Finances can make needed programs possible in the community college. If there is a "trade-off" in some loss of autonomy or if constraints are placed upon programs backed by federal funding, policy makers and curricular decision makers will have to decide which course to follow. At least criteria, hopefully clear, will be able to guide them in their decisions.

The influences of national professional organizations are of importance to two-year colleges. The American Association of Junior Colleges has represented two-year colleges and their various constituencies at the national level. It has provided notable assistance in improving communications between the federal establishment, state director of community college systems, and university professors involved in the preparation of professional personnel.² Its influence has been informational, advisory and stimulating--not regulatory--as has been the influence of the American Council on Education and the American Association for Higher Education. Both of these Associations have been helpful in communicating the needs and activities of higher education to government, business, and industry and in communicating information to their membership.

¹The Capitol and the Campus: State Responsibilities for Post-secondary Education, Report and Recommendations of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1971, p. 1ff.

²Richardson, op. cit., p. 10.

The National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers (and to some measure the American Association of University Professors) compete as spokesmen for professionals in higher education.¹ Collective bargaining in Michigan has as its scope wages, hours, and conditions of employment. Under this latter--conditions of employment--many influences upon curriculum may be expected. Negotiations over wages and hours too can provide criteria that will affect curricular decisions to be made.

The influence of regional and professional accrediting associations upon curriculum is pervasive. It is the primary method by which higher education provides for its own governance.² B. Lamar Johnson notes the values of accreditation which, he says, emerge largely from two steps in the process:

(1) the preparation of the application (faculty participation in a study of the institution and the resulting preparation of reports for submission to the accrediting agency), and (2) the improvements made by the college as a result of the accreditation survey and its recommendations. The latter outcomes are, in large measure, dependent upon the clarity and the validity of the recommendations made by the visiting examiners.³

At the same time, according to Kirst and Walker, accreditation is seen by every schoolman as being so important that it brings almost irresistible pressure on the curriculum. "In effect, accrediting agencies make value

¹M. Lieberman, Michael H. Moskow, J. Joseph Loewenberg, Edward C. Koziarz, Collective Negotiations for Teachers, Chicago, Illinois: Rand-McNally, 1966. Cf. also Collective Bargaining in Public Employment, New York: Random House, 1970.

²William K. Selden, "Nationwide Standards and Accreditation," in Wilson (Editor), op. cit., p. 214-215. Cf. also Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., et al.

³B. Lamar Johnson, "California Junior College Curriculum Development," The California Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 31: March 1956, p. 134. Richardson expresses a like view in Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 56.

judgments about what should be taught while their credo stresses professional judgment."¹

Both views are doubtlessly right. From one point of view, the influence of accrediting agencies can be seen as advisory, informational, and stimulating--as a totally free and objective self-appraisal by an institution. From another point of view, one can recognize that the criticality of being accredited practically coerces compliance and obsequiousness, even when the subjectivity of examiner's viewpoints, values, and judgments may be unacceptable. The influence of accrediting agencies over curriculum can be regulatory and usually is.²

Accreditation of programs by various professional associations represent a complex problem to the two-year college, Richardson thinks. Their proliferation, cause of unnecessary time consumption, expense, and sometimes unrealistically high requirements has encouraged some faculty members to emphasize college parallel curricula at the expense of occupational programs.³ The findings of a study by Messersmith and Medsker, on the contrary, affirm the utility and acceptance of program accreditation in post-secondary education.⁴

Foundations and other philanthropic organizations contribute to the development of community colleges and their programs, and they have become "powerful agents in curriculum making."⁵

¹Kirst, op. cit., p. 489.

²Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 39.

³Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 13.

⁴Lloyd E. Messersmith, Leland L. Medsker, "Problems and Issues in Accreditation by Specialized Agencies of Vocational-Technical Curricula in Post-secondary Institutions," HEW Cooperative Research Program, Berkeley, California: The Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, 1969. Abstract from ERIC, EDO30750-VT008 830.

⁵Monroe, op. cit., p. 494.

Testing agencies exert a "standardizing" influence on curriculum,¹ and textbook publishers are "powerful influences on the curriculum," for to control the content of the textbook is, naturally, to control the curriculum.² University professors, by the articulation of their personal values influence curriculum and when banded together in their professional associations can be extremely influential.³

Another national influence upon the curriculum, noted by the authors, is the Education Commission of the States which tries to exert pressure upon Congress to support comprehensive post-secondary institutions which serve the local community. The Southern Regional Education Board (SREB), the Western Interstate Compact for Higher Education (WICHE) and the New England Board of Higher Education (NEBHE) have provided national leadership. Their influences are not coercive, but their leverage with legislatures and community college people is very significant. Through providing a facility for the collection, coordination and dissemination of materials of interest to community colleges and through its original research, the ERIC center for junior colleges, located at the University of California, Los Angeles, has likewise become important as an influence in curriculum development.⁴

The external forces upon curriculum determination at the national level are of various kinds and arise from various sources. They may not

¹Kirst, op. cit., p. 489.

²Ibid., p. 492. Cf. also Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 151. "There is probably no greater influence on a given curriculum than the textbooks used in its course."

³Ibid., p. 495-496.

⁴Monroe, op. cit., pp. 15-17.

simplify the work of curriculum designers or policy makers, but they may be "portants of an increasingly political approach to curriculum questions on the part of the general public."¹

State Influences upon Curricular Decision Making

The authors are in agreement that influences upon the community college at the state level have markedly increased in recent years. The need for coordinated efforts within and among the various segments of higher education is today generally recognized and called for.² State Master Plans for institutions of higher education, it is recognized, can bring about efficiency and economy of programs and services.

Guidelines for the feasible establishment of new institutions for the maximum opportunity and development of students can be established by objective research. Roles and responsibilities of the various career-developing institutions and their interrelationships can be defined. A clear and binding, acceptable plan for articulation between community colleges and four-year institutions, relative to transfer curriculum, can be fashioned to free students from fear of penalty when they transfer from the junior to the senior college. A Master Plan cannot escape recognition of the state's financial responsibility toward its institutions, and authors feel that community colleges (supported by local taxing bodies

¹Kirst, op. cit., p. 509.

²Principles of Legislative Action for Community Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, (Commission on Legislation), 1962, e.g., under Principle 7, p. 8: "The organization, operation and control of community junior colleges should reflect both a recognition of the institutional integrity of the college and its coordinate relationships with other educational levels within the state."

up to two-thirds of their total expenses) should be treated fairly with the four-year institutions and universities whose total costs (apart from tuition and fees) is paid by the state.¹

The question is not whether to plan and coordinate, according to T. R. McConnell, writing in 1966, but who will plan and coordinate--external agencies, such as the legislature or the state department of finance, or responsible educational bodies--and what will be the role of the coordinating body?² Wattenbarger, in 1968, spoke of "the stigma of state control," and noting then that many influences were at work directly affecting the organization of the community junior colleges--that state control, where evidenced, had not proved propitious to the development of the community college--urged the preservation of the strengths of the locally controlled system.³ Three years later Wattenbarger, working with J. A. Stuckman, appeared to accept as a fact the recognition of state legislators that "planning and coordination are essential if a state's educational and

¹Medsker, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year College, op. cit., pp. 148-150. The AAJC, Principles of Legislative Action for Community Junior Colleges, op. cit., Principle 5, reflects the same consideration. The Carnegie Commission outlines various common purposes of coordination and offers recommendations of minimum elements deemed necessary in any state planning effort. The Capital and the Campus: State Responsibility for Post-secondary Education, op. cit., pp. 26, 34. Cf. also Millett, op. cit., pp. 28-31.

²T. R. McConnell, "The Coordination of State Systems," in Wilson (Editor), op. cit., pp. 136ff.

³James L. Wattenbarger, "Changing Patterns of Control: Local to State," Junior College Journal, Vol. 38, No. 8: May 1968. Cf. also Principles of Legislative Action for Community Junior Colleges, op. cit., Principle 4, p. 5: "The control of a community junior college should be vested preferably in a local board whose sole responsibility is the operation and management of the college." Singer and Grande evidence the same conclusion. Donald A. Singer, John A. Grande, "Emerging Patterns of Governance," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 6: March 1971.

occupational needs are to be met, if equal educational opportunity beyond the high school regardless of home location is to be provided, and if the community college development in the state is to be orderly."¹ Wattenbarger argued for institutional integrity on the one hand and for a spirit of cooperation and support between the local board, administration and faculty with the state coordinating agency on the other. He argued further for the establishment of separate councils for the president,² the chief academic officer, the chief student personnel officer, the business manager and the teaching faculty of each community college in the state--each of the five organizations working under a definite plan with an agency staff member to bring out effective statewide and institutional planning.

In the summer of 1972, working with Louis W. Bender, Wattenbarger noted the continual evidence "that the focus for much of the public policy making, for higher education and planning, for budgeting, and for the much needed evaluation is shifting from the individual institution and the local community level to the state level."³ He noted too the inroads of non-educational state agencies with responsibilities or control over matters affecting community colleges. "The role of state budget, personnel, or physical facilities agencies, as well as other departments of state government," he observed, "often impinge upon the on-going

¹Jeffrey A. Stuckman, James L. Wattenbarger, "Coordination Within the State System," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 6: March 1971, p. 43.

²Fairly common already, according to Mensel, op. cit., p. 266.

³Louis W. Bender, James L. Wattenbarger, "Challenge Ahead: State-Level Control," Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 9: June-July 1972, p. 17.

operation of local community colleges."¹ As the Carnegie Commission had recommended a year earlier² and McConnell even earlier,³ Wattenbarger turned his attention to the important new career aspect of state agency work. In addition, he reported the establishment of a Center for State and Regional Leadership, established by the University of Florida and Florida State University with the assistance of a grant by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to support activities which would aid in solving problems caused by present trends. The "participating universities are convinced that the currently increasing and often unplanned emphasis upon state level coordination and/or control must be tempered by deliberate attention to the nature of this relatively uncharted development."⁴

¹Ibid., p. 17.

²The Capital and the Campus: State Responsibility for Post-secondary Education, op. cit., p. 30-31.

³McConnell, op. cit., p. 137.

⁴Bender, op. cit., p. 20. The new center has the following basic purposes:

1. To provide a more positive and temperate direction in the rapidly emerging role of the states in planning, coordination, and operation of community college systems.
2. To foster improvement of working relationships within and services from various governmental agencies involved in state-wide development of community colleges.
3. To provide a national center for development of professional personnel who will serve in the various governmental agencies having responsibilities for community colleges.
4. To establish a national information center focused upon evolving issues related to the development of state-level coordination of community colleges and the effects upon constituent institutions.
5. To strengthen the national scope of state-wide community college programs by providing services to the National Council of State Directors of Community Colleges and assisting the development and activities of that organization.

Lyman A. Glenny noted the existence of state-wide boards to coordinate public institutions of higher learning early in the century, though the steady increase became especially rapid since 1950. All of them were characterized by "a decided lack of positive goals to develop and strengthen the institutions and programs."¹ With authors in general, Glenny sees as the greatest problem of coordination today the perennial question of how to achieve economy, efficiency and the reduction of competition among institutions for state funds without destroying the initiative, flexibility and diversity of the public institutions. He agrees with McConnell² that voluntary systems of coordination cannot serve the interests and needs of state-wide higher education as well as formal coordinating agencies,³ and that in practice "coordinating agencies do not afford individual institutions more freedom and initiative than governing agencies,"⁴ even though they are by far more popular and least opposed by institutions.

Even though fear for institutional integrity and autonomy continues to be a common concern,⁵ Richardson reports that while only twenty states

¹Lyman A. Glenny, Autonomy of Public Colleges, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959, p. 263.

²McConnell, op. cit., p. 138.

³Glenny, op. cit., p. 262.

⁴Ibid., p. 264. Bushnell and Zagaris "foresee a continuing tension between state and local authorities over who will set priorities and what those priorities should be. Bushnell, op. cit., p. 152.

⁵Monroe, op. cit., p. 360. Note especially the recommendations of the Carnegie Commission, The Capital and the Campus: State Responsibilities for Post-secondary Education, op. cit., p. 20ff that governors not serve as chairmen or voting members of state coordinating agencies or governing boards of colleges and universities, and that appointments by the governor to governing boards of state colleges and universities, and to state coordinating and/or planning agencies, be made with the advice and consent of the senate. Other restrictive suggestions, relative to coordinating agencies, are also offered.

had state coordinating agencies in 1959, forty-eight of the fifty states had developed some type of statewide coordination or control by 1969.¹ "Concern for institutional autonomy," however, "has counteracted trends for greater coordination, creating in many institutions a reaction against the principle of long-range planning designed for statewide coordination of a system or even sub-systems."²

Two-year colleges can be classified into three categories, out of which, according to Monroe, three basic patterns of control and finance have emerged. The first and oldest pattern of community college operation--the unified district community colleges--organizes the community college as an integral part of the public school system. The Independent Community College can more readily look to the state for alleviation of the local financial burden, and therefore has greater opportunity to provide a more comprehensive educational program--especially occupational curriculum--for more students. Such an organizational pattern is common in Michigan and is becoming more common generally. Independent colleges are controlled by locally elected (e.g., Michigan) or appointed college boards which are independent from other local school boards. State operated community colleges (and also technical institutes and area vocational schools) are organized under the direct control of a state agency, either a state board of higher education, a state community college board or a state university. These are financed completely by the state.³

¹ Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 24.

² Ibid., p. 25.

³ Monroe, op. cit., p. 351-369.

Organization of Community Colleges¹

Type of College	Number of Colleges (percentage surveyed)
Local two-year colleges including both unified and independent school districts	59.0
State supported two-year colleges and technical institutes	15.4
University extension centers and branches	20.7
Other institutions	<u>4.9</u>
	100.0

Richardson points out that "one difficulty inherent in statewide coordination or control is the ability to maintain a balance between state and local needs and interests."²

McConnell,³ Wattenbarger,⁴ and Richardson⁵ are among the authors who have observed increasing influence upon community colleges by specializing governmental agencies, such as the state vocational education agency, budget offices and licensing boards. Richardson notes the contribution of various publics whose activities and actions can help shape the community college "when they take positions on proposed legislation affecting such institutions, or when they use the media to influence sentiment."⁶ Political

¹Ibid., p. 352.

²Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 26.

³McConnell, op. cit., p. 83.

⁴Bender, op. cit., pp. 17-20.

⁵Richardson, op. cit., p. 28.

⁶Loc. cit.

parties, state chambers of commerce, the manufacturer's association, state labor unions are some of these. Voluntary state educational bodies, he observes--professional organizations for trustees, administrators, faculty or students--"frequently give direction to efforts creating statutory or regulatory provisions designed to influence the mission or programs of the two-year college."¹

In summary, the legislature, the executive office, coordinating agencies, judicial bodies and other governmental and non-governmental agencies provide directional and/or operational influences upon the community college, according to Richardson.² The distinction he makes between directional and operational influences is interesting and appears unique. Directional influences, he says, result from "long-range planning, enabling legislature, determination of priorities and similar processes to shape institutional purposes directly. Operational influences are more direct and are the consequence of special procedures or restraints imposed by legislation, executive order or through agencies exercising powers granted by the legislature."³ The many state influences upon the community college and its curriculum need to be recognized and understood by curriculum decision makers, for individually and collectively they are criteria that direct or guide decisions to be made.

Michigan State Influences upon Curriculum Decision Making

In creating the new State Board of Education, the 1963 Constitution prescribed that the board "shall serve as the general planning and

¹Ibid., p. 28-29.

²Ibid., pp. 19-35.

³Ibid., p. 34.

coordinating body for all public education, including higher education, and shall advise the legislature as to the financial requirements in connection therewith."¹ The State Board of Education, furthermore, "has leadership and general supervision of all public education, including adult education and instructional programs of the state institutions, except as to institutions of higher education granting baccalaureate degrees."² In addition, the 1963 Constitution stipulates that "the legislature shall provide by law for the establishment and financial support of public community and junior colleges which shall be supervised and controlled by locally elected boards," and that "the legislature shall provide by law for a state board for public junior and community colleges which shall advise the state board of education concerning general supervision and planning for such colleges, and requests for annual appropriations for their support."³

The Michigan Department of Education adopted a State Plan for Higher Education on June 11, 1969.⁴ In this Plan are outlined thirty-eight goals related to services in the area of higher education planning and coordinating. These are divided into four broad categories: identification of needs in higher education, planning and coordination of programs, determination of financial requirements, and a fourth which embraces several federal

¹Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1963, Article VIII, Section 3, paragraph 1, in Laws, Statutes and Constitutional Provisions Affecting Community Colleges in Michigan, Michigan Department of Education, revised 1970.

²Constitution of the State of Michigan, op. cit., Section IX.

³Constitution of the State of Michigan, op. cit., Section 7.

⁴State Plan for Higher Education in Michigan, Revised February 1970, Lansing, Michigan, Michigan Department of Education.

programs administered as part of the Higher Education Planning and Coordination Services.¹

Goals number one provides a general objective for all services, programs and activities related to Higher Education Planning and Coordination:

To plan for and encourage the orderly development of a comprehensive state system of education beyond the secondary level that will effectively and efficiently serve all the needs of Michigan.²

In order to expedite progress toward them, "eight supporting objectives have evolved out of recent efforts to group the other thirty-seven goals:"³

1. Nine of the goals (7, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 30, 34) address the issue of providing "equality of opportunity for access to and completion of higher education programs in Michigan."
2. Four general goals (9, 10, 19, 21) have to do with determining the "present and future manpower requirements of this state and proper allocation of educational resources to meet these needs."
3. Goals 2, 17, 31, and 35 call for determining "ways of making more effective and efficient use of educational resources through examination of institutional roles, responsibilities, programs, services and resource requirements."
4. Goal 18 of the State Plan for Higher Education in Michigan states that the Michigan Board of Education "will develop, in cooperation with institutional representatives, a state-wide plan whereby off-campus education can be encouraged, fostered and coordinated."
5. Eight of the goals deal specifically and exclusively with community colleges, and have to do with planning for and encouraging the orderly development of a state-wide system.

¹Namely, Title I, Higher Education Facilities Act, Construction Grants; Title I HEFA, Comprehensive Planning; Title I HEA, Community Service and Title VI-A, HEA, Equipment Grants.

²State Plan for Higher Education in Michigan, op. cit., p. 1-8.

³Higher Education Planning and Coordination of the Michigan Department of Education, State Board of Education, Lansing, Michigan, November 1970.

6. Goals 4 and 5 consider the coordination "of program developments at private institutions and proprietary schools as part of the overall system of higher education."
7. Goals 22, 23, 24, 25 relate the formulation of plans for coordination and development of higher education on a regional basis.
8. Four of the goals in the State Plan (6, 32, 36, 38) indicate a planning approach to "develop long-range projections of educational demand and resource requirements for higher education in Michigan." More specifically, they call for:
 - a) "the development of long-range projections of student enrollments,"
 - b) "adoption of a uniform system of counting and reporting students,"
 - c) "continuous study of operating needs,"
 - d) "annual projections of capital outlay needs."¹

The Program Planning Budget System (PPBS), as it is called in Michigan, is not mentioned in this document, but its definitions are detailed in a later publication from the Bureau of the Budget.

The special responsibility for post-secondary area vocational and technical programs to be operated and financed by the community college in each region of the state is spelled out in Vocational Education Services of the Michigan Department of Education.² Plans of the State Board of Education "to ultimately place adult education programs under the responsibility of community colleges..." were listed among administrative policies for 1970-1971."³

The Michigan Department of Education has addressed itself to Community Service and related programs,⁴ to scholarships and tuition grants,

¹Loc. cit.

²Vocational Education Services of the Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, November 1970, p. 9.

³Ibid., p. 21.

⁴Adult Education and Community Services of the Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, November 1970.

guaranteed loans¹ and to related subjects which directly or indirectly influence the community college in its operation and programs. In Adult Education and Community Services, the State Board of Education treats Adult Basic Education, High School Equivalency Certification Programs and Community School Programs. In discussing the latter, the board gives credit to the W. K. Kellogg and the Mott Foundations. The Mott Foundation, especially, has been instrumental in elaborating community services through the public schools. Community education programs, lauded by the state and throughout the country, point up the need and value of cooperative respect, recognition and effort between all segments and levels of education to serve the community. In this, the public schools and the community college should be natural partners.² All of these external forces are important, for, in one way or another, in large or small measure they define parameters of institutional and curricular decision making.

Local Influences on Curricular Decision Making

C. West Churchman says that there is a great mystery in the natural world--the who, when, how and what of man's decisions. So many factors come into play in organizational decision making that these questions are obscured...³ And yet decisions are made! They must be made some time by someone for definite reasons (criteria), even if they are made at the wrong times by the wrong person who is guided by faculty criteria.

¹Student Financial Aid Services of the Michigan Department of Education, Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, November 1970.

²Adult Education and Community Services of the Michigan Department of Education, op. cit., pp. 19-24.

³C. West Churchman, Challenge to Reason, New York: Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, 1968, p. 20.

The administrator of a community-centered institution must always be concerned with the image the institution projects, however, both to those serving within it and to the outside publics. Naturally, he will wish to design decision-making processes in such a way as to ensure their general acceptability by those to whom, directly or indirectly, he is accountable. "The context within which a college is viewed by its supporting community," according to Richardson, "has the likelihood of becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy."¹

Monroe says that "in practice, the public means the elected members of legislative bodies, the executive and judicial officers."² Underlying these powers and giving them strength, it has to be noted, are the various individuals, formal and informal groups, coalitions of different groups, organized pressure persons and pressure groups who fight to be heard, especially monied persons or groups³ who, by mounting advertising campaigns, and perhaps in other ways, can influence the average citizen to a point of view, a definite outlook or an emotional response. There are a variety of influential groups with which a college is involved in its operations--various political, civic, ethnic, social and educational groups--each with differing degrees of influence and impact. The socio-political setting of each college has to be understood by decision makers. "College administrators must comprehend the nature and behavioral pattern of political

¹Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 36. Cf. also Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 147-48.

²Monroe, op. cit., p. 305.

³Ibid., p. 307.

thought and organization within the community if the college is to be an integral part of it."¹

Governance is a comprehensive term which describes all aspects of a college's control and direction. It includes "the state constitution, statutes, state boards of education or higher education, local boards of control, the administration, and in some institutions, the faculty and student body. It includes both the policy-making mechanisms and the agencies through which the policies are executed or administered."² Advisory Committees may also play a real role in governance.³

Local board members in Michigan are general overseers of the community college, responsible by law⁴ for its direction and control. The board must define "the broad underlying principles for the direction of

¹Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 38.

²Monroe, op. cit., p. 303. John Carson defines governance as that art or process "with which scholars, students, teachers, administrators, and trustees associated together in a college or in a university establish and carry out rules and regulations that minimize conflict, facilitate their collaboration, and preserve essential individual freedom." John J. Carson, Governance of College and Universities, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960, p. 12.

³Monroe, Thornton, Richardson and others speak of the value of general and special advisory committees. Since, as Riendeau says, "they have no authority to delegate or to legislate, and in no way are their activities intended to usurp any of the prerogatives of boards of trustees or colleges administrative staffs, they will not be considered separately under governance. Their influence, however, is real, or should be, but they must be considered indirectly with the boards or administrators they assist. They are not included separately in definitions of governance." Albert J. Riendeau, The Role of the Advisory Committee in Occupational Education in the Junior College, "Organization and Administration of the Advisory Committee," Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967, p. 33.

the college," answering "such questions as how the students are to be educated, what students are to be educated, what the goals and programs of the college are, and who the administrators and faculty should be."¹ The board members are expected to know the community and its needs and to be responsive to them. They depend upon the administration for adequate information to make appropriate decisions,² three of which are the most critical they are called upon to make: Those having to do with admissions standards, tuition rates, and institutional programs.³ The importance of the board to the college in mediating between internal and external constituencies is critical,⁴ and its importance to curricular decision makers likewise becomes apparent when viewed against the three principle questions mentioned above.

Funds for the support of community colleges come from tuition charges, local property taxes, general state revenues and federal grants in varying proportions from state to state,⁵ and each source is surrounded by problems. In Michigan, state officials reported the following percentages of current expenses for the budget year 1967-1968: federal--2%; state--36%; local supporting district--26%; student fees and tuition--29%; and "other"--7%. The range of federal support among the states extended

¹Monroe, op. cit., pp. 307-308.

²Richard J. Gilliland, Michael Y. Nunnery, "Florida Trustees: Characteristics and Opinions," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 5: February 1970, demonstrate from current junior college literature that while unanimity may be found among trustees on the role and the philosophy of the community college, admissions, decisions, curriculum, staff and governance, they may be far from the ideal. The authors suggest that they would be responsive to help from administrators. Such kinds of help may be reflected in George L. Hall, "Ten Commandments for Trustees," Junior College Journal, Vol. 36, No. 7: April 1966.

³Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 49.

⁴Ibid., p. 52.

⁵Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 95.

from 0%-24%, of state support from 4%-100%, of local supporting districts from 0%-47%, and of student fees from 0%-51%. Michigan State officials reported these percentages for capital outlay for the same year: federal--20% (range among states: 0%-90%); state--21% (range among states: 0%-93%) and local supporting district--59% (range among states: 0%-100%).¹

George Rodda Jr. speaks of the necessity for trustees to organize into a political force in order to secure funding to bridge educational gaps and solve the problem of "half enough funding for our educational program."² Glazer says that local control will not be maintained if local financing cannot demonstrate a meaningful involvement of the people served by the institution."³ The New Depression in Higher Education observes that five main categories of activities control the financial situation in many colleges: "postponing, general belt-tightening, cutting and reallocating within existing structure, scrambling for funds, planning and worrying."⁴ Inflation, increase in faculty salaries, increase in student aid, campus disturbances and growth in responsibilities, activities, and aspirations contribute heavily to the cost side of the problem⁵ that confronts the board and must be resolved by it. Junior college boards are being forced "to set specific objectives and establish educational priorities."⁶

¹Medsker, Breaking the Access Barriers: A Profile of Two-Year Colleges, op. cit., pp. 116-121.

²George Rodda, Jr., "Trustee Power: Bridging Educational Gaps," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 6: March 1970, pp. 39-40.

³Glazer, op. cit., p. 21.

⁴Earl F. Cheit, The New Depression in Higher Education: A Study of Financial Conditions at 41 Colleges and Universities, A General Report for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education and the Ford Foundation, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971, pp. 83-105.

⁵Ibid., pp. 105-113.

⁶Carol Hatfield, "No More Rubber-Stamp Boards," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 5: February 1971.

The Invitational National Workshop for Junior College Boards of Trustees in 1970 reported that "both new and old trustees felt the impetus of changing from the traditional concept of board responsibility in policy making and administrative implementation to a more direct board participation in the total institutional program."¹ The survey of Bushnell and Zagaris clearly indicates the same increased interest and sense of responsibility of trustees toward their various constituent groups, especially faculty and students.² Richardson³ and a growing number of others insist upon faculty and student representation (in some capacity) at all trustee meetings.

The community college administrative staff includes all persons who are engaged in the execution and application of the policies and decisions of the board. The chief administrative officer, usually called the president, sets the tone of the institution, and his selection by the board must therefore be most carefully made. Among the many qualities that, in the expected judgment of the board he should possess, is the understanding of and acceptance of those basic principles upon which a community college is founded. His resolution of the basic issues described by authors and presented earlier in this review can be expected to influence the operation of the college, including curricular decisions. His leadership should be expected to enable the college to function efficiently, effectively and harmoniously. Like the board, the administration, under the

¹ Ibid., p. 75.

² Bushnell, op. cit., p. 150.

³ Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 48.

president, "exercises its chief control through the allocation of funds and can nourish or starve any aspect of the college operation."¹ Public relations is a responsibility that administration shares with the board. It has already been noted that a positive image is very necessary if the college is to attract students and the financial support of the public.

Faculty-administrator relations have recently become a major concern in every segment of education. Impatience and dissatisfaction of faculty members,² coupled with administrator's unwillingness to share board-delegated powers with the teaching faculty³ is a pregnant subject in current literature. The power of governance, according to Monroe who articulates the thoughts of many others, is still concentrated in the community college boards and the presidents. Faculty power is still conspicuously absent, he says.⁴ But if it is, authors generally agree, it will not be before long. "...the involvement of faculty in the decision-making process is critical to the success of the two-year college movement."⁵ Its involvement, according to Richardson, should extend in an advisory capacity

¹Monroe, op. cit., p. 311.

²John Lombardi, "Faculty in the Administrative Process," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 3; November 1966.

³Richard C. Richardson, Jr., "Policy-Formulation in the Two-Year College: Renaissance or Revolution," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 6: March 1967, p. 40.

⁴Monroe, op. cit., p. 321. See too Roger W. Heynes, "Today's Problems and Tomorrow's Students," in Algo D. Henderson (Editor), Higher Education in Tomorrow's World, Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan, 1968, pp. 80-81, et al.

⁵Richardson, "Policy-Formulation in the Two-Year College: Renaissance or Revolution," op. cit., p. 41. Alexander Vavoulis, "A Faculty Role in Policy Making," Junior College Journal, Vol. 34, No. 7: April 1964, says the same thing. See also, Richardson, "Needed: New Directions in Administration," Junior College Journal, Vol. 40, No. 6: March 1970.

to the board, to include admission standards, curriculum additions, revision or deletion... Tillery calls on administrators and trustees to recognize that "wise and attainable educational decisions cannot be made without the formal and responsible involvement of the teachers."¹

Participative decision making, or shared authority, is becoming a subject of common discussion in the literature and a good case for it is usually built. Burton Clark suggests that even when power is shared, though, a certain ambiguity necessarily continues: "because responsibility for decision making is diffused among groups with inherently different interests. The authority structure puts a premium on administrative action through consultation, persuasion, the patient gaining of a working consensus."²

The American Association for Higher Education³ describes five zones in the distribution of decision-making authority between faculty and administration: administrative dominance, administrative primacy, shared authority, faculty primacy and faculty dominance. Millett thinks that "the prevailing expectation today is that the collective faculty in a college or university will enjoy 'shared authority' with the administration in decision making about the institution,"⁴ but that the problem of

¹Dale Tillery, "Academic Rank," Junior College Journal, February 1963, p. 33. Ikenberry suggests that the democratization of colleges is likely to require new patterns of behavior for administrators, faculty, and students. Stanley O. Ikenberry, "Governance and the Faculty," Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 3: November 1971.

²Burton R. Clark, "Faculty Organization and Authority," in Terry F. Lundsford, The Study of Academic Administration, Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education: October 1963, p. 302.

³Faculty Participation in Academic Governance, Report of AAHE Task Force on Faculty Representation and Academic Negotiations, Campus Governance Program, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Higher Education, 1967, pp. 14ff.

⁴Millett, op. cit., p. 5.

defining shared authority remains to be solved. A study by the American Association of Higher Education (1967) "found that in its sample of four- and two-year colleges, only 25 percent could be classified as shared-authority institutions. The other 75 percent were dominated by the administration."¹ Some evidence of increasing consultation with the faculty in junior colleges was noted by the association and a recommendation for some form of shared power between the faculty and the administration was recommended.

The functions which belong to the administration are providing overall institutional leaders, coordinating the different parts of the college, especially by means of the budget, assuming leadership for innovation, evaluating departmental standards so that the weak departments are encouraged to improve, mediating between the community college board and the faculty, and managing the housekeeping chores related to finance, buildings, maintenance, and legal problems.

The faculty has primary responsibility for decisions which affect curriculum, the learning environment, academic standards, admissions policies, professional standards and the means for improving professional status, academic freedom, and all else which affects the learning process and the student. It is recommended that neither faculty nor administration have exclusive control over any aspect of the college operation. The administration should have primary jurisdiction in its sphere, but not exclusive power, and the same goes for the faculty.²

Arthur Cohen, writing the forward to Governance and the Two-Year College, describes the historical anomalies in community college structure and functioning that resulted from the disparities (elements of the secondary school and university structures) in its heritage. The twin

¹ Faculty Participation in Academic Governance, *op. cit.*, p. 16. These same conclusions are evidenced in Robert E. Lahti, "A Faculty Role in Policy Formulation," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 1, September 1966.

² Monroe, *op. cit.*, pp. 325-326.

developments of faculty militancy and student unrest in the 1960's, Cohen says, forced a redefinition of community college administration. "The autocrat became as outmoded as the hickory stick and today's college administrator operates in a sphere of compromise and reconciliation between contending forces."¹

Richardson, Blocker, and Bender collaborated in Governance and the Two-Year College to "argue for a participative model of decision making in order to bring about optimal satisfaction, effectiveness, and communication both within the institution and between the institution and its various constituencies."² In the preface to this treatise, they suggest "a participative model which has as its goal the development of cooperative relationships among all members of the college community as opposed to confrontation, which seems increasingly to be an inevitable concomitant of the more traditional bureaucratic model."³

We suggest the existence of three major internal constituencies (administration, faculty, students) requiring two separate procedures for interaction. Given the existence of a workable consensus sustained by common values and norms, the bureaucratic administrative structure remains the most efficient procedure for accomplishing coordination. In the absence of such a consensus, new values must evolve through the structure of governance that operates to protect the interests of all three constituencies while at the same time providing the means of effective interaction through which equitable and, hence, workable compromises may evolve. The structure of governance offers the power relationships of interdependency as an alternative to the power conflicts induced by the inappropriate use of the authority of the structure of administration.⁴

¹ Richardson, Governance and the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. v.

² Ibid., p. vi.

³ Ibid., p. viii.

⁴ Loc. cit.

While a careful, detailed analysis of the traditional bureaucratic model of an organization and the participational model devised by Richardson and his associates lies beyond the parameters of this review, its value as related to current literature is recognized; it pulls together the ideas and ideals of many authors and systematizes them.¹ As the theory of shared authority becomes more and more a working reality, curricular decision makers can expect to find the processes by which and through which curriculum is determined, refined or revised. With useful in-put from more people, the criteria of their decision making perhaps too will be clearer and more straightforward.

Faculty choice of collective bargaining as a principle manner of participation in governance has moved at a rapid pace in two-year colleges. The right for Michigan public employees to organize is granted under the Michigan Public Employment Act of 1965,² and all but five of the Michigan community colleges now operate under negotiated contracts.³ Ikenberry thinks that collective bargaining is attractive to some faculty members "not so much because of the possible salary advantages, but as a means of

¹Among so many authors who speak of shared authority, cf. Charles A. Atwell, J. Foster Watkins, "New Directions for Administration," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 5: February 1971; Suzanne Nichols, "Model for Participatory Governance for Community Colleges," Los Angeles, California: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, Abstract EDO54772-JC710 237, 1971; Robert E. Lahti, op. cit., et al. already referenced in this review. The American Association of Higher Education presents an excellent case for shared authority in Faculty Participation in Academic Governance, op. cit., especially pp. 23-26.

²Hyman Parker, Michigan Public Employment Relations Act and Procedures, East Lansing, Michigan: School of Industrial Relations, Michigan State University, 1970.

³The development of collective bargaining in the Michigan community colleges is traced by Charles A. Shoup in his doctoral dissertation, A Study of Collective Bargaining in the Michigan Community Colleges, East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1969.

securing a stronger voice in the governance process."¹ Ray Howe outlines some of the general implications of collective bargaining which he thinks may have universal impact.² Millett expects some far-reaching changes in the determinates of educational objectives and institutional procedures.³

Gianopulos takes up the question of the administrator's participation in the negotiating process. Despite numerically weighty opposition, he thinks that the college administrator should represent neither the faculty nor the board, but remain an independent third party serving as an interpreter between the board and the faculty. Without taking sides, the administrator should be concerned with the utilization of collective bargaining to provide the best possible education for community college students.⁴

Charles M. Rehmus and Evan Wilner reported the economic results of teacher bargaining in Michigan during the first two years following the Public Relations Employment Act.⁵ Salary levels, class size and operating budgets were affected beneficially or adversely, depending upon one's point of view. Administrators and curriculum planners make decisions under budget constraints that will need to be watched and carefully anticipated. The faculty right to bargain not only for wages and hours but for conditions of employment may create problems decision makers will find

¹Ikenberry, op. cit., p. 14.

²Ray A. Howe, "Faculty-Administration Relationships in Extremis," Junior College Journal, Vol. 37, No. 3: November 1966, p. 14. Cf. also Maskow, op. cit.

³Millett, op. cit., p. 17.

⁴John W. Gianopulos, "The College Administrator and Collective Negotiations," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 1: August/September 1970.

⁵Charles M. Rehmus, Evan Wilner, The Economic Results of Teacher Bargaining: Michigan's First Two Years, Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan, 1968.

hard to anticipate and to which adjustments may be difficult. But collective bargaining is a fact that perhaps makes the interdependency of board, administrators, faculty and students and others better recognized and more mutually respected.¹

In 1967, a committee established by the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of University Professors, the National Student Association, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors issued a joint statement, declaring: "The student body should have clearly defined means to participate in the formulation and application of institutional policy affecting academic and student affairs."² Richardson, writing in 1969, spoke of student rights and freedoms, and said that curriculum or course addition, revision or deletion should have student involvement even though the responsibility rests with the administration and faculty.³ Monroe at least wants the students "to sound off and react to faculty proposals."⁴ Vaccaro says that "at all possible points of contact between student and faculty, both established and informal, clear and open lines of communication must be initiated wherein the modus operandi is listening to one another, caring about what each has to say,

¹Millett references a statement issued in 1966 by the American Association of University Professors, the American Council on Education and the Association of Governing Boards of Colleges and Universities that seem to validate this and calls for "joint planning and effort" on the part of the constituent groups of an academic community. Millett, op. cit., p. 10.

²Quoted in Millett, op. cit., p. 21.

³Richard C. Richardson, Jr., "Recommendations on Students' Rights and Freedoms," Junior College Journal, Vol. 39, No. 5: February 1969.

⁴Monroe, op. cit., p. 54.

considering each other's proposals for solving issues and problems, and jointly assuming a shared authority and responsibility for the academic community.¹

Some authors have suggested student involvement in collective bargaining "to provide a continuous interchange with those who will undoubtedly be affected by it."² "...student involvement is a positive factor in personal, institutional and community growth," is a conclusion of the majority of the populations of Oregon's community colleges.³ "...most students choose not to participate in institutional governance activities which often are time consuming, sometimes draining to the spirit and often disruptive of the pursuit of more personal and privatis-tic aims"⁴ is an opposite view.

In 1970, Deegan and his associates reported the AAJC Student Personnel Commission Aims for revitalization of student government through participation in the policy-making decisions of the college. They presented several models--traditional, separate jurisdictions, participatory, and others--and noted the difficult constraints which hinder student participation in governance: the junior college student is a community student; a very large percentage of junior college students work and have no time; some groups or individuals reject the concept of student representative

¹Louis C. Vaccaro, James T. Covert (Editors), Student Freedom in American Higher Education, New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1969, p. 52.

²William F. McHugh, "Collective Bargaining and the College Student," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 38, No. 3: March 1971, p. 185 et al.

³Eileen Hein, "A Case of Student Involvement," Junior College Journal, Vol. 38, No. 5: February 1968, p. 44.

⁴William L. Deegan, "Student and Governance: Where Are We?" Junior College Journal, Vol. 42, No. 5: February 1972, p. 38.

government; on a very large percentage of campuses, the cost of participation (in terms of time, energy, and effort) is simply not worth the benefit (either personally or to the institution).¹

Both faculty and administration have systematically excluded students who also largely exclude themselves. Student power has been evidenced in disorganized and sporadic efforts. At this time, while it is conjectured by the authors that the student today will become an important and meaningful force in decision making and while most authors favor their participation in some way, student power, except in isolated instances, is practically non-existent. In the words of Kirst and Walker, "students have no influence in any formal sense over what they learn. This is so obvious a fact that research to establish it would be superfluous. Of course, decision makers sometimes take student's views into account, but not usually."²

A statement specifically related to local influences upon the curriculum is provided by Monroe and expresses his summary view:

The community college curriculum rests upon the foundation of middle-class interests and values (explained and detailed in paragraphs immediately preceding this quotation). The boards of trustees of community colleges, for the most part, come from the middle class and are interested in defending and promoting middle-class values.

In practice, the curriculum is organized by the professional educators who have been entrusted by the controlling boards with this responsibility... The curriculum-making process in the past, and perhaps all too frequently in the present, has been dominated by the college administrators

¹William L. Deegan, Karl O. Drexel, John T. Collins, Dorothy L. Kearney, "Student Participation in Governance," Junior College Journal, Vol. 41, No. 3: November 1970, pp. 15-22.

²Kirst and Walker, op. cit., p. 503.

with final approval of the controlling board. Typically, public school curricula are made by central administrative personnel, often with some faculty participation (usually advisory). However, the administration has the last word in determining what courses and programs are to be put into the catalog and listed in the schedule of classes.

In the larger community colleges, curriculum making is delegated to an administrative person, the dean or the director of instruction or curriculum, who operates under the direction of the college president. This dean may work with a faculty committee chosen by the president. Two things should be noted: 1) the absence of faculty power in decision making on curriculum matters and 2) the absence of any student participation.¹

An Overview of National, Regional, State and Local Influence on Curricular Decision Making

Blocker, Plummer and Richardson studied the responses of 663 administrators and faculty members in five branch colleges and nine community colleges to the question of what sources of change in curriculum were most important. Perceptions of curricular determinants were not entirely consistent, they found, but the following were perceived to be the most important:

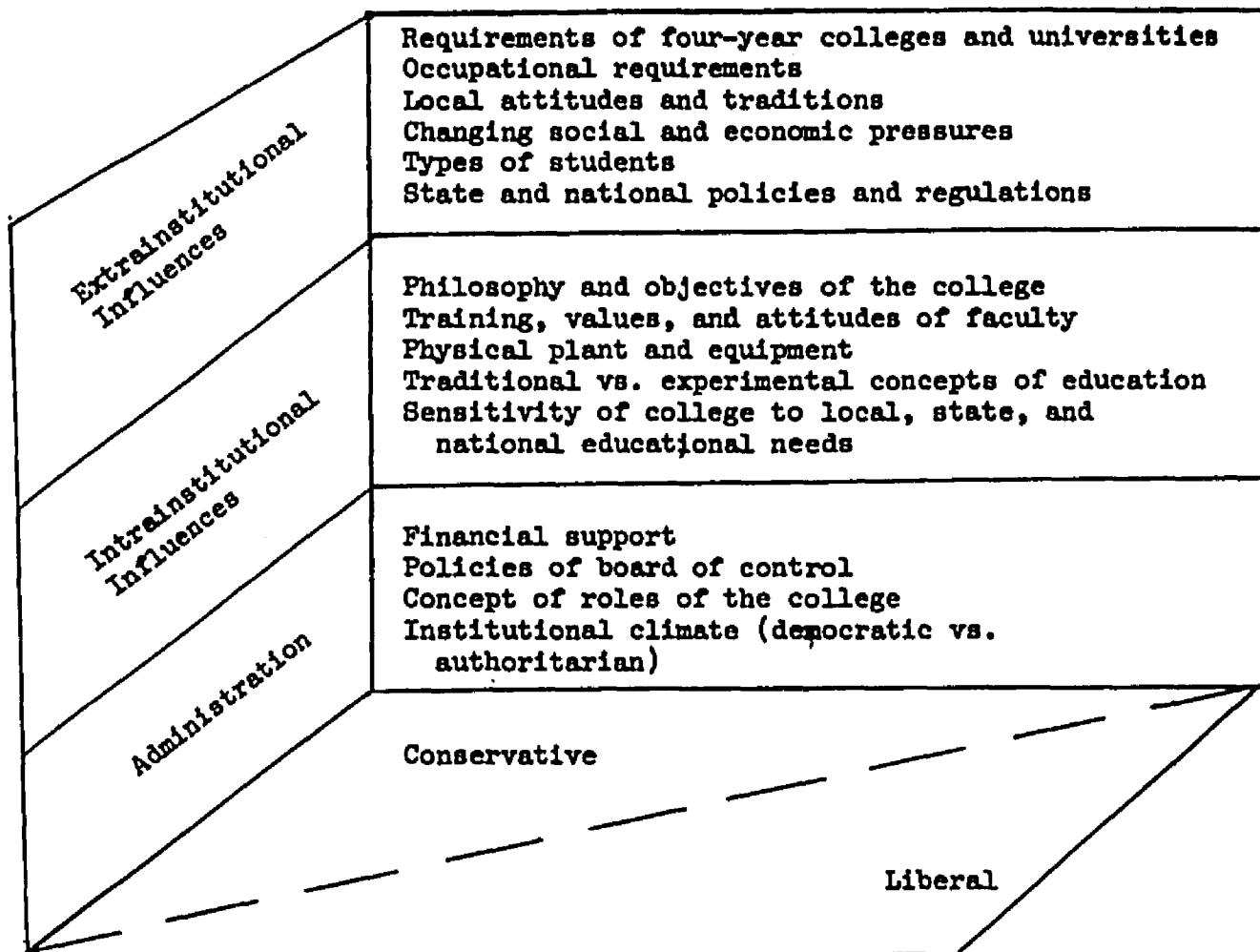
- 1) The administration.
- 2) The faculty.
- 3) The students.
- 4) Accrediting agencies (state and regional).
- 5) Four-year colleges and universities and their faculties.
- 6) The state department of education.
- 7) The board of control.
- 8) Two-year colleges and their faculties.
- 9) State government and agencies.
- 10) Advisory boards and committees.²

In summarizing influences upon the curriculum, these authors offer a concise figure, reproduced on the following page without comment, which

¹ Monroe, op. cit., p. 52.

² Clyde E. Blocker, Richard G. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1965, p. 204.

highlights factors they judge most important in determining curriculum.¹



The Progress of Program and Course Selection

Curriculum development in the community college can never be a fait accompli. It must be a continuous concern, for the community college clientele includes persons with all kinds of needs for education, and

¹Ibid., p. 205.

these needs rapidly change with social, technological, demographic and economic trends. Flexibility in curriculum is a must for community colleges which must adapt to changing conditions and needs. Curriculum that is obsolete or out of tune with the times cannot be tolerated in a community college which has as its purpose the offering of educational opportunity to the whole community that is vital, individually and socially useful. Curricular decision makers dare not be "sleepyheads" or "day-dreamers." Their fingers must be on the pulse of life and reality, and they must be ready to respond to its beat. Authors without exception express this perception. They are not so sure what is the most efficient, surest way to accomplish what everyone recognizes must be accomplished almost day by day.

"Reduced to its simplest dimensions," Reynolds says, "curriculum development represents decisions made subjectively about the question of what should be learned."¹ Research and experimentation are of inestimable use, he says, but they cannot produce direct answers which are based on the value judgments of those responsible for it. "The development of the junior college curriculum depends upon those innovative and inventive people who discover better ways of doing things and are able to expand fields of service to make life better for the multitudes."²

The theory of curriculum design is a subject beyond the pale of this review. Those who make decisions that affect curricular development, however, need to be informed about research findings relative to pertinent

¹Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College, op. cit., p. 119.

²Loc. cit.

aspects of the educative process. Since without necessary information decision makers are grossly subject to error, some reasonable understanding of research conclusions can be expected of those who are responsible for the process by which curricular decisions are made.

Monroe, for example, explains that curriculum contains four essential elements: the subject matter accumulated from the knowledge of the past; skill-learning activities such as those needed in language, mathematics and technical courses; the attitudes or emotional predispositions deemed valuable for a host of experiences and a set of values which the decision makers of a given society believe are necessary for the survival of that society.¹ He finds, therefore, that comprehensiveness, relevance and teachability are three guiding principles appropriate for building a good community college curriculum and summarizes the basic principles of curriculum construction as he sees them:

- 1) faculty control with some measure of student participation; 2) periodic review and revision to ensure relevance; 3) reasonable balance between the traditional curriculum and radical revision; 4) student-centered rather than faculty-centered; 5) materials and standards within the scope of the students' interest and ability to learn; 6) translation of content into meaningful, realistic objectives taught with sincerity and enthusiasm; 7) a broadened concept of acceptable and appropriate areas of concern including experiences which were formerly regarded as extra-curricular, community field experiences, and off-campus work experiences.²

Dressel notes the importance of unity, coherence and integration in any curriculum.³ He has developed a set of competencies to be expected of

¹ Monroe, op. cit., p. 46.

² Ibid., p. 58.

³ Dressel, College and University Curriculum, op. cit., p. 227. Cf. also his chapter on "Instruction and the Curriculum" in the same source.

an undergraduate out of which is derived relevant educational experiences. The question of what is to be accomplished is followed by how it is to be accomplished--a selection of clear goals, therefore, and the implementing means of attaining them.¹ Dressel writes:

The curriculum should be based on an acceptable theory of curriculum, and each aspect of the curriculum should be consistent with that theory. A study of course materials, outlines, syllabi, and policy statements should reveal the logic and internal consistency of the curriculum. The relation of objectives and philosophy to educational experiences, evaluation practices, and resources should be clearly specified, logical and reasonable.²

In his The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education, Dressel lists twenty-six principles for curricular planning.³ The rationale upon which, in his judgment, any new curriculum model must be based are enumerated elsewhere by him and are reflected in the writings of other authors. "The rationale should include," he says,

1) a philosophical statement concerning the nature and objectives of higher education as seen by those planning the new curriculum, 2) a psychological statement about the nature of learning and the role of instruction in the facilitation of learning, 3) a sociological statement relating the curriculum to the needs of society and to the needs of individuals in the society, 4) an economic statement which relates the curriculum to the number of students taking it and to the dollars required to finance it, 5) a statement on planning and management which relates the college organization and the facilities-planning to the curriculum, and 6) a definition of basic curriculum concepts.⁴

¹A similar thought is expressed in Burns, op. cit., p. 136.

²Dressel, College and University Curriculum, op. cit., p. 191.

³Dressel, The Undergraduate Curriculum in Higher Education, op. cit., p. 82-85.

⁴Paul L. Dressel, "A Look at New Curriculum Models for Undergraduate Education," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 36, No. 2: January 1965, pp. 92-93.

Medsker says that "curriculum development in the two-year college should be guided and evaluated by an expressed institutional philosophy of education and a set of goals stated in terms of outcomes for students."¹ Bruce Tuckman, Rutgers University, presents specific postulates and propositions upon which a student-centered curriculum can be built.² B. Lamar Johnson elaborates practical questions and answers drawn from his understanding of curriculum theory to help curriculum designers plan and develop curriculum in a new community junior college.³ G. C. Oliver argues for a technological rather than a scientific process in the development of curriculum. He suggests that the development of design specifications and related techniques, rather than the ultimate understanding of the phenomena with which they work, be the prerequisite functions of those responsible for effective and controlling specific changes in educational and training environments--the primary goal and education and training, he says.⁴

¹ Medsker, The Junior College: Progress and Prospects, op. cit., p. 83.

² Bruce W. Tuckman, "The Student-Centered Curriculum," in Burns, op. cit., pp. 153-159.

³ B. Lamar Johnson, Starting a Community Junior College, Washington, D. C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1964, pp. 8-19.

⁴ G. C. Oliver, "Toward Improved Rigor in the Design of Curricula," in Burns, op. cit., p. 66.

Quimby,¹ Kjarsgaard,² Reynolds,³ Dressel,⁴ Mayhew,⁵ and others agree with Medsker⁶ that the process of curricular decision making is contingent upon a clearly expressed philosophy of education, among other things, as understood by the decision makers. In his doctoral dissertation, Kjarsgaard observes that "after having clarified the educational philosophy of the school and established objectives consistent with this philosophy, the planning body can now be concerned with molding these objectives to conform to the real educational needs of the area. There now remains the problem of constructing a training program that will best meet these objectives."⁷

Bloom addresses himself to the question of defining educational objectives--a problem not to be minimized--and suggests four useful major

¹Edgar A. Quimby, "In Pursuit of the Self-Renewing College: The Goodlad Conceptual System and the Problems of Curriculum Formation in the Junior College Programs of General Education," Los Angeles, California: University of California. ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, EDO30431-JC690204. Abstract, March 8, 1969, 32 pages.

²Donald L. Kjarsgaard, Guidelines to Community College Curriculum Planning, Doctoral Dissertation, University of Oregon, 1968.

³Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 121.

⁴Dressel, "A Look at New Curriculum Models for Undergraduates' Education," op. cit., pp. 92-93.

⁵Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, op. cit., pp. 32ff. Mayhew, for example, distinguishes three current philosophies that will influence curriculum content: Rationalism, by which the curriculum is based "on eternal truths and stress the great documents which have survived in the civilization;" instrumentalism, which believes that "goals and objectives are constantly changing, and that materials should change as individuals need change;" neo-humanism, which is "more eclectic, using material of traditional value tempered by an attempt to modify them in accordance with changing idioms."

⁶Medsker, The Junior College: Progress and Prospects, op. cit., p. 83.

⁷Kjarsgaard, op. cit., pp. 110, 131.

questions: "1) what objectives should the school or course seek to attain? 2) what learning experiences can bring about goal attainment? 3) what organization of the learning experiences would provide continuity and sequence and help the learner integrate what might be isolated learning experiences? 4) how can the effectiveness of the learning experiences be evaluated?"¹

Borrowing from the authors, Robert Gagne offers another ordering of curricular design that reflects and is reflected by the literature on this subject and itself involves a process of decision making: "diagnosing educational needs; formulating objectives; selection of learning experiences; organization of learning experiences, and determining the ways and means of evaluating effectiveness of what is taught."²

Mayhew speaks of a systematic theory of curriculum as being of singular importance to the solution of curricular problems. The problem of criteria, he says, is first among those problems upon which depends putting a curriculum into effect. Non-rational criteria,³ though they must be considered realistically, can be balanced if faculty has the quantities of information it needs, by rational decisions about the curriculum it offers. Mayhew argues the importance of institutional research.

¹ Bloom, op. cit., p. 25.

² Robert M. Gagne, "Curriculum Research and the Promotion of Learning," in Ralph W. Tyler and Associates, Perspectives of Curricular Evaluation, Chicago, Illinois: Rand McNally and Company, 1967, p. 20.

³ Conceived more to preserve an institution than to relate vitally to what is going on in the mind and heart of the student; e.g., what, with limited resources, should be taught from the plethora of subjects that could be offered, demands of the graduate school, interests of a faculty member, drawing power of courses, etc., in contrast to the question of whether a curriculum is actually working. Note Mayhew's postulates reported in the following paragraphs.

Consider how faculties might react if each year they were provided with evidence such as routine cost accounting for each course, department and division; brief, regularly written reports by lay advisory committees; yearly reports of alumni reactions to the various courses; periodic polls of student opinion taken throughout the year; yearly assessment of sophomores and seniors on standardized tests; and brief resumes of significant social and curricular developments. Here is the stuff out of which eventual curriculum theory must be molded....¹

Every theory is based on postulates. Postulates generate hypotheses for testing out of which evolves still further postulates. The curricular decision maker, designing a process of decision making, or working within a process already designed, will find curriculum theory, as Reynolds suggested, of inestimable value.² Mayhew notes several postulates which, he says, are the basis for a theory of undergraduate curriculum. Since they are so germane to the development of a curricular decision-making process, they are summarized in this review:

1. ...a student's need for structure...within which his life is organized.
2. ...every human being is searching for significance...
3. ...good educational practice is very likely to be good business and good management practice. Students are attracted to programs and courses they see as worthwhile.
4. ...any system of education should have built into it a process of bringing about regular and consistent change.
5. ...the purpose of the curriculum is to bring about changes in people and move people in desirable directions.
6. ...every part of the educational effort of an institution should be consistent with every other part.
7. ...the principle of parsimony should apply to the curriculum just as much as it applies to research.
8. ...the late adolescent period in the life of Americans is a unique and distinct period within which individuals manifest several discrete needs.

¹Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, op. cit., p. 24.

²Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 119.

9. ...each level of education should be articulated with other levels and with life outside of the curriculum.¹

Keeping these postulates in mind, Mayhew says, each institution can work towards the development of its own curricula stance. Certain procedures, however, he says, have to be kept in mind. These, too, are summarized:

1. there is "the need for an honest concern by an institution, honestly expressed, for what it wants to do to its students."
2. "...the college should make an honest attempt to discover and to discard the ritualistic or non-functioning parts of its curriculum." Does this course, for example, have a reasonable chance of bringing about the desired result?
3. "...the institution should subject the entire curriculum to constant criticism, constant analysis, and constant inquiry."
4. "...since education is basically a way by which important elements of a culture are passed on to new generations, the collegiate institution needs to develop ways of accumulating evidence both as to what society needs to have transmitted to youth and what can, in fact, be transmitted." For example, the college should accumulate evidence over a period of years what its graduates are doing, what benefitted them most, what changes they would suggest..."
5. "...the curriculum of the college should be genuinely related to pedagogical realities." For example, the student course load, mix of subjects, reasonable time expenditures, etc.²

James W. Reynolds, in discussing curriculum development, divides the subject of the decision-making process into its "developmental aspects" and its "operational aspects." Under the first, he speaks of divisional

¹Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, op. cit., pp. 25-28.

²Loc. cit.

or departmental organization which deals with component aspects of the total curriculum. Criteria or admission standards (to the college and to a specific curriculum) and graduation requirements set by the instructional and administrative staffs is a developmental aspect of the curriculum, he says, as are courses and decisions justifying, modifying, or dropping them. Textbooks also, he mentions as part of a curriculum development. The interrelation of courses, course outlines or syllabi, teacher assessment to courses and curriculum control are others, he adds. Decisions relative to programs represent expression of value judgments at a high level; control questions, "who exercises the control, and the breadth of the base on which control is exercised, become matters of extreme importance in the developmental aspects of the curriculum."¹

Next, in the curricular decision-making process, Reynolds discusses operational procedures. These, he says, are conducted within the framework of an institutional policy (the continuum of control: administration... faculty²), and involve administration and faculty in cooperative effort. In the process Reynolds describes, policy control is balanced between administration and faculty, perhaps slightly favoring teacher dominance. An administrative staff--the president, dean of instruction, director of academic programs, director of vocational-technical programs and departmental or divisional chairmen--exercise certain chief responsibilities: 1) "leadership in stressing the significance of curriculum development (including improvements in the instructional programs); 2) exercising

¹ Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 128-133.

² Faculty Participation in Academic Governance, op. cit., pp. 14-16.

veto judgments when circumstances seem to favor such action; 3) avoiding a fragmented approach to curriculum development in which certain segments would be favored, others slighted; 4) providing a professional atmosphere favorable to the efforts of faculty members in carrying on developmental efforts."¹ The curriculum committee, one of the standing committees of the instructional staff, shares in the responsibilities of the administrative staff.

In the process described by Reynolds (perhaps with minor interpretation), curricular suggestions, wherever they originate, are initiated formally in the departmental or divisional meetings. Ad hoc committees may be appointed to gather facts or carry on a more intensive study than is possible at the meeting and to report back.² If sent to the curriculum committee,³ suggestions are screened and evaluated,⁴ and recommendations for curriculum improvement are made to the directors of the two major programs (vocational-technical and academic). On the criterion of curriculum balance, curricular suggestions, if favorable, are forwarded to the dean of instruction. When and if he is satisfied that the suggestion(s) can be balanced (or at least do not distort) the total curriculum, the approved changes or additions are channeled finally to the president (perhaps with his cabinet) and then to the board.⁵

¹Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., p. 134.

²E.g., budgetary, utility, need, student interest, staff availability, facilities, scheduling, etc.

³The authors accentuate the importance of the curriculum committee which meets often "to consider new courses, changes in old courses, textbook changes, the preparation of lucid course outlines and catalog description of courses..." Kelley, op. cit., p. 116.

⁴Both Reynolds and Dressel (Dressel, College and University Curriculum, op. cit., p. 205) note the need for the services of the office of institutional research.

⁵Reynolds, The Comprehensive Junior College Curriculum, op. cit., pp. 133-137.

Curricular decision-making processes are commonly presented in skeletal outlines by most authors. Thornton, as an example, dispatches the subject by charging the curriculum committee "with the responsibility of considering all proposals for major changes in the curriculum of the college, from whatever source," and referring those approved "to the president and to the board of trustees for official action."¹

B. Lamar Johnson, in a section dealing "with procedures and processes in curriculum development" takes a non-procedural tack. From his analysis of accreditation reports,² he offers a listing of strengths of curriculum development procedure and recommendations to improve procedures for the benefit of curriculum designers.³

Such recommendations have a real meaning and pragmatic value to faculties and administrators, neither of whom, according to Mayhew, are "at all sure how to comprise a curriculum and how to analyze and change it. In many respects," he continues, "curricula, especially those for undergraduates, just grow in response to the organic needs or desires or interests of the individual members of the faculty as it is constructed at any one time."⁴

Several procedures for curriculum development appear to be most common. Most of those revealed in the literature seem to be partial processes, or special in-puts into the procedural machinery functioning

¹Thornton, The Community Junior College, op. cit., p. 170.

²Reports from twenty-one California public junior colleges.

³B. Lamar Johnson, "California Junior College Curriculum Development," The California Journal of Secondary Education, Vol. 31: March 1956, pp. 134-138.

⁴Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, op. cit., p. 15.

according to an understood manner of operation in each institution. Perhaps they are better called approaches to or techniques of curriculum review and/or of development, though certainly they are organized in some way into a process that leads to decision or an institution would atrophy. The elements of theory research have to be put together in a systematic way. As will be reported, the systems analysis approach to planning and doing, therefore, is one growing in currency.

Prevailing approaches are brought together and summarized by Mayhew¹. One involves self-study, either as a result of accrediting association requirements or perhaps some internal institutional disposition. Usually a portion of the faculty is divided into a number of committees of which the curriculum committee is one and the committee on objectives or purposes and goals is another. Sometimes a radical change is suggested from the simultaneous committee meetings on all aspects of the college, Mayhew says, but more frequently "vested interests of quite personal significance to power blocs within the institution" turn the study into a "political action of a conservative sort."²

Ad hoc committees responsible for preparing recommendations specifically focused on the curriculum for later consideration by the faculty is

¹Ibid., p. 15-18. Cf. also, Bushnell and Donald Rappaport, Planned Change in Education, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1971, quoting Warren Bennis, Changing Organizations, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966, pp. 101-104. Bennis identifies eight traditional change strategies which represent to him a "common sense" approach to change. Bushnell says that most of these strategies focus on the individual as the locus of power and ignore the significance or the organization. "Organizations shape and mold the behavior of individuals as much as or more than those in the organization shape and mold the organization. Any comprehensive change in strategy," he continues, "must be as ready to deal with institutional 'barriers' as it is with defenses of individuals.", pp. 6-7.

²Ibid., p. 16.

a modification of the self-study technique. The use of an outside consultant is another approach--the agreement being to follow his designs. The consultant's wisdom and the respect he commands from the faculty, however, are essential to the effectiveness of any change, Mayhew notes. The analysis of curriculum through the use of a panel of experts is another related technique.

An approach used in Florida sought to identify, through economic and social analysis, the kinds of vocations the state needed and to offer courses and programs in accordance with the requests and needs of the supporting community.

The most widely used device in curriculum construction is two-fold, according to Mayhew and others: 1) investigate what is being done elsewhere, and 2) doing what is being done elsewhere.

"Contemporary practice thus suggests that discussion, political activity, judgment of experts, emulation and search for social needs are the prevailing methods of curricular analysis and development."¹

A Systems Approach to Curriculum Development

"The focal point of all curriculum endeavor," according to Beauchamp, "is the development and use of a curriculum."² Some system for developing, using and evaluating a curriculum needs to be fashioned by curriculum designers, and their enterprise defines curriculum as a field of study. Systems analysis might be described as a method for determining "where,

¹Ibid., p. 18.

²George A. Beauchamp, Curriculum Theory, Second Edition, Wilmette, Illinois: The Kagg Press, 1968, p. 74.

when, with what and with whom you must accomplish what, for whom and where."¹ The purpose of this kind of analysis "is to provide cues and suggestions leading to a system or design, or a system modification or re-design."²

Richardson calls this concept of a model or a system "an aggregate of things, parts, or people favoring an organized complex whole...made up of distinct elements which are directly or indirectly related to all other elements."³ Any change in the position or behavior of a particular element induces change in varying degrees in all other elements of the system, Richardson says. He explains that organizations, each with a hierarchy of values and functions not entirely in harmony with any other, mutually interact. Such interaction stimulates changes in the relationships between organizations as well as within each organization. "In order to understand the internal dynamics of an organization, it is necessary to understand the external forces to which an organization must respond."⁴ The many and varied influences of and upon the community college and its curriculum that have been referenced in this review can be seen in a hierarchy of interacting subsystems (concentrically visualized), each part of the total socio-political-economic system. The organism of the

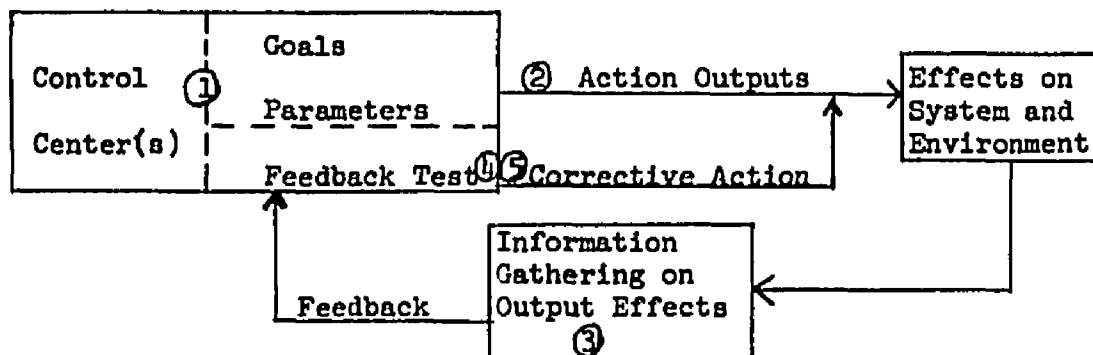
¹David G. Ryan, "System Analysis in Planning," Long Range Planning in Higher Education, Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1965, p. 109, citing Ruth M. Davis, "Techniques of System Design," Military Information Systems, Boston, Massachusetts: Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 1965, quoted in Mayhew, The Collegiate Curriculum--An Approach to Analysis, op. cit., p. 13.

²Ibid., p. 107.

³Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p. 3.

⁴Ibid., p. 5, quoting Easton, David, A Systems Analysis of Political Life, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.

community college is thus related to itself and to all local, state, regional and national subsystems.¹ "...an organization needs a constant flow of information from the environment in order to stimulate effective responses and to counteract the natural tendency to drift away from reality."² Richardson borrows the following figure from Buckley to explicate the relationship of an organization to itself and to the outside world, and to demonstrate that feed-back loops "tend to shift the goal-seeking activities of the organization, change the operating channels or the feed-back loops themselves, and induce changes in the subsystems within the organization through the feed-back of new internal data."³



FEEDBACK CONTROL OF GOAL FORMULATION AND SEEKING⁴

¹Such evidence that must be included in reaching curricular decisions are internal influences, e.g., student characteristics, desires and needs; ages, abilities, interests, development and motivation of faculty and administration; costs of courses, departments, recruitment, equipment and over-all operation...local influences, e.g., performance, attitudes and reflections of graduates; needs and expectations of employers; ...expectations of the larger society, its changing character, rate and direction of change; practices and successes elsewhere; regulatory and advisory information from the state, regional and federal offices, etc. All of these have already been noted in this review.

²Richardson, Governance for the Two-Year College, op. cit., p.5.

³Ibid., p. 4.

⁴Ibid., p. 5, borrowing from Walter Buckley, Sociology and Modern Systems Theory, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.

David S. Bushnell observes what appears immediately evident upon reflection, "that it is difficult to imagine anything or anyone functioning apart from some kind of system. One has only to think of the human body as a series of interrelated systems and subsystems," he says, "to gain a feeling for the comprehensiveness of this approach."¹ The same author says that system analytic methods (brought to bear upon the problem of education) provide a more rigorous way of asking and answering questions forcing:

problem solvers and decision makers to tackle the educational problem logically and systematically, taking various perspectives offered by different disciplines... It attempts to describe what action is to be taken and the expected results of that action against a backdrop of antecedent conditions, social values, and developmental trends. It permits one to examine the significant variables operating in a system, to manipulate those variables, and to predict the results with a fair degree of accuracy. It relates goals and objectives to needs.²

Systems analysis in education is a very recent methodological process, dating back, Bushnell, says, hardly more than a decade. He references Flanagan³ who identifies reasons why the system approach has had such little impact on education:

1) Accrediting agencies have given almost no attention to inputs and outputs of the system and to classroom procedures. Most of their interest has been focused on staff qualifications, facilities and equipment. 2) Evaluating the quality of instruction has been difficult even with the aid of standardized achievement and aptitude tests. Methods for assessing the effects of instruction as

¹David S. Bushnell, "Curriculum Change in Secondary Education," in Burns, op. cit., p. 233.

²Bushnell, "A Systematic Strategy for School Renewal," p. 8, in Bushnell, Planned Change in Education, op. cit.

³John Flanagan, "How Instructional Systems will Manage Learning," Nations Schools, Vol. 86, No. 4: October 1970, p. 68.

distinct from other environmental factors and innate abilities of the student have only recently begun to emerge. 3) The development of new instructional procedures which offer alternative ways of meeting the needs of individual students has brought the need for greater precision in evaluating student progress. 4) Until recently, only some of the important objectives of education could be measured.¹

Bushnell says that systems analysis offers a more potent change strategy than traditional processes in that "the development of alternative learning strategies through the introduction of new educational technology and the emergence of a unified theory of planned change promises a more effective approach to implementing change."² Modification of curriculum content, instructional procedures, teacher roles and the administrative support systems now become possible, he says, at the same time.

There is general agreement on the stages through which the systems analysis should proceed, according to Bushnell:

Diagnosing the problem, searching for alternative solutions, testing these solutions, implementing the alternatives selected and providing for subsequent evaluation and feedback, are the essential steps through which a systems analysis in education must proceed.³

Bushnell cautions that "the constraints and barriers which surround a school system must be carefully documented and understood before a potentially successful change strategy can be formulated."⁴

George L. Geis has proposed that a decision to design and develop any instructional system be deferred until the conditions under which it is

¹Bushnell, "Curriculum Change in Secondary Education," op. cit., p. 8.

²Bushnell, "A Systematic Strategy for School Renewal," op. cit., p. 122, p. 8.

³Bushnell, "Curriculum Change in Secondary Education," op. cit., p. 233.

⁴Loc. cit.

appropriate to begin an instructional solution to a problem have been analyzed. His systems analysis seems to parallel the system described by Bushnell. For Geis, in this "readiness analysis," the first step is establishing the need for a consequence (proceeding from an effect desired to its cause). Next, he finds important defining whatever components are necessary to produce the desired effects and distinguishing the human components from any other. Performance criteria are then specified, the performance environment is re-examined and both are examined under consideration of resources and constraints. "The decision to design or develop new instruction (or 'improving' the old) is to be arrived at cautiously," Geis pleads, "only after excluding all other alternatives."¹

Snyder, too, appears to present a more general description of systems analysis in the development of educational programs than does Bushnell.² The points of emphasis that appear among the authors may differ though there is general agreement on the stages through which systems analysis should proceed, as was noted.

Both a structure and a process are necessary to a systematic approach to curricular development, Bushnell notes. "The structure or 'system' requires a network of communication links between teachers and students, teachers and administrators, administrators and taxpayers...a network which, ideally, satisfied learning needs, conveys information, and helps pass bond issues."³ Given such a structure, Bushnell outlines six steps

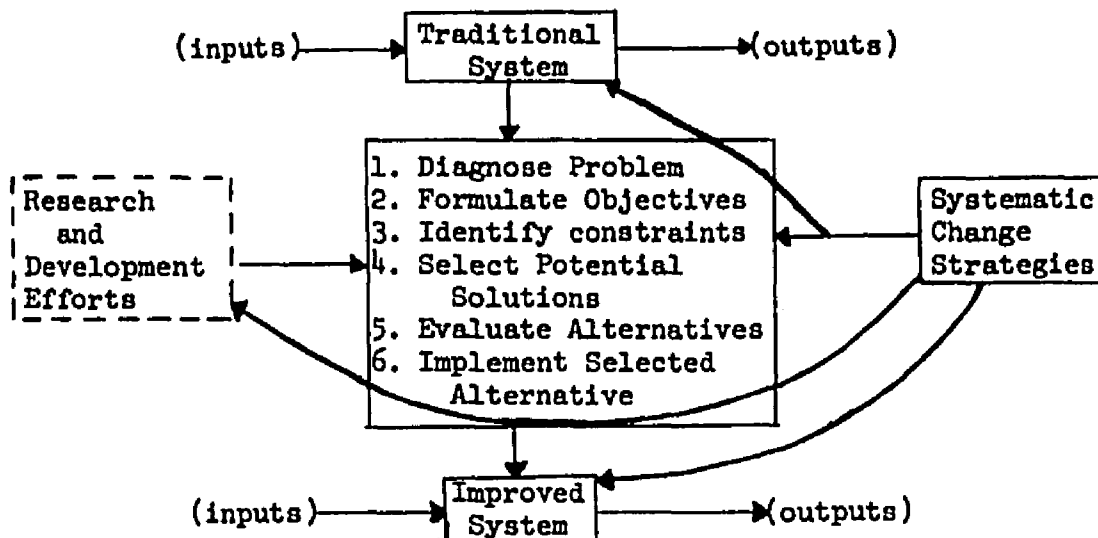
¹George L. Geis, "Curriculum Design in a Changing Society," in Burns, op. cit., pp. 83-102.

²Fred A. Snyder, (Director, Research and Community Resources, Harrisburg Area Community College), The Second Annual Conference on Post-secondary Occupational Education, University Park, Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University, 1971, pp. 88-93.

³Bushnell, "A Systematic Strategy for School Renewal," op. cit., p. 9.

in the systematic decision-making process or change strategy and offers the following diagram to depict what he wishes to explain and what will be carefully summarized in this review:

SIX STAGES FOR PLANNED CHANGE¹



Step 1: Diagnosing the Problem.

Is the system malfunctioning? What perceptions of basic concern are gleaned from interviews and questionnaires querying a representative cross-section of community leaders? Which groups to assess or query? What are the needs and interests of teachers, staff and students, of all those to be served by the institution? "Questionnaires, opinion polls, advisory boards, charrettes, and documented staff-community encounters are a few assessment techniques employed." Non-representative influential groups can draw an erroneous picture of reality.

¹Ibid., p. 10.

Step 2: Formulating Objectives.

An understanding of what must be achieved is necessary before alternative solutions can be contemplated. Goals (long-range general statements of purpose) are distinguished from objectives (specific and proximately tangible statements). Several characteristics of well-stated objectives are enumerated: they should be stated in behavioral terms so that "those responsible for achieving a given objective will know what is to be done and how it is to be done; a well-stated objective is internally consistent, compatible with other objectives; well-stated objectives should be as comprehensive as possible, covering "all of the potentially significant 'outputs' of a learning program or administrative action."

Step 3: Identifying Constraints and Needed Resources.

"Constraints or barriers may take the form of laws, established traditions, or faculty attitudes. In short, they are any forces which work in behalf of maintaining the status quo. Resources take the form of people, facilities, printed materials and information." Bushnell speaks of the positive and negative aspects of the use of outside consultants, and says that when they are engaged, "effective linkage between a user group and a research group requires mutual understanding, equal status, and frequent interaction if the relationship is to be at all productive."

Step 4: Selecting Potential Solutions.

Two important requirements are necessary. "1) awareness of potential solutions through the systematic review of appropriate information sources, and 2) the choice of one solution which best fits the problem at hand from among the array of promising alternatives." The assumption is that the problem solver has already carried out a preliminary search of possible information sources by visiting other institutions where such innovations

have been effective, by examining independent evaluative studies and by studying scholarly review articles (such as those suggested by Bushnell) or by consulting with an acknowledged expert in the field.

Step 5: Evaluating Alternatives.

Involves establishing criteria for comparative purposes. Three of the major criteria to be weighed and subsequently weighted are feasibility (constraints, needed resources), workability (can course of action be successfully and reliably implemented?) and effectiveness (will the course of action accomplish what is intended?).

Step 6: Implementing the Selected Alternative.

Means early involvement of those who will be affected by plan of action and a sharing of responsibility for putting it into effect. Requires a clear and precise understanding of the role each participant plays. "Those involved need a sense of competence and confidence, openness to new information, and a willingness to take risks." Anticipated rewards are also part of the change-climate needed. Frequent measurements of interim progress toward a goal--a feedback mechanism--is needed in putting a new instructional program into action.

Bushnell summarizes the six steps toward a systematic decision-making process or change strategy:

Installing the innovation requires, of course, a trained staff, the necessary resources and materials, objectives and procedures, and a well-developed plan for monitoring feedback, and modification of the adopted procedure. This is the essential cycle through which any proposed solution must go if it is to have a maximum chance of acceptance in the school setting.¹

¹

Bushnell, Planned Change in Education, op. cit., pp. 11-16.

He adds a final word: "A systems approach does require changes in attitudes and behavior, but it has definite advantages. It is an effective way of joining rational planning and human orientation; merging reason with active concern for people. That, of course, Bushnell concludes, is what educational administration is all about."¹

Summary

It was pointed out in an introductory statement to this chapter that new problems and new emphases aggravate many of those that have been historical and compel decision makers to adapt techniques and programs to new conditions. For this reason--changing times--literature dating back more than a decade was generally referenced in passing, and emphasis was placed, in this review, on the most current thought expressed by authors.

Issues basic to curricular decision making, upon which curriculum development depends, and various approaches to curriculum development were given first attention. Among the issues needing resolution several were noted as especially important: whether to transmit general overviews of knowledge or to provide concentrated effort in a limited field; an open or closed, elective or prescribed curriculum; whether programs and courses should be designed for the elite or for everyone; whether they should be student- or subject-oriented, discipline- or problem-oriented; should the sciences or the humanities most characterize the curriculum? Recent attempts to construct curricula, it was seen, have tried to accommodate all of these issues.

¹Ibid., p. 16.

Unless basic issues are identified and resolved in each college, they will inhibit policy decisions that should guide curricular decisions and will impede or delay the vital process by which a community college must respond to the continually changing forces of life. Unless articulated and resolved, underlying attitudes, biases, philosophies, theories, and value judgments of the board, the administration, the faculty, even the students and the community, of the curricular decision makers, will form undefinable and obscure criteria for decision. Inefficiency and ineffectiveness, frustration, and apathy must then be expected in the decision-making process. The need for a curricular decision-making structure, system and criteria to accommodate vital issues effectively and efficiently amidst changing times and conditions is recognized by the authors.

The formulation of educational objectives involving basic decisions consciously made by those responsible for making them was discussed. Curricular decision making was seen as dependent upon clearly defined institutional goals and the resolution of all issues basic to them.

It was observed that the growing consensus about the nature of the program of the comprehensive community college is not yet universal and that each curriculum presents special problems that must be confronted in the decision-making process--and resolved.

This observation--that a comprehensive program means a program for all--led naturally to a review of each of the several community college curriculum. A background brief preceded a decision of the major problems faced in designing each. These major problems were seen as decision-making guidelines, parameters, influences, barriers, constraints, determinants... in one way or another criteria in the light of which decisions had to be made.

The historical development of the community college as an upward extension of secondary education, feeder colleges to four-year institutions or decapitated four-year colleges explains, in part, the continued popularity of preparatory educational programs. Other reasons were given for the important ranking transfer programs maintained in the community college. Availability of teachers in the academic fields, availability of facilities, modesty of expense even with small enrollments and the favor of accrediting agencies were among them.

The major problem in designing a transfer curriculum was recognized as articulation requirements with senior colleges. Senior colleges are not uniform in their requirements for the first and second years and their requirements are constantly changing. University dominance over transfer courses has at times led to the forfeiture of a community college's identity by the latter's slavish attempts to duplicate courses and perhaps elaborate them far beyond the lower-division needs of their students. An unwillingness to experiment and break new ground in curricular designs has grown out of the fear that senior colleges would not give credit for experimental courses. Special efforts to resolve these problems in California, Florida, and Michigan were noted, and gradually they are being resolved everywhere. Community colleges in the meantime have earned recognition for providing adequate transfer programs.

Articulation with high schools was also recognized as a major problem in creating a transfer curriculum. Increased upward mobility from a two-year occupational program into a four-year baccalaureate program was noted as another. Still others noted were the availability of competent teachers for this unique kind of college and students able and willing to meet the challenge of their programs of study. Student admissions and placements

(or program/course selections) as related to "the open-door policy" remains a debated question and represents a significant problem for transfer curriculum designers.

While the transfer function of the junior college was initially its sole function, far-thinking persons like Lange, Hill, and Snyder and the passage of vocational education bills during World War I led to a new definition of the junior college by the American Association of Junior Colleges in 1925. Occupational education (vocational preparation, technical training) has as its primary and specific objective the preparation of students for immediate entry, after leaving the community college, into middle-level vocations or the up-grading of skills of persons already employed. The rapid expansion of occupational programs since 1925 is of historical record. The great depression, the national emergency of defense needs of World War II, the increase of automation following the War and finally the Vocational Act of 1963 and the Higher Education Facilities Act in the same year represent at least a partial accounting for it.

Even though occupational education is considered by authors as a major part of the community college mission and a fundamental institutional objective, and even though middle-level manpower needs account for thirty percent of the labor force, more than half of all junior colleges offer fewer than five curriculums emphasizing any occupational skills, and of these business rather than technical competences predominate. Poor attitudes of certain types of students toward occupational training create curriculum problems, and a superior or snobbish attitude of faculty deters the wholesome recognition that all learning is respectable as is every honorable occupation. Harris speaks of an "educational void that would result from separating an elite, academically gifted group from a mass group of neglected citizens."

The authors give recognition to dead-end educational programs and suggest remedies in collegiate offerings of "clusters of programs," "career-ladder concepts," the utility of short courses for certain students, suitable occupational programs for the disadvantaged, low-achieving student, work-study programs and other innovative, forward thinking planning that looks to the needs of both student and society. The community college is a service organization, not a tower of ivory unrelated to the real world.

The quality of programs for each diversely able and interested student is of concern to curriculum designers; proper balance among the various curricula is also of concern, for too much stress on occupational programs can be as deleterious to the college, the community and its students as can be too much stress on transfer programs. The value of general education in occupational programs is not easily practicalized and more and more graduates of two-year occupational programs are going on, or wish to continue studies in four-year institutions toward a baccalaureate degree. Equivalence of credit for learning, no matter where or how achieved, has become a special issue in occupational education.

Facilities for occupational programs and higher costs represent a problem to curriculum planners. Federal supporting policies are seen as inadequate, improperly coordinated, too categorical and too indefinite. Faculty staff is a major problem; academic credentials plus on-the-job experience is still too much a hard-to-reach ideal. Satisfaction of manpower needs, state requirements, and the absence of cooperative planning for the future development of vocational and technical education among the various levels of education have to be seen as problems to the curriculum designer.

Course offerings in higher education are significant in part because they reveal the educated community's conception of what knowledge is most worth transmitting to the cream of its youth. General education has many definitions, one of which is that body of education the need for which is shared by all people--a pervasive value system (not just a collection of courses) touching all phases of the student's educational life. General education emphasizes learning not for meeting requirements in an academic or professional field, but for personal use. Institutional perceptions of general education, whatever they are, become a criterion for curricular decision makers.

Authors in general impugn community colleges for their failure to develop a general education curriculum or at least integrate general education courses into the college program.

Faculty members who are unsympathetic to the idea of general education argue that the humanizing, civilizing values of general education can be found in the subject matter of every department. The question of proportion of general education courses in a two-year curriculum is undecided. Students' lack of motivation to utilize general courses is a problem confronting curriculum designers, for many students are geared strongly, if not exclusively, to vocational goals. Compression of college time and the dominance of graduate schools results in undue specialization in undergraduate colleges. Pressure upon both faculty and students causes sights to be narrowed and expediency to be viewed as a criterion of decision.

The concept of the core curriculum--incorporating a core of general or liberal arts education into all curricula--is supported by recognized authors as a way to achieve an objective which has a value that is practically uncontested.

Students who have difficulty in competing with others for passing grades in traditional academic courses have been called "marginal students," "high-risk students," "socially-different students," "low-achievers," "culturally disadvantaged"... They are quite readily identified by their problems and are increasingly becoming a larger percentage of the community college student body. Curricular decision makers must take them into serious account for education can play a decisive role as a socializer in transmitting culture, knowledge, beliefs, customs, values, and skills necessary both to the individual and to the preservation of society.

Lack of commitment to these students by both administrators and faculty is singled out as a chief reason for the absence or poor quality of remedial programs. Lack of agreement on the objectives of a remedial program is another serious obstacle that curricular decision makers have to accept or surmount. Generous financial support in remediating efforts is essential. Finding faculty prepared or willing to teach underachievers is another major barrier in educating the specially needful. The inexperienced instructor is the one often found in the remedial classroom. The question of status and prestige among teachers causes low interest in teaching remedial students.

Curricular decision makers need institutional guidelines or policies to serve as criteria in their efforts to design a curriculum truly geared for the unprepared or otherwise culturally disadvantaged student.

The AAJC committee on Junior College Adult Education found widespread interest in 1941, but as recently as 1952, only a small group discussed adult education at the AAJC convention. The term "adult" education is now giving way to "continuing" education, for community colleges have accepted their continuing obligation to make education available to every

person for whom lifelong learning is a recognized reality. The community college serves the adult community in several ways: basic education leading to a certificate of high school equivalence, or a diploma, occupational training or retraining, cultural education which encompasses a wide variety of avocational interests, civia education to prepare for American citizenship, associate degree programs, workshops, seminars, and non-credit courses designed to meet the special needs of the community.

In this curriculum, as in the others, major problems need to be resolved. The question of college credit is an example. Some feel that credit should be offered only for courses that parallel their day-time offerings; others feel that a course worthy of being offered is worthy of credit. Some colleges, and perhaps most, offer short courses and courses of limited scope and specialized interest courses without credit, and allow students to take classes that are equivalent to the day-time classes for credit or as auditors.

The scope and diversity of the program creates issues that find great disagreement among administrators. The public schools, perhaps, and other agencies doubtlessly engage in adult education services, and should not find needless or useless competition from the community college. Articulation needs with other agencies and schools is an acute need.

Whole-hearted support of boards, administrators and involved faculty, and faculty able to adapt to a different, more mature and exacting clientele are major needs. A non-tenured faculty, plus a program considered by many to be "low status," plus limited dollar resources for planning and development make the continuing education program most vulnerable when the college is faced with a budget squeeze. The lack of distinction between educational activities and community service programs is seen by some as a major problem. Authors agree that flexibility must be a watchword for curriculum

planners of continuing education curriculum. Administrative willingness to offer programs at times and places when they can be utilized appears necessary for the growth and development of an adult education program.

Most recent among the recognized major functions of the community college is community services. The origin of this function can be traced to the community school concept in the public schools and the community development concept in the four-year institutions of higher learning. The acceleration of interest in community services during the 1960's was the result of several factors. These included the infusion of federal monies, particularly in areas related to poverty, urban redevelopment, and manpower training; the civil rights movement and demands to open society for blacks and other minorities; the visibility of community services programming provided by the AAJC, and the increasing social concern for the urban crisis, racial inequalities, and illiteracy.

Community Services includes all educational, cultural and recreational services provided by a community college, in cooperation with other community agencies, over and above the regular day program for full-time students.

Program planners do not escape difficulty in designing community service programs, but the problems appear to be fairly straight-forward: leadership, total faculty involvement, administrative philosophy and involvement, the attitude of the board are some of them. Costs of staff, added service functions (e.g., extended library hours), utilities, custodial service, supervisory administrative personnel, secretarial help, guidance and counseling services are not small expenses. In addition, course credit is often the criterion the state uses in giving or withholding supporting funds. Identification of unmet community needs and articulation with other schools and agencies serving the public is a need and in some places a major problem.

CHAPTER III

Methodology of Study

Background Preparation

During the summer months preceding this study, informal interviews were arranged to help set the ground-work for the research problems it indicated. Informal conversations with Dr. Edwin L. Novak, President of the State Board of Education, with Dr. S. Olof Karlstrom, Executive Vice President of Genesee Community College and Fred B. Robbins, Dean of Liberal Arts and Sciences in the same institution were frequent and numerous. Two meetings were arranged with Dr. Robert Cahow, Executive Secretary of the Michigan Community College Association, another with Dr. Robert Kovach of the MCCA. Lengthy conversations with Dr. William Pierce, Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Michigan and with Mr. Phil Jager of the Department of the Budget were scheduled.

These informal meetings had, as their purpose, the objectives of announcing this study, engaging the interest of these persons and the groups they represent, gaining relevant information and the exchange of useful thoughts about the research problems of this study. A conversation with State Representative Dale Kildee, a recognized advocate of community education, was also useful and informational.

Selection of Community Colleges for this Study: Rationale

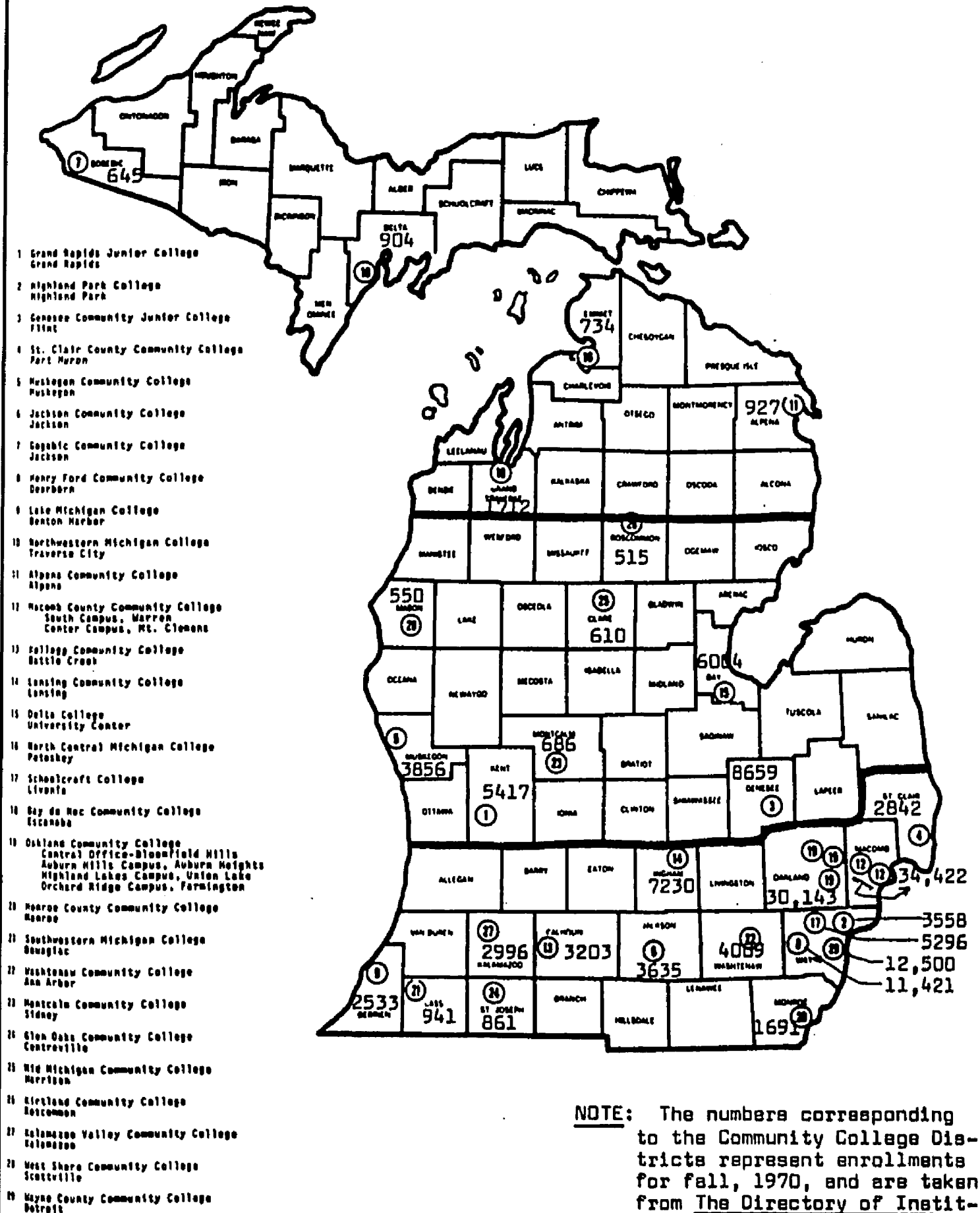
Twenty-nine public community colleges are presently established in the State of Michigan, and are geographically dispersed: two are located

in the upper peninsula; in the lower peninsula, three are located to the north of the county lines extending eastward from the southern boundaries of Benzie to Alcona Counties. In mid-Michigan, bounded by this line to the north and a southern line extending eastward from the southern county lines of Ottawa to Sanilac are located eight colleges. The remaining sixteen community colleges are located to the south of this line with a concentration of eleven colleges in southeastern Michigan and four southwest of a line running north from the western boundaries of Hillsdale, Jackson, and Ingham Counties. This geographical dispersion is depicted on the following state map of Michigan.

Colleges selected for this study were identified by the following criteria:

1. geographical location: the colleges located in mid-Michigan, as defined by the lines demarcated on the state map, were chosen for three reasons:
 - A. They are geographically separated from the high population and college concentration in the southeastern sector of the state and from outstate influences to the southwest.
 - B. They are geographically separated from the low population and college concentration in the upper part of the lower peninsula and the upper peninsula.
 - C. Their problems were thought to be more similar to one another than to the colleges in the other areas named.
2. their student populations: medium-size colleges were selected, for their development and present circumstances were thought to be similar. Smaller colleges in Michigan will hopefully develop into medium-size institutions. Larger and very large institutions represent only five of the twenty-nine public colleges, and four of these have student populations far beyond that which smaller, or even medium-size colleges, can expect to attain in the reasonably near future.
3. dependence: it was desired to study at least one college which is still part of the public school system.
4. operating without faculty-negotiated contract: it was desired to study at least one college in which a bargained contract had not been negotiated.

MICHIGAN PUBLIC COMMUNITY AND JUNIOR COLLEGES 1971-72



5. accreditation: colleges fully accredited by the North Central Accrediting Association and by professional associations were of interest, for such accreditation was thought to presume maturity.
6. establishment: colleges organized at different times in the state's history were of interest, for it was thought that such colleges would reflect the problems of their early growth and development.

Of the eight public community colleges geographically situated in mid-Michigan, three have medium-size student populations--Grand Rapids Junior College, Delta College, and Muskegon Community College. Each of these have medium-size student populations: Grand Rapids - 5417, Delta - 6004, and Muskegon - 3856. Grand Rapids Junior College remains part of the public school system. Delta is one of the five colleges currently operating without a faculty-negotiated contract. Grand Rapids Junior College is separated from Muskegon Community College, in date of organization, by twelve years, and Delta was established thirty-one years after Muskegon.

Each of these colleges is among the seventeen Michigan public community colleges which enjoys accreditation of the North Central Association. The National League for Nursing accredits an associate degree program in nursing, and the American Medical Association, Council on Medical Education, accredits a radiologic program at Delta. The American Dental Association, Council on Dental Education, accredits a program in dental hygiene at Grand Rapids and at Delta, and also a program at Delta for dental assistants.¹

Each of these colleges offers two but less than four years occupational education below the bachelor's level and a two-year wholly or principally creditable program of courses toward a bachelor's degree.

¹1971-1972 Directory of Institutions of Higher Education, op. cit.

Grand Rapids Junior College, Delta College, and Muskegon Community College were most closely defined by the criteria of selection. They represent 100% of the medium-size colleges in the mid-Michigan area and 10% of all Michigan community colleges. These colleges will be represented in this study.

Dates of colleges established range from 1914 (Grand Rapids) to 1968 (Wayne County).

Michigan Public Community Colleges

<u>College</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Date Organized</u>
1. Grand Rapids Junior College	Grand Rapids	1914
2. Highland Park College	Highland Park	1918
3. Genesee Community College	Flint	1923
4. St. Clair County Community College	Port Huron	1923
5. Muskegon Community College	Muskegon	1926
6. Jackson Community College	Jackson	1928
7. Gogebic Community College	Ironwood	1932
8. Henry Ford Community College	Dearborn	1938
9. Lake Michigan College	Benton Harbor	1946
10. Northwestern Michigan College	Traverse City	1951
11. Alpena Community College	Alpena	1951
12. Macomb County Community College	Warren	1953
13. Kellogg Community College	Battle Creek	1956
14. Delta College	University Center	1957
15. Lansing Community College	Lansing	1957
16. North Central Michigan College	Petoskey	1958
17. Schoolcraft College	Livonia	1961
18. Bay de Noc Community College	Escanaba	1963

19. Monroe County Community College	Monroe	1964
20. Oakland Community College	Bloomfield Hills	1964
21. Southwestern Michigan College	Dowagiac	1964
22. Washtenaw Community College	Ann Arbor	1965
23. Montcalm Community College	Sidney	1965
24. Glen Oaks Community College	Centreville	1965
25. Mid-Michigan Community College	Harrison	1965
26. Kirtland Community College	Roscommon	1965
27. Kalamazoo Valley Community College	Kalamazoo	1966
28. West Shore Community College	Scottsville	1967
29. Wayne County Community College	Detroit	1968 ¹

Among the twenty-nine public community colleges in Michigan, student populations range from very small (Kirtland: 515) to very large (Macomb: 34,222). For the purposes of this study, colleges have been grouped according to student populations into very small (under 1,000), small (1,000-2,500), medium (2,501-7,500), large (7,501-approximately 12,500), and very large (30,000+). Of the twelve colleges established in the past decade (since 1963, inclusive), seven are among the smallest colleges, one among the small, two among the medium, and one among the large. Nine other colleges date, in origin, from World War II. Of these, two have remained very small, one is small, five are medium-size institutions, and one is very large. Of the eight oldest community colleges, two are presently large institutions, five are medium size, and one remains very small.

The following chart places each college in a grouping by student enrollment numbers.

¹The Directory of Institutions of Higher Education, Lansing, Michigan, Michigan Department of Education, 1971-1972.

Community College Student Population¹

<u>Very Small</u>	<u>Small</u>	<u>Small-Medium-Large</u>		<u>Large</u>	<u>Very Large</u>
<u>under 1000</u>	<u>1001-2500</u>	<u>2501-5000</u>	<u>5001-7500</u>	<u>7501-aprox. 12,500</u>	<u>30,000 Plus</u>
Gogebic - 645	Northwestern - 1712	Highland Park - 3558	Grand Rapids - 5417	Genesee - 8659	Macomb - 34,422
Alpena - 927	Monroe County - 1691	St. Clair - 2842	Delta - 6004	Henry Ford - 12,500	Oakland - 30,143
North Central - 734		Muskegon - 3856	Schoolcraft - 5296	Wayne County - 11,421	
Bay de Noc - 904		Jackson - 3635	Washtenaw - 4009		
Southwestern - 941		Lake Michigan - 2533	Lansing - 7230		
Montcalm - 686		Kellogg - 3203			
Glen Oaks - 861		Kalamazoo - 2996			
Mid-Michigan - 610					
Kirtland - 515					
West Shore - 550					

¹ 1971-1972 Directory of Institutions of Higher Education, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Department of Education.

Sources of Data Described

The three colleges selected for this study could be described in different ways and with different emphases. Certain descriptors were singled out as most relevant, for they relate most closely with this study. Each college will be described separately. Dates of establishment are considered important. Location and physical facilities will be briefly described. Admissions requirements and operational systems (semester, term) will then be explained. The administration of the colleges will be detailed and an organization chart provided (Appendix B). An explanation of the various kinds of curricula and programs offered will be given and outreach programs (e.g., extensions), when applicable, mentioned. Degrees and certificates awarded at each college will be noted.

Grand Rapids Junior College¹

Grand Rapids Junior College enjoys the distinction of being the first junior college in Michigan. It was established in 1914 by the Board of Education upon the recommendation of the University of Michigan. At present it occupies three buildings and adjoining campuses located conveniently in the center of the city within easy commuting distance from outlying areas. The college operates on a semester system and includes both an evening college and a summer session. It is administered under the local board of education with a dean serving as its chief executive officer.²

¹Statewide Community College Services in Michigan, A Special Report with Recommendations by the Michigan Community College Association, Lansing, Michigan, June 1971.

GRAND RAPIDS COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT--County of Kent excluding those portions of the township of Spencer, Oakfield, Nelson and Solon included within the legal boundaries of the Montcalm Community College District as of January 1, 1971; the county of Ottawa excluding the townships of Spring Lake, Crockery, Robinson and Grand Haven; the townships of Lake Town, Fillmore, Overisel, Salem, Dorr, Leighton, Hopkins and Wayland in Allegan County; the townships of Thornapple and Irving of Barry County.

²Catalog of Grand Rapids Junior College, 1972-1973.

Under the dean, assistant deans serve in the areas of general academic programs and courses, continuing education, occupational education, and student services. An organization chart is found in Appendix B. "To provide maximum educational opportunity to the members of the community and maximum utilization of its instructional facilities, Grand Rapids Junior College offers a number of programs of instruction in its day and evening college; some leading to an Associate degree, some to a Diploma or Certificate, and others less comprehensive in nature..."¹

Two types of certificates are awarded at Grand Rapids: a Certificate of Achievement for satisfactory completion of college credit programs for which degrees are not given and a Certificate of Competence for satisfactory completion of non-degree credit programs.

A remedial program, presently being revised, is designed for students who have demonstrated below average scholastic achievement in high school and who are unable to satisfy the minimum entrance requirements for a college program. Such students are encouraged to enroll in the summer session. Successful completion of this summer program is prerequisite to enrollment in a full program starting in the fall semester.

Continuing education opportunities are available through a diversified program of evening courses on the college or high school level. The evening school also offers remedial sections in English, reading, and mathematics.

Under the direction of the Grand Rapids Board of Education, continuing education programs are available in several areas:

1. Adult High School Completion

¹Ibid.

2. Adult Basic Education (pre-high school training in writing, English and math. Included are classes in citizenship and English as a second language).
3. Community Service (non-degree credit classes of short term in areas of special interest).
4. Community Schools (various enrichment programs and leisure time activities established by the Board of Education and offered in selected schools).
5. Adult Trades and Industry (short-term courses to teach adult basic skills and provide useful information in certain occupational areas).

The general education curriculum includes minimum requirements of the senior institutions to which most students will transfer, and embodies a variety of courses in English, the humanities, the biological and physical sciences, and the social sciences. The Grand Rapids Junior College Catalog does not mention general education requirements for students other than transfer students.

An Associate of Arts degree in Arts or Science is available to liberal arts and pre-professional students who are preparing for entrance into a senior college or university, and an Associate degree in Applied Arts and Sciences can be earned by students who wish to pursue two years of occupational oriented study in business, health, home economics, public safety and technology.

Delta College¹

Delta College was organized in 1957, and began its operations in 1961. The college functions independently of the public school system with a

¹Ibid.

DELTA COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT--Counties of Midland, Bay, Saginaw and Tuscola; the townships of Caseville, McKinley, Windsor, Fair Haven, Brookfield, and Sebewaing of Huron County; the townships of Moffat, Clayton, Deer River, Adams, Standish and Lincoln of Arenac County.

president as its chief executive officer, and remains one of the few Michigan community colleges without a faculty-negotiated contract. Programs and courses are arranged on a three semester plan and a summer program. The college is located mid-way between Saginaw, Bay City and Midland and enjoys new and strikingly beautiful facilities.

Under the president, and through an executive vice president, a dean serves in the areas of academic affairs, student affairs, and community affairs. At this same level, reporting to the president through the executive vice president, is a controller and a business manager. An associate dean of general education (liberal arts, transfer...) and an associate dean of occupational programs reports to the dean of academic affairs. An organization chart is found in Appendix B.

Delta College is a charter member of the National League for Innovation and is committed to a program of innovation, experimentation, and improvement.

Admission to the college is open to high school graduates. "Acceptance is based upon previous academic work, a record of good citizenship, and an expressed sincere desire for additional education."¹ Placement tests determine the preparedness required for entrance into a desired curriculum and results are carefully considered by the student with the guidance of his college counselor. An admissions classification system, on the basis of the student's educational background and potential abilities, is used for proper placement of the student in classes. Students are classified for admission purposes in one of the following categories:

1. Regular admission (transcript of credits from accredited high school or its equivalent and demonstrable potential to pursue college level study as determined by high school achievement).

¹Delta College Bulletin, 1972-1973, p. 12.

2. Provisional admission (educational background needs strengthening in certain areas. Student may be limited to twelve hours and may be required to supplement his background and achievement before re-classification as a regular student).
3. Special admission (early entrance high school students, students with incomplete admission materials, and degree holding students who are interested in specific courses).
4. Guest admission.
5. Transfer students (admitted on an individual basis).

Delta College awards the Associate of Arts Degree, the Associate of Science Degree, Associate Degrees in Applied Science and Business Studies. In addition, one- or two-year certificates in occupational programs are offered.

General requirements depend upon the requirements of senior colleges and departmental majors, and students are advised to follow the program of the senior college in which he expects to enroll. A general curriculum for students other than those who plan to transfer is not mentioned in the college catalog nor are remedial programs. Occupation programs and courses are planned in areas where job opportunities clearly exist, and each student in career programs plans, with his advisor, a sequence of studies to fit his individual needs.

Delta "not only offers its distinct service through its Continuing Education course work, it also accepts service from the community by hiring professional people from the area to teach on a part-time basis. Through its thorough consideration of these people's training, professional activities, and work-related experience, Delta ensures that a Continuing Education course is commensurate with day courses in academic objectives set forth, instruction given, and totality of program offered."¹

¹Ibid., p. 10.

Community education programs, as a community service, are geared to serve the community needs which are not met by two-year degrees or academic certificate programs. These types of program include self-development, individual goals, community development and goals of organizations and groups. Community service programs also involve personal counseling, up-grading of skills, attention to social problems, cultural development and leisure time activity hobbies and recreational activities. Contract programs offer the individual corporation or business the opportunity to structure a course to meet their specific training needs in up-grading the skills of minority or disadvantaged individuals.

Delta College operates five extension centers through which the college is taken to the students.¹ Besides these centers, evening classes, as a function of community services, are offered in a variety of locations, including classes in cooperation with local schools, churches, government agencies and private associations. Television courses are also offered.

Muskegon Community College²

Muskegon Community College, though established as a junior college in 1926, prides itself in belonging to the new era. The change of name from Muskegon Junior College to Muskegon Community College in 1957 noted the difference in its program. In 1963, the college became independent of the public school system. The college is currently administered under a

¹Ibid., President's Message p. 3.

²Statewide Community College Services in Michigan, op. cit.

MUSKEGON COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT--County of Muskegon; the county of Newaygo excluding the townships of Troy, Lilley, Merrill, Beaver, Goodwell, Big Prairie, Ensley, and Croton; the townships of Benona, Shelby, Ferry, Newfield, Greenwood, Otto, Grant and Clay Banks of Oceana County; the townships of Spring Lake, Crockery, Robinson, and Grand Haven of Ottawa County.

president with three deans--for instruction, for student affairs and for business affairs--and their associates, directors and personnel. An associate dean for instruction assists the dean in the occupational area. Reporting directly to the dean, who reports directly to the president, are coordinators in community service programs, a director of Police/Fire Science Technology Program, and three divisional directors--one in the area of social science and related occupations, one in humanities/communication, and the third in mathematics, science and related occupations. Department heads report to their respective divisional chairman. An organization chart is found in Appendix B. The college is located east of Muskegon, with large acreage and enjoys new and very beautiful plant facilities.

The Muskegon Community College operates on a two semester plus summer session schedule and singles out four educational programs: general education, university parallel, occupational and work experience. "The college feels that, in addition to the specialization that most students seek, each student should have a broad, intellectual experience in the major field of knowledge...the requirements a student must complete to receive a degree...reflect this commitment to general education."¹

The college awards the Associate in Arts Degree, the Associate in Science Degree and the Associate in Applied Science Degree. The first two are primarily transfer degrees; the latter is awarded for successful completion of an occupationally-oriented curriculum, but may also be used as a transfer degree to certain baccalaureate programs.

¹ Muskegon Community College Catalog, 1972-1974, p. 5.

Occupational programs in business, industrial-manufacturing, health and other semi-professional programs lead directly to employment in specific fields or improve skills for individuals presently employed in this area. Cooperative occupational training (distributive education, office experience) is available to students who wish to combine practical work-experience with their formal classroom study.

The catalogue speaks of the "exploratory college"--a one-year program of courses intended to offer the student an opportunity to gain an understanding of himself in the world around him. Individual study programs are also planned and encouraged at Muskegon. Certificate programs are available in each applied division to students who may wish a one-year program to provide basic proficiencies in their area of specific interest.

Community education services (community services) provides trained and experienced leadership in the development of human, community, physical, cultural and economic resources by expanding educational opportunities to all segments of the college district. A four-part program of Adult Special Interest, Special Short Programs, Community Development Activities and Cultural Activities implements the concept of a comprehensive community college being responsive to the total educational needs of the community.

Muskegon places three coordinators, under the dean for instruction, to head up community service or community education programs: one is responsible for adult education and short courses, one for industrial activities, and the third for business and professional activities. All community service courses are non-credit, though they become the preparation ground for some who transfer to credit-bearing courses. Credit courses which are being planned for evening hours will not be organized under community services. Similarly, adult/continuing education courses that bear credit

are not distinguished from the regular educational offerings of the college.

Remedial or developmental curriculum is not mentioned in the current catalogue.

Muskegon Community College invites every interested person in the community to avail himself of its varied services. The admissions office, cooperating with the counseling office, promises to assist each student in the selection of individual courses or programs of study which meets the needs of his stated goal. Special admission requirements are placed for certain programs. The college does not guarantee admission, therefore, to all programs and requests or requires that some students make up deficiencies in certain areas before gaining entry into specialized programs.

Plan of Study

As was revealed in the review of literature, the authors focus their attention largely on barriers, influences, determinants, parameters, constraints, decision-making guidelines (criteria), and few, it was observed, discuss structures and processes by which curricular decisions are made. Criteria for curricular decision making, although an integral part of this study, represent only part of it. This investigation accepts the validity of the literature and centers more for the wholeness and completeness of the study upon curricular decision-making structures and processes.

Method and Description of Study

In reviewing the literature related to curricular decision making, careful attention was given to the research questions presented in this study and to the hypotheses that it would examine. Abundant notes were taken to support the instrument to be used. The analytical thought of

James W. Reynolds, David S. Bushnell, Lewis B. Mayhew and B. Lamar Johnson were especially useful in devising a plan to gain the information necessary to this study. A structured, detailed interview was considered an optimum methodological approach and was planned and improved through several revisions. A pilot study conducted at Genesee Community College in Flint resulted in helpful points of revision.

Genesee Community College,¹ established in 1923, became independent of the public school system in 1969. It is a large college--the largest single campus community college in Michigan and is located in the same geographical area of mid-Michigan as defined for the colleges being studied. This pilot study was conducted over a period of three days. Personal interviews including examination of the structured instrument, its completion, clarification, discussion of certain questions, and note taking were lengthy and valuable. The executive vice president, dean of liberal arts and sciences, dean of technical education, present and past chairmen of the curriculum committee, three divisional chairmen and two tenured faculty members anonymously chosen each assisted with an average time involvement of slightly more than two hours.

This pilot study not only improved the interview technique and the structured instrument, but clarified the selection of respondents in the

¹Statewide Community College Services in Michigan, op. cit.

GENESEE COMMUNITY COLLEGE DISTRICT--County of Genesee; those portions of the townships of Marathon, Deerfield, Oregon, Elba and Hadley of Lapeer County, and those portions of the townships of Tyrone, Hartland and Deerfield of Livingston County, and that portion of Rose Township of Oakland County included within the legal boundaries of the Genesee Community College District as of January 1, 1971.

colleges to be studied. Discussion of informal activities, though not part of this study, gave excellent preparations for the interviews that were to follow.

Prior to each interview, the purpose of the study was briefly outlined. Respondents understood that existing conditions was the primary concern of this study which was examining the processes for making decisions about programs and courses of study. It was explained that no one process was to be critiqued and that no attempt would be made to analyze or evaluate any one college. Respondents were further assured that they would not be identified with information they were asked to give and that the colleges they represent would be treated with anonymity.

An initial question sought to learn whether the entire process for making decisions about programs and courses of study was explained in any single college publication. It was reasoned that without a clearly detailed explanation, one could reasonably expect a process to be or become esoteric and that clarity of understanding at all levels in the institution would not be best served.

The interview next sought to learn the flow-charted structure or procedure by which curricular decisions were made, for decision making, as Bushnell observed, and as was reported, involves both a structure (including communication linkage) and a process. Persons and groups involved in the structure and process were the object of a series of questions.

The nature of individual and group involvement was probed and an effort was made to learn their relative importance in the decision-making process. Further efforts were made to understand whether a systems approach to decision making was being used or whether related decisions were made by several persons or groups without the inter-communications at

every step that authors recognize as required in a systematic process.

Special consideration was given to an examination of the curriculum committee, or a counterpart if there were none, to learn its responsibilities, qualifications, and the breadth of its representation. The relationship of the chief instructional officer to such a committee was questioned, and an effort to learn the relative respect given the curricular committee, or its counterpart, by the faculty and administration was made.

Questions about external regulatory constraints upon the curriculum were presented. Respondents were asked, further, to express their feelings about internal control over curriculum decisions in their college--whether control was shared by administration and faculty or whether one or the other exercised a primacy or dominance.

The interview sought to learn primary responsibility for curriculum and matters related to the curriculum as a cross-check to procedural and systems questions already asked, and discussion with the respondent followed if a discrepancy was noted and clarification was needed. The interviews were less directed to gaining perspectives of various respondents than to learn what actually were the existing conditions by which decisions were made in the formal arena.

As a check against the organizational chart and to understand whether a single instructional officer was responsible for the total curriculum, or whether he was by-passed by certain curriculum directors, a question was formulated and the answer used, when necessary, as a platform for discussion to gain clarification that may have been needed.

A series of questions probing into sources of information actually used by curricular decision makers was geared to find out which sources

were available and which were used. It seemed a problem deserving focus if, for example, an excellent library containing up-to-date research of SREB, NEHBE, WICHI, ERIC et al were available, but unused for want of time, assignment, or clarification of responsibility.

Questions of criteria, especially written criteria for decision making followed and an effort was made to look at the over-all uniformity in the college's objectives, articulations, and behavior.

The interviews finally searched out respondents' understanding of community education, its relationship to the public schools in this area of community service, and the procedure by which such programs were conceived, planned, and implemented.

The instrument used appears in questionnaire format and served to structure the personal interview with each respondent. A copy has been placed in the Appendix.

Before site visitations and interviews were conducted, personal contact with the presidents of Delta College and Muskegon Community College and the dean of Grand Rapids Junior College was made by Dr. James H. Nelson. Dr. Nelson briefly described the study to be made and gave a preliminary introduction of the researcher. In each instance a welcome to the college was extended.

Procedural Plan of Interviewer

The study was subsequently conducted in each of the three colleges. Two days were allotted for interviews at each college. The procedure followed by the researcher in each college was patterned:

1. A visit to the president. The study was explained and permission was asked to interview administrative officers and faculty members who, by reason of position, could best supply the information needed. Personal conversations and

excellent encouragement followed in each college. A copy of the college's organizational chart was requested and obtained.

2. Interviews were requested from the dean of instruction or the chief instructional officer; the dean, associate dean, director or coordinator of the liberal arts, academic, general education or transfer curriculum; the dean, associate dean, director or coordinator of the occupational, vocational, career or technical curriculum; the chairman of the curriculum committee or the group that functioned as such; at least one divisional head or director in the liberal arts, academic, general education or transfer curriculum; at least one divisional head or director in the occupational, vocational, career or technical curriculum, and from others among the administration or faculty if it seemed necessary for purposes of clarification or separate information.
3. Interviews were arranged and were conducted through completion of the instrument and note taking. Interviews averaged nearly two hours in an atmosphere of relaxation and interest. Notes taken were read back to the respondent to assure their accuracy. Cooperation and friendly openness in matters relevant to this study was most generously given.
4. Following each interview, additional notes were written, if useful, and quickly jotted notes taken during the interview were re-written or amplified as a check against memory.

Summary

In this Chapter, preparatory planning to conduct this study was reviewed. The rationale for selecting the colleges to be studied was explained, and the relationship of these colleges to other community colleges in Michigan was discussed. Dates of organization, student enrollments, and geographical location were singled out as being particularly important.

The sources of data--Delta College, Grand Rapids Junior College, and Muskegon Community College--were described in some detail. The method and description of this study was explained. The pilot study at Genesee

Community College was described and credited with improving the structural interview and the technique of the interviewer. A description of the instrument followed and the procedural plan of the interviewer was reported.

CHAPTER IV

Presentation and Summary of Results

Explanatory Note

The results of this study will be presented in the same order in which research questions and their hypotheses were presented in Chapter I. Each research question and its corresponding hypothesis will be restated. Data which supports or rejects the hypothesis will then be presented and will be followed by a statement of rejection or acceptance.

Colleges studied will be designated as "College A," "College B," and "College C." Data from each college will be presented separately and hypotheses for each will independently be accepted or rejected. Differences among the colleges are reflected in the data which, if presented together, would both confound the study and void the utility of the hypotheses; the appearance that this study generalizes its findings to other colleges is not desirable and would not be accurate. The study, further, centers on case analyses.

In each of the colleges studied, six major interviews, averaging approximately two hours, were held. More than 250 questions embodied in a 33-point interview guide (Appendix A) were asked. Respondents were carefully chosen through their identification with curriculum on the organization chart and by asking the identity of others who, though not named on the chart, exercise important roles in curriculum decision making.

Variant responses, when given, were discussed until clarity of understanding was possible. Short interviews with several other persons averaged fifteen-thirty minutes, and had as their purpose either reaffirmation of information given or resolution of doubts expressed by respondents. Printed material, when available, was used.

Following the presentation of data from each college, a summary of the findings will be given. In a section labeled "Summary and Discussion" the findings of the study in each college will be related to one another.

COLLEGE A

RQ₁ What is the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made?

H₁ The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made is not set forth in any college publication.

A variation in procedure is designed for new curricula, curricula revision, and new or revised courses.

New Curricula:

1. The program concept may originate anywhere by any interested person.
2. Proposals are sent to the Chief Instructional Officer. He investigates each proposed curriculum, perhaps with the help of a professional lay committee and gathers sufficient information to make a preliminary evaluation.
3. Each proposal, with data that has been gathered, is submitted to the Curriculum Committee for its consideration and recommendation.
4. The preliminary evaluation, with augmented evidence and the recommendations of the Curriculum Committee, is returned to the Chief Instructional Officer and appropriate division chairmen (academic council).
5. If the proposal is recommended, the Chief Instructional Officer, perhaps with the professional lay committee, collects more detailed information relating to the points considered in the preliminary evaluation. He notifies the dean of community affairs that an advisory committee is to be formed and requests names of suggested members. The chief instructional officer sends letters of invitation to the suggested members of the advisory committee who subsequently correspond with the appropriate divisional chairman.

6. When the curriculum has been established by the divisional chairmen, chief instructional officer (academic council), and advisory committee, it is submitted to the curriculum committee for its approval.
7. The proposed curriculum is next submitted to the divisional chairmen, chief executive officer and board of trustees for final approval.
8. If approval is given, the chief instructional officer submits the proposal to the State Department of Education.

Curricula Revision Procedures

1. The appropriate divisional chairman is responsible for submitting proposed revisions to the chief instructional officer. Each proposal is accompanied by a justification and normally the reaction of the advisory committee (an advisory committee is appointed for each curriculum, and serves for one year). Advisory committees are considered an integral part of curricula planning and evaluation and may include concerned members from the division and from the office of institutional research.
2. The chief instructional officer submits each proposal to the curriculum committee and the divisional chairmen (academic council).
3. If approved, the chief instructional officer notifies the catalog committee and the dean of student affairs of the revision. The divisional chairman who initiated the proposal is responsible to distribute copies of the final revision to members of the advisory committee.

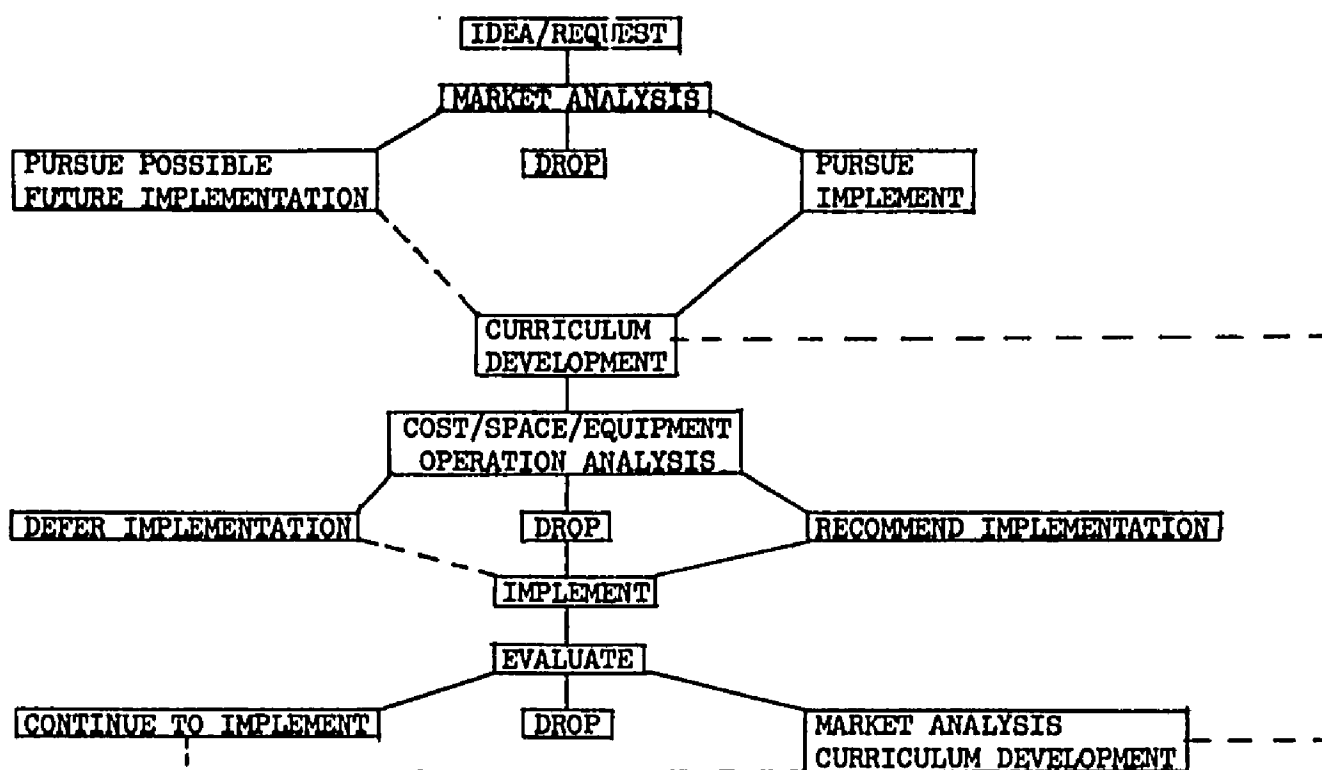
New or Revised Credit Courses

1. Proposals are submitted to the chief instructional officer.
2. The chief instructional officer meets with the originator of the proposal, appropriate division chairman or chairmen, and appropriate associate deans (academic council). A feasibility study is made.
3. If a favorable decision is reached, an assignee is given the responsibility of developing a course outline.
4. The advice of the advisory committee may be requested. If an advisory committee has not been created, one is formed.
5. When the course outline has been developed, the proposal is submitted to the divisional chairmen (academic council), curriculum committee, chief executive officer, and board of trustees.
6. If approved, the chief instructional officer notifies the catalog committee and the dean of student affairs. When appropriate, a description of the course is submitted to four-year institutions for their decision on the transferability of the course.

While circumstances modify the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made, the following pattern is inclusive and carefully ordered:

1. Program Concept
2. Professional Lay Committee
3. Curriculum Committee
4. Advisory Committee
5. Divisional/Discipline Staff
6. Academic Council
7. Curriculum Committee
8. College Administration
9. College Board of Trustees
10. Bureau of Higher Education
(Division of Vocational Education)
11. State Community College Board
12. State Board of Education

An educational program development flow-chart has been prepared on a transparency and is used by the chief instructional officer and others. It clearly demonstrates the process through which an idea or request passes to acceptance and through which it must, by evaluation, continue to pass for continued acceptance. It is reproduced on the following page.



Though some respondents were not aware of any college publication which set forth the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made and others thought them incomplete or inadequate (not self-explained) or obsolete, the hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₂ What are the various decision points in the process?

H₂ Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established.

Both a printed curriculum or program approval chart and information gathered from respondents through flow-charting the procedural (structural) process in curriculum decision making name the following decision points:

1. Chief Instructional Officer
2. Division/Discipline
3. Academic Council

4. Curriculum Committee
5. College Administration (Chief Executive Officer)
6. Board of Trustees

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₃ At which decision point are arguments favoring a curricular modification most carefully and minutely drawn?

H₃ The division evidences major control over curriculum development.

Divisional chairmen, together with the chief instructional officer, are responsible for preparing a preliminary evaluation of a proposal for a new curriculum. This evaluation must be based on the recommendations of the curriculum committee and available evidence. With the chief instructional officer, divisional chairmen determine the tentative curriculum for submission to the advisory committee and then to the curriculum committee for its approval. The proposal is returned to the divisional chairman before final submission to the chief executive officer.

The appropriate division chairman is responsible for submitting proposed curricula revisions, with their justification and the reaction of the advisory committee, to the chief instructional officer.

The feasibility of new or revised credit courses is decided by the divisional chairmen with the chief instructional officer and appropriate associate deans. These same officers appoint an assignee the task of developing a course outline. The divisional chairman arranges meetings of the advisory committee to the program. When the course outline has been prepared, it is submitted to him, then to the curriculum committee, chief executive officer, and board.

Respondents to this study acknowledge the interest and important role of the division in curricular matters and suggested that decisions are influenced by its behavior. Major control over curriculum development, however, was generally conceded to the chief instructional officer and his council and to the curriculum committee. The flow-charted structural process, as explained, demonstrates this control. Related questions in the interview substantiate it. Both the curriculum committee and the academic council request clarification, justification, or restudy by the division when necessary (q. 4.). Discussion of a proposal was considered longest in the curriculum committee and most detailed in the academic council (q. 6b). Control criteria were visualized most in evidence in the academic council (q. 7b), even though many of the decision-making process activities (q. 8) were carried out at the division level as well as in the curriculum committee.

Leadership in improving the curriculum (q. 17a), avoidance of a fragmented approach to curriculum development (q. 17c), balance of the total curriculum (q. 17e), evaluation of course objectives (q. 17f) and responsibility for all curricula (q. 17g, h, i, j, k) was generally reported as belonging to the chief instructional officer with his council. Similarly, the division was seldom mentioned by respondents as responsible for other notable curricula control activities about which they were asked (q. 17).

It is noted that the academic council is composed of the chief instructional officer, the dean of student affairs, the dean of community affairs and all divisional chairmen. In this respect, divisional control over curricular development can be considered as major. In the respect of the hypothesis to this study, however, the division, acting independently as a division, does not evidence major control and the hypothesis cannot be accepted.

RQ₄ Are written criteria specifically established at each decision point (other than the final point of acceptance/rejection) as a guide to the judgment of decision makers?

H₄ Criteria specifically written as a guide to the judgment of decision makers are not found at any decision point.

Respondents answered that no standard set of criteria were established or written (q. 7a, b), though general criteria were commonly understood. When asked whether divisions or departments each have a set of written objectives directly related to and consistent with institutional objectives (q. 20) and about their evaluation (q. 21), respondents agreed that such criteria were not yet written but soon would be. They agreed further that an evaluation of recognized criteria took place annually. The question was asked about criteria used in evaluating proposed and existing course offerings (q. 28a) and about the frequency of their evaluation (q. 28b). Many of the suggested criteria were checked and none were added. Written criteria were not spelled out, though existing courses were reported to be evaluated annually by criteria recognized or recognizable by evaluators.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₅ Is a systems analysis approach to problem solving (such as that described by Bushnell) used in the curricular decision-making process?

H₅ A curricular decision-making model which uses a systems analysis approach is not found in the colleges studied.

In the college's educational program development flow-chart, cited and reproduced in this Chapter, under examination of the studies' first hypothesis, a systems approach to curriculum development is outlined: (1) market analysis involves professional lay persons, the office of institutional research, questionnaires, staff-community encounters...;

(2) a favorable analysis leads to formulation of objectives--what is to be done and how it is to be done; (3) constraints are identified and overcome if possible, and resources (actual and potential) that will be needed are looked at carefully; (4) the proposal may be stopped, deferred, or recommended for implementation; (5) the proposal--the best possible, as seen--is implemented; (6) evaluation follows, and the process repeats itself as evaluation information directs.

Members of the academic council, the curriculum committee, and the division identified their involvement in the process coordinated through the office of the chief instructional officer. Some thought that the division or the academic council performed all the steps--they did not perceive the total plan of action--and others gave fuller credit than should have been ascribed to a decision-making group, e.g., the curriculum committee, other than the one with which they were most closely associated.

Nonetheless, the systems analysis process can be identified, and the hypothesis of this study, respecting this college, cannot be sustained.

RQ₆ Who is involved in the curricular decision-making process?

H₆ Everyone in the community, theoretically at least, is involved in the curricular decision-making process.

Without hesitation, all respondents answered to question 2 that any interested person or group could originate a curricular proposal.

Professional lay committees (community professionals in various occupations who are carefully chosen to advise in matters of occupational curriculum) and advisory committees (interested persons from the community or from within the college) are numerous in this college. Sources of information actually used by decision makers (q. 19) named not only

administration and faculty, but students, board members, the community through surveys and questionnaires and advisory committees, external consultants, neighboring community colleges, "feeder" high schools...

Involvement differs for each one, but it appears evident that in-put from every source is invited and often used.

This generally stated hypothesis is readily accepted.

RQ₇ What is the nature of their involvement?

H₇ Actual involvement in curriculum development is reserved to teaching faculty and administration.

Respondents identified the nature of participants' roles in the curricular decision-making process (q. 17). In the series of questions following, responsibilities, as they were identified, are noted by checking letters from the listing of participants named below:

- A. president or chief executive officer
- B. dean of instruction or chief instructional officer
- C. dean (director, coordinator...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer) programs
- D. dean (director, coordinator...) of occupational (technical, vocational...) programs
- E. dean (director, coordinator...) of community services
- F. divisional (or departmental) chairman
- G. curriculum committee
- H. faculty-at-large (e.g., senate)
- I. faculty through departmental meetings
- J. classroom teacher
- K. ad hoc committees when needed
- L. board

- a. leadership in stressing the value of improving the curriculum?
- b. exercising veto power?
- c. avoiding a fragmented approach to curriculum development (i.e., favoring certain segments slighting others)?

ABCDEFGHIJKL											
	B										
	AB									L	
	B				F						

- d. providing professional atmosphere favorable to faculty members in carrying out curriculum developmental endeavors?
- e. leadership and the properly balanced, successful operation of the total curriculum?
- f. evaluating course offerings in the light of college objectives with a view toward their improvement?
- g. transfer curriculum?
- h. occupational curriculum?
- i. general curriculum?
- j. remedial curriculum?
- k. continuing adult education?
- l. community service non-credit academic curriculum
- m. maintaining a general curriculum balance balance academic and occupational programs?
- n. selecting textbooks?
- o. recommending new teaching personnel?
- p. determining teacher assignments?
- q. evaluating institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purposes), as found in the catalog to assure accuracy in regard to programs, courses and services offered?
- r. preparing statement of institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purposes) for the college catalog?
- s. preparing statement of departmental objectives for the college catalog?
- t. preparation of program objectives for the college catalog?
- u. preparation of course description for the college catalog?

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	B				F			I			

Understanding actual involvement to exclude concept originators and resource persons who may be invited to lend assistance, involvement reduces to those identified above and to those whose participation is required and visible on the decision flow-chart. Professional lay committees and advisory committees are represented in the curricular decision-making process (q. 3), and counselors who are non-teaching faculty are also members of the curriculum committee.

Actual involvement in curricular development is therefore not limited to teaching faculty and administration and the hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₈ What is the balance of authority and control over curricular decisions between the administration and the faculty?

H₈ In matters of curricular decision, administration evidences a primacy of control over the faculty.

Respondents were asked to place their college, in matters of curricular decisions, on a control continuum extending from administrative dominance to faculty dominance with three mid-positions: administrative primacy, shared authority (the center position) and faculty primacy (q. 16). With few exceptions, check marks were placed on "shared authority." The exceptions placed their mark slightly to the right of the center, toward faculty primacy. Cross-questions related to the question of personal and group responsibility in curricular matters (q. 17) demonstrate a balance of power. In this college, divisional chairmen are considered members of the faculty. Were they in fact considered part of administration, the balance of control would swing heavily toward administrative primacy, if not control. Answers to probing questions (q. 17) demonstrated that divisional chairmen were responsible, or shared responsibility with

administration (without recognition of other faculty responsibility) over many of the matters related to curriculum and decisions affecting it. Specification of criteria for college admittance (q. 23-24) and for admittance into various curricula (q. 25) is likewise a shared responsibility in this college. These responsibilities are the faculty senates' and the academic councils'.

Faculty primacy is not evidenced and administrative primacy cannot be demonstrated. The hypothesis of this study, relating to this college, is rejected.

RQ₉ Do the deans (directors, coordinators...) of the academic (liberal arts, transfer...) curriculum and of the occupational (vocational, technical...) curriculum report to the same dean of instruction or chief instructional officer?

H₉ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of occupational (vocational, technical...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of credit-bearing continuing (adult) education programs report to the same single officer.

Continuing education credit-bearing courses are not distinguished from the academic and occupational programs in the college. Both the associate dean of general education (academic) and the associate dean of occupation programs report to the chief instructional officer. The dean of community affairs (services) does not provide credit-bearing programs or courses and he reports directly to the executive vice president.

Both the organization chart and replies from respondents (q. 18) cause the hypothesis to be accepted.

RQ₁₀ What importance is attached to the curriculum committee in curriculum development?

H₁₀ The curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development.

Data presented under the first and second hypothesis supported the procedural (flow-charted) process for making decisions about curricula. The need for approval of the curriculum committee for new curricula is stated in a written college procedure, and the important part filled by this council in curricula revision procedures and procedures for new or revised credit courses, while not clearly explained, is unquestioned.

After establishing the existence of a curriculum committee as a fact, several direct questions were addressed to respondents. To the first. (q. 11a)--whether the functions of the committee were clear (a) to the administrators, (b) to the faculty, (c) to the students, and (d) to the committee itself--a negative answer was received to each part, although one respondent mentioned that the committee's functions "were in the process of clarification."

A next question (q. 11b) asked whether the functions of the committee were acceptable to the same groups. One respondent affirmed that they were acceptable "only because the members are required to do what is required." Another felt that the committee "did the same thing as the academic council." Still another felt that the committee exercised an erstwhile power which has been seriously modified. Generally, respondents felt that the students knew nothing about the functions of the committee and that to administration, faculty and committee members the functions were not acceptable.

The curriculum committee (q. 12a) is composed of ten faculty members, five administrators, one member of the counseling staff and the academic dean, ex officio. Students are not represented. All, except the dean, enjoy voting rights. Faculty and counseling staff membership is officially selected by the faculty; members usually volunteer and then are appointed. Administrators are appointed by the chief executive officer.

The chief instructional officer serves on the committee though ex officio and without vote. He is considered influential in defending academic programs and doubtlessly is a heavy-weight in his persuasiveness.

The faculty senate executive committee appoints the chairman (q. 13) for a term of one year (renewable). He serves, with his committee, without compensatory time (released time) or special compensation (q. 14a, b). An excellent up-to-date and well-stocked library which contains current research findings related to curriculum development (q. 19b, c, d) is physically accessible, but factually remote. Lack of time and the burden of full teaching assignments limit the possibility of extensive reading and study by the members of the committee.

It is significant that of the twenty-one questions (q. 17) that searched out responsibility for each curriculum and matters related to curriculum, no respondent viewed the curriculum committee as sharing responsibility for any.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₁₁ Which groups, external to the college, place regulatory constraints on the curriculum?

H₁₁ Program accrediting associations and groups which control money flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints upon the curriculum.

Respondents were presented with a listing of groups, external to the college, which were thought to influence the curriculum. They were asked to place, in the blanks provided, a zero (0) if no influence was perceived, an "A" if the influence was perceived as advisory, an "I" if the influence was perceived as informational, an "S" if perceived as stimulating, and an "R" if they saw the influence as regulatory. The use of more than one letter, if desired, was acceptable.

A zero (0) rating was given the question which asked about the influence of a collective bargaining agency, for a negotiated contract has not been written in this college.

An (I) rating was given the Michigan Community College Association.

(A), (I), (S) ratings were given the State Board of Education, the State Legislature, the State Bureau of the Budget, the State Division of Vocational Education, and the North Central Accrediting Association.

(R) ratings were given the State Board of Nursing, the Educational Councils of the American Medical Association and the American Dental Association and senior colleges.

Reactions to further questioning about those rated (A), (I), (S) were fairly uniform and answers given hinged upon the definition of "regulatory." Respondents felt that regulatory meant coercive and that a denial of funds or the placeat of any group (i.e., "you may or may not") would not dictate decisions, and that "independence is a big thing." The State Division of Vocational Education can regulate qualifications of those who teach within a curriculum but cannot rule the curriculum itself nor demand its availability. Respondents from the occupation education area felt that their own interest in qualified instructors is no less than that required and no dearth of suitable instructors had yet been experienced.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected in part, for it erroneously assumed that groups which control money flow into the college exercise powers of regulation. It is accepted in part, for program accrediting associations are recognized as regulatory constraints upon the curriculum.

RQ₁₂ What sources of information are used by curricular decision makers?

H₁₂ Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed.

Eighteen sources of information were suggested to respondents (q. 19a), and they were asked to check those that were used by curricular decision makers. Three questions related to the curriculum library: its accessibility, its currency of relevant periodicals, and its provision of current research findings. Another question asked whether divisions subscribed to periodicals of their own. The remaining questions had more to do with functional information needed in the day-to-day operation of the college.

With few exceptions, respondents checked all sources of information as being used by curricular decision makers in their college. When asked who or what group was expected to keep abreast of research findings in curricular matters and in current literature (q. 19b), respondents named the various deans, divisional chairmen, and members of the curriculum committee. The office of institutional research conducts surveys and offers curriculum makers an ancillary service, each respondent explained.

The responsibility (q. 19c), however, was not specifically assigned to any one or any one group. Each person and each group, by the nature of his recognized involvement, was considered responsible. The hypothesis is accepted.

RQ₁₃ How are priorities chosen when needs are equal and resources limited?

H₁₃ When needs are equal and resources are limited, priorities are chosen pragmatically (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution).

Respondents were given ten considerations that could influence a decision and were asked to assign importance to them by forced choice, numbering them from 1-10 (q. 29a). Three of the questions had to do with gathering information (f, g, h), and were assigned the numbers 1, 5, and 6. Three were directed at matters of college concern for itself (c. i. j), and were assigned the numbers 2, 3, and 4. Two questions asked about simple

expediency (d, e), and were numbered 9 and 10. One question (b) investigated the availability of a program or course elsewhere or at a senior college. Respondents felt that competition for students was undesirable from the college's viewpoint but could influence a decision. It was assigned the 7th place.

A most important question asked about the relative benefit a new program or course would offer students (a). Respondents estimated this concern as being very important and explained that in assigning it a number of 8, it might not appear so. The interviewer was convinced of its importance in this college. Nonetheless, consideration of the college for itself as an institution was apparent. "In the real world," as one respondent noted, "it's the dollar that counts. If we can't make ends meet, we can't offer the community anything."

A follow-up question (29b) asked whether other considerations, in addition to those named, would be influential in bringing about a decision. None were added and the hypothesis is accepted.

RQ₁₄ In decisions related to non-credit community-need programs and courses, and in the establishment and implementation of community enrichment and cultural programs, what influence of the K-12 system in its community education efforts is found?

Three hypotheses have devolved from this question:

H₁₄ The community college views itself as a leading agency of community education.

H₁₅ Advisory boards to the community services division of the community college do not require qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest.

H₁₆ A unified relationship between the community service of the community college and the community education efforts of the K-12 system is not found.

Without hesitation or discussion, respondents answered affirmatively to the question whether the college viewed itself as a leading agency of community education (q. 30). Even apart from credit-bearing courses and an obvious position of educational importance in the community, an array of community services (academic non-credit programs and courses, cultural, enrichment, skill training, hobby teaching programs...) is available in this college and the hypothesis (14) is accepted.

After establishing the existence of advisory boards to the community services area (q. 31a), respondents were asked about the public school's community-education-interest representation on these boards (q. 31b). Several respondents thought that some inter-communication took place informally but all answered negatively, and the hypothesis of this study (H_{15}) is accepted.

The question relating to a unified relationship between the public schools and the community college in community education efforts (q. 32) was then discussed. Various attitudes were expressed, generally positive and favorable, but respondents either expressed doubt about such a relationship or replied that it did not exist. Informal communication was recognized, but a working together, a co-relationship in serving community needs was not found. The public schools and the community college retain a separateness, and the hypothesis (H_{16}) is accepted.

RQ₁₅ Are community service non-academic programs and courses integrated into the same decision-making process as credit-bearing courses or what in-put do they receive, prior to decision, from divisional or curriculum committee members?

RQ₁₆ What are the channels or steps a proposal for an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows to its final acceptance, modification, or rejection?

RQ₁₅ and RQ₁₆ generated a single hypothesis:

- H₁₇ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of community service divisions which offer non-credit academic courses and non-academic programs, courses or activities function without the approval of academic and occupational administration and faculty.

Responsibility for community service non-credit academic curriculum (q. 17, 1) and for all community service programs was assigned by all respondents to the dean of community affairs who is responsible to the executive vice president. The organization chart makes this same assignment clear.

In the printed procedures for non-credit courses (chief instructional officer's file), it is established that all proposals for non-credit courses are sent to the dean of community affairs and that he is responsible for determining the feasibility of proposed offerings and for making whatever arrangements that are necessary for their implementation. He informs the chief instructional officer of each proposal and its disposition.

The channels that an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows (flow-chart) to final acceptance, modification, or rejection are these:

Originating Source
Dean of Community Affairs
(Executive Vice President)
(Chief Executive Officer)

The final hypothesis of this study is accepted for this college.

Summary Remarks to the Study of College A

The study first flow-charted the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made in this college and established definite decision points. The relative importance of these points was discussed and the importance of the academic council highlighted. The

division and the curriculum committee were seen as important in the process but ancillary to the academic council.

Criteria as a guide to decision makers at each decision point are not written and this does not appear to be a problem for respondents. A systems analysis approach to problem solving is evidenced in this college. A vital approach to curriculum development was noted and involves professional lay advisors in addition to carefully selected advisory committees, faculty members, and administrators.

Those involved in curricular decision making were identified and the nature of their responsibilities noted. The curriculum committee's function is generally unclear and unacceptable, but both administrators and faculty are anxious to remediate the problems that are visible and acknowledged.

Authority/control over curricula matters is shared by administration and faculty. Uniformity of reporting, by both the associate dean of general education (academic) and the associate dean of occupational education, centralizes the knowledge of the chief instructional officer and provides against curriculum confusion and imbalance.

Program accrediting associations are alone viewed as external regulatory bodies which dictate curriculum and policy.

Curriculum decision makers have a wealth of source information available, and respondents thought that every source was used. Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature, however, is unassigned and assumed.

Priorities are chosen pragmatically when the need for several programs or courses are equal and resources force a limitation upon what can be offered.

The community service division functions almost as a separate entity in this college but does not offer credit programs or courses. Divisional in-put and reference to the curriculum committee is not necessary in its program/course offerings. The dean of community affairs does notify the chief instructional officer of all proposals for community service and their disposition as a help to him in maintaining an overview of college offerings.

The community service offerings of the community college and the community education offerings of the public school system are unrelated. Each functions apart from the other without sharing representation on its advisory boards. Informal communication often does occur, however, and an absence of competition and antipathy was noted.

The research questions of this study generated seventeen hypotheses. Of these, ten were accepted and six rejected. One was partially accepted and partially rejected.

COLLEGE B

- RQ₁ What is the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made?
- H₁ The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made is not set forth in any college publication.

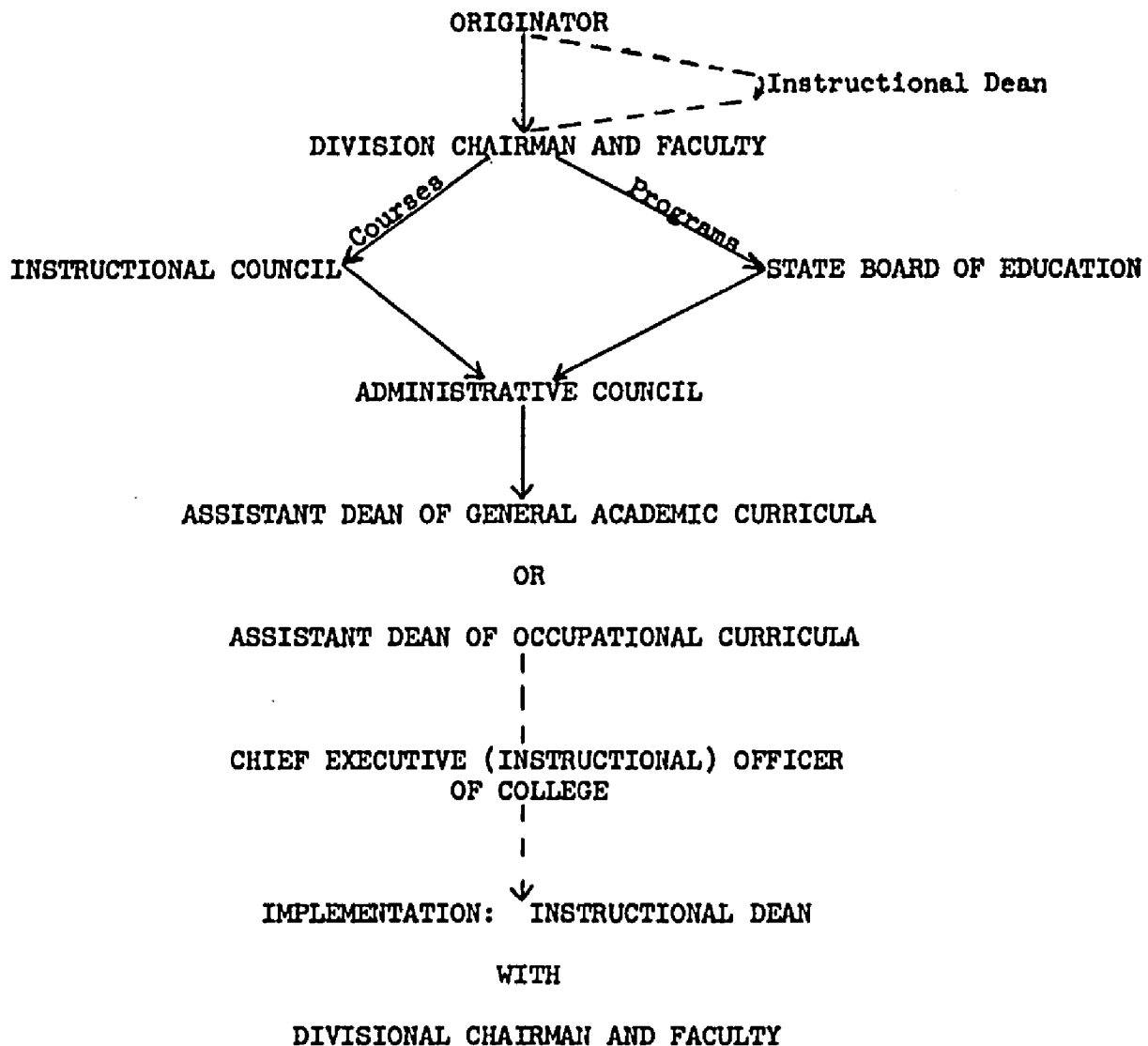
Under the chief executive officer are four assistant deans in each of the areas of general academic curricula, continuing education curricula, occupational education curricula and student services.

The college functions with nine divisions, each with a chairman. An instructional council is composed of the chairmen of each division, the three instructional assistant deans and the director of counseling. An administrative council is made up of the three instructional assistant

deans, the chief executive officer of the college, the registrar (who is also the director of institutional research), the business manager, and the assistant dean of student affairs.

In the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made, a proposal can originate with any interested person or group within or external to the college (q. 2).

Unless special circumstances (not identified) warrant immediate submission of a proposal to an instructional dean for an initial decision, a proposal receives first consideration at the divisional level. An advisory committee may be formed by the division and called to assist at this point. If the decision at this level is favorable, the proposal is sent to the instructional council, if a course is under consideration, or to the State Board of Education for its approval if a program is in question. The administrative council next considers the proposal with whatever modifications and recommendations accompany it. A proposal that is favored is then sent to the assistant dean of general academic curricula or the assistant dean of occupational education who can, for all practical purposes if he wishes, veto it. If he approves the proposal, notification is given the chief executive officer of the college who can but rarely does exercise his power of veto. The assistant deans, with the divisional chairman and interested faculty, implement successful proposals. The process is flow-charted on the following page.



The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made (q. 1) is not set forth in any college publication.

The hypothesis of this study, as related to College B, is accepted.

RQ₂ What are the various decision points in the process?

H₂ Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established.

From information given by respondents, the following decision points in the curricular decision-making process are named:

- (1. The Instructional Assistant Dean)
2. Division Chairman and Faculty
- 3a. Instructional Council (courses)
or
- 3b. State Board of Education (programs)
4. Administrative Council
5. The Instructional Assistant Dean
- (6. Chief Executive Officer of College)

The decision points in the procedural process are clearly established and the hypothesis is accepted.

RQ₃ At which decision point are arguments favoring a curricular modification most carefully and minutely drawn?

H₃ The division evidences major control over curriculum development.

Divisional chairmen and their faculty are responsible for preparing preliminary evaluation of a proposal for a new curriculum. While the flow-chart process (RQ₁, H₁) and the answers of respondents (RQ₂, H₂) demonstrate several decision points, the arguments forthcoming from the division are of great importance to decision makers at subsequent decision points. Chairmen of the college divisions serve also as members of the instruction council which considers course proposals. This council is by-passed for program proposals and divisions pass their favorable recommendations and arguments directly to the State Board of Education.

Regular proposal forms or formats as required by the State Board are used. Apart from these, none are found. Communication from one decision point to the next may involve both the spoken word and written recommendations. Divisional chairmen (and their faculty) place a proposal in motion, when they favor it, in a manner that is expeditious and acceptable. Requirements of the administrative council are met, or the council remands

the proposal back to the division for clarification, amplification, and/or restudy (q. 4).

Discussion and voting takes place at the divisional level and in the instructional and administrative council meetings. Respondents felt that discussion was ordinarily longest and most detailed in the divisional meetings (q. 6a, b).

General criteria are established for all divisions by the administrative council. Special criteria seem to reduce to divisional good judgment, considerations of job demand, a calculated gamble on the future, politics, and a sense of good timing (q. 7a, b). Respondents from the divisional level (i.e., including faculty) feel quite secure in gaining final approval of whichever proposals they make.

In searching out responsibility for providing information necessary for decision makers, the administrative council was recognized, as was the instructional council. The burden, however, is carried by the divisions even though they are not the court of final appeal (q. 8).

Twenty-one questions looked specifically for placement of responsibility over curricula and related matters and were addressed to the respondents of this study. In answering these questions, no one assigned complete responsibility to either the division or any group or person for any of them. The division was assigned shared responsibility, however, in nineteen of them. The questions ranged from leadership, curriculum balance, provision of professional atmosphere conducive to carrying out activities in curriculum development through responsibility for specific curriculum and their corollaries.

The divisions in College B evidence major control over curriculum development. The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₄ Are written criteria specifically established at each decision point (other than the final point of acceptance/rejection) as a guide to the judgment of decision makers?

H₄ Criteria specifically written as a guide to the judgment of decision makers are not found at any decision point.

Respondents answered that a standard set of criteria was neither written nor established at any decision point (q. 7a, b), though general criteria were established for all divisions by the administrative council. Nor do divisions have a set of written objectives directly related to and consistent with institutional objectives (q. 20), though such criteria are recognized. Evaluation of criteria, as recognized, takes place generally for accreditation reviews.

The question was asked about criteria used in evaluating proposed and existing course offerings (q. 28a) and about the frequency of their evaluation (q. 28b). Many of the suggested criteria were checked and none were added. Written criteria are not spelled out, though existing courses were reported to be evaluated at least every three years by criteria recognized or recognizable by evaluators.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₅ Is a systems analysis approach to problem solving (such as that described by Bushnell) used in the curricular decision-making process?

H₅ A curricular decision-making model which uses a systems analysis approach is not found in the colleges studied.

The several steps recognized as essential to a systems analysis approach to problem solving were identified for respondents (q. 8). The discussion that ensued between the interviewer and the respondents followed these steps, and an effort was made first to identify the persons or groups

making them and then the decision points in the process at which they were made.

Four decision points were examined: the divisional chairman and faculty, the instructional council, the administrative council, and the instructional assistant dean. The instructional dean analyzes and evaluates information brought to him and can veto a proposal. His function is to approve or disapprove or request additional information. The administrative council considers curriculum as one of its many areas of attention, and expects that a viable study has been done by the instructional council (regarding courses only, for programs are first considered by divisions and approved by the State Board of Education). The instructional council has no interest in programs and its membership studies the arguments and recommendations of the submitting division in matters of courses. The divisions are composed of a load-bearing faculty and chairman; these examine a proposal from whatever perspectives they may have (perhaps with the aid of an advisory committee) and approve it or not. A divisional chairman can send forward the request of a faculty member on his own judgment. Proposals sent forward by the divisional chairman are usually accepted unless pragmatic reasons, as seen by subsequent decision makers, block them.

Respondents were very college and student minded--obviously genuine and serious in their responsibilities. But a systems approach to decision making, such as that described by Bushnell and reviewed in Chapter II, was not found.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₆ Who is involved in the curricular decision-making process?

H₆ Everyone in the community, theoretically at least, is involved in the curricular decision-making process.

Each respondent answered that any interested person or group could originate a curricular proposal (q. 2) Sources of information actually used by decision makers (q. 19) named administrators, faculty, students, board members, advisory committees, external consultants, "feeder" high schools...

Involvement differs for each one, but it appears evident that in-put from every source is invited and often used.

This generally stated hypothesis is readily acceptable.

RQ₇ What is the nature of their involvement?

H₇ Actual involvement in curriculum development is reserved to teaching faculty and administration.

The nature of participants' roles in the curricular decision-making process was identified by respondents to this study (q. 17) In the series of questions following, responsibilities, as they were identified, are noted by checking letters from the listing of participants named below:

- A. president or chief executive officer
- B. instructional council
- C. dean (director, coordinator...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs
- D. dean (director, coordinator...) of occupational (technical, vocational...) programs
- E. dean (director, coordinator...) of community services
- F. divisional (or departmental) chairman
- G. curriculum committee
- H. faculty-at-large (e.g., senate)
- I. faculty through departmental meetings
- J. classroom teacher
- K. ad hoc committees when needed
- L. board
- M. registrar

- a. leadership in stressing the value of improving the curriculum?
- b. exercising veto power?
- c. avoiding a fragmented approach to curriculum development (i.e., favoring certain segments, slighting others)?
- d. providing professional atmosphere favorable to faculty members in carrying out curriculum developmental endeavors?
- e. leadership and the properly balanced, successful operation of the total curriculum?
- f. evaluating course offerings in the light of college objectives with a view toward their improvement?
- g. transfer curriculum?
- h. occupational curriculum?
- i. general curriculum?
- j. remedial curriculum?
- k. continuing adult education?
- l. community service non-credit academic curriculum?
- m. maintaining a general curriculum balance between academic and occupational programs?
- n. selecting textbooks?
- o. recommending new teaching personnel?
- p. determining teacher assignments?
- q. evaluating institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purposes), as found in the catalog to assure accuracy in regard to programs, courses and services offered?
- r. preparing statement of institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purpose) for the college catalog?

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A	C	D	E			I						

- s. preparing statement of departmental objectives for the college catalog?
- t. preparation of program objectives for the college catalog?
- u. preparation of course description for the college catalog?

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
A		C			F			I				
	B	C	D		F			I				
		C	D		F			I				

Understanding actual involvement to exclude concept originators and resource persons who may be invited to lend assistance, involvement reduces to those identified above and to those whose participation is required and visible on the decision flow-chart. An advisory committee may be appointed at the divisional level, but is optional, and serves as does a resource person when called. Divisions, the instructional council and the administrative council are made up of administrators and faculty. A curriculum committee (q. 10) is not found in this college.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

- RQ₈ What is the balance of authority and control over curricular decisions between the administration and the faculty?
- H₈ In matters of curricular decision, administration evidences a primacy of control over the faculty.

Respondents were asked to place their college, in matters of curricular decisions, on a control continuum extending from administrative dominance to faculty dominance, with three mid-positions: administrative primacy, shared authority (the center position) and faculty primacy (q. 16). With few exceptions, check marks were placed on "shared authority." The exceptions placed their mark slightly to the right of the center, toward faculty primacy. Cross-questions related to the question of personal and group responsibility in curricular matters (q. 17) demonstrate a balance

of power. In this college, divisional chairmen are considered members of the faculty. Were they in fact considered part of administration, the balance of control would swing heavily toward administrative primacy, if not control. Answers to probing questions (q. 17) demonstrated that divisional chairmen were responsible, or shared responsibility with administration (without recognition of other faculty responsibility), over many of the matters related to curriculum and decisions affecting it. Specification of criteria for college admittance (q. 23-24) and for admittance into various curricula (q. 25) is likewise a shared responsibility in this college. These responsibilities are the faculty senates' and the academic councils'.

Faculty primacy is not evidenced, and administrative primacy cannot be demonstrated. The hypothesis of this study, relating to this college, is rejected.

RQ₉ Do the deans (directors, coordinators...) of the academic (liberal arts, transfer...) curriculum and of the occupational (vocational, technical...) curriculum report to the same dean of instruction or chief instructional officer?

H₉ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of occupational (vocational, technical...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of credit-bearing continuing (adult) education programs report to the same single officer.

Assistant deans of general academic, of occupational curricula, and of continuing education report to the chief executive officer of the college who is also its chief instructional officer. The dean of continuing education heads up the adult high school, adult basic education, and community service programs. He also directs the evening college, which offers both credit and non-credit courses, at his own discretion. He consults with divisional chairmen if he wishes (seldom with the other deans),

for he is constrained by a collective bargaining regulation by which he must hire regular faculty if he is offering a regular, numbered catalog course.

The chief executive officer of the college, as the chief instructional officer, is thus able to maintain an overview of college offerings and thus, hopefully, eliminate confusion which could arise should an assistant dean by-pass the chief instructional officer and relate directly with his superior.

Both the organization chart and the replies from the respondents to this study (q. 18) cause the hypothesis to be accepted.

RQ₁₀ What importance is attached to the curriculum committee in curriculum development?

H₁₀ The curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development.

College B does not have a special committee or sub-committee for curriculum. Curriculum affairs are the concern of the divisions, the instructional council and the administrative council, as shown in the decision flow-chart and the accompanying data presented under the first and second hypotheses. The instructional council recognizes curriculum and its development as one of many responsibilities with which it is vested. Of the various standing committees in the curricular decision-making process, it most closely resembles a curriculum committee, and respondents think of it, among all committees, as the one chiefly responsible for curriculum. As has been noted already (H₁ and H₂), this council has no interest in programs (cf. flow-charted decision-making process under RQ₂ and H₂), but only in courses. Its membership is fifteen: the director of counseling,

the assistant deans of the general academic, occupational and continuing education curricula and eleven faculty members (each of the nine divisions are represented; one additional faculty member representing each of two programs), bringing the total to eleven. All members are appointed by the chief executive officer of the college and all, except the assistant deans (administrative), enjoy voting rights.

Understanding the role of the instructional council as being the prime committee concerned with and responsible for curricula, several direct questions were addressed to respondents. To the first (q. 11a)--whether the functions of the council were clear (a) to the administrators, (b) to the faculty, (c) to the students, and (d) to the council itself--it was generally accepted that the administrators and the council saw the functions as clear, but the students and many of the faculty did not.

The question was then asked whether the functions of the council were acceptable to the same groups. All respondents thought that they were to the administrators and were not to the students. Some of the council feel that they "are like rubber stamps, that their action can easily be vetoed, that they approve or disapprove curricula action as politically expedient." Noting that divisional chairmen are the clear majority in the council's membership, some of the faculty feel that their interests are not represented, for "divisional chairmen should be lined up with the administration." "Co-chairmen of the council are the assistant deans of the general academic and the occupational curricula, and their chairmanship is established ex officio (q. 13). According to one respondent, "they don't have the vote, but they don't need it."

Members of the council are given released time (one-fourth of their loads) and other special compensations for their service (q. 14a, b).

The curriculum library is well thought of (q. 19b, c, d), but periodicals received by the division are considered more practically useful to respondents in the occupational area.

The importance of the divisions in curricula decision making (H_3) has been observed. The importance of the divisional chairmen to the instructional council is noted in examining the twenty-one questions (q. 17) that searched out responsibility for each curriculum and matters related to curriculum. Respondents singled out the instructional council as being responsible for evaluating course objectives with a view toward their improvement, but in general estimated the value and strength of the instructional council as being the value and strength of the sum total of divisional chairmen who largely compose it.

The hypothesis of this study has to be rejected.

RQ₁₁ Which groups, external to the college, place regulatory constraints on the curriculum?

H₁₁ Program accrediting associations and groups which control money flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints upon the curriculum.

Respondents were presented with a listing of groups, external to the college, which were thought to influence the curriculum. They were asked to place, in the blanks provided, a zero (0) if no influence was perceived, an "A" if the influence was perceived as advisory, an "I" if the influence was perceived as informational, an "S" if perceived as stimulating and an "R" if they saw the influence as regulatory. The use of more than one letter, if desired, was acceptable.

A zero (0) rating was given the collective bargaining agent (at least for now!).

An (I) rating was given the Michigan Community College Association.

An (A), (I), (S) rating was given the North Central Accrediting Association.

An (A) and a modified (R) rating was given the State Legislature, State Bureau of the Budget and the State Division of Vocational Education. The (R) was modified, for respondents felt that control by these agencies was indirect or "pseudo." One respondent explained that "money comes from the legislature in three levels: general (for any needs), technical programs, and health-related programs. If these latter two are not approved, money is withheld." Another felt that the legislature demanded that three hours of political science be included in the curriculum, and saw as a "pseudo-constraint" the "success concept" of the legislature: "budget allocations come not from how many enter college, but from how many graduate...nor are E's counted..." (R) ratings were given the State Board of Education (relative to programs), the State Board of Nursing, the Educational Councils of the American Medical Association and the American Dental Association and transfer colleges and universities.

When questioned further about constraints placed by the North Central Accrediting Association and the state agencies, respondents maintained that the North Central was helpful, not domineering, and that state agencies could recommend and could persuade, but could not, at this time, actually regulate. It appeared to the interviewer that any "requirement" of a state agency, as expressed until now, either voiced "the college mind" or was at least seen as non-threatening.

The interviewer felt, in addition, that a "modified regulatory agency" was, in fact, seen as a regulatory agency which assumed a control that respondents did not wish to relinquish. "Indirect-" or "pseudo-"control is nonetheless real control.

The decision flow-chart, and replies elsewhere from respondents, makes clear that all programs, before they proceed from the division to subsequent decision points within the college, are submitted to the State Board of Education for approval or rejection.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₁₂ What sources of information are used by curricular decision makers?

H₁₂ Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed.

Eighteen sources of information were suggested to respondents (q. 19a), and they were asked to check those that were used by curricular decision makers. Three questions related to the curriculum library: its accessibility, its currency of relevant periodicals and its provision of current research findings. Another question asked whether divisions subscribed to periodicals of their own. The remaining questions had more to do with functional information needed in the day-to-day operation of the college.

With few exceptions, respondents checked all sources of information as being used by curricular decision makers in their college. When asked who or what group was expected to keep abreast of research findings in curricular matters and in current literature (q. 19b), respondents named the instructional assistant deans, divisional chairmen, and the registrar (who directs the office of institutional research).

The responsibility (q. 19c), however, was not specifically assigned to any one or any one group. Each person and each group, by the nature of his recognized involvement, was considered responsible.

The hypothesis is accepted.

RQ₁₃ How are priorities chosen when needs are equal and resources limited?

H₁₃ When needs are equal and resources are limited, priorities are chosen pragmatically (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution).

Respondents were given ten considerations that could influence a curricular decision and were asked to assign importance to them by forced choice, numbering them from 1-10 (q. 29a). Three of the questions had to do with gathering information (f, g, h) and were assigned an importance of 7, 8, and 9. Three were directed at matters of college concern for itself (c, i, j) and were rated 1, 2, and 3. Two questions asked about simple expediency (d, e) and were numbered 4 and 10. One question (b) investigated the availability of a program or course elsewhere or at a senior college. The influence of such competition was rated 6.

A most important question asked about the relative benefit a new program or course would offer students (a). Respondents expressed keen regard for this influence as an ideal, and the interviewer was convinced that all respondents were student-minded. The pressure of other considerations, however, pushed this influence into 5th place.

No additional influences for bringing about a decision were named (q. 29b). The hypothesis of this study, as related to College B, is accepted.

RQ₁₄ In decisions related to non-credit community-need programs and courses, and in the establishment and implementation of community enrichment and cultural programs, what influence of the K-12 system in its community education efforts is found?

Three hypotheses have devolved from this question:

H₁₄ The community college views itself as a leading agency of community education.

- H₁₅ Advisory boards to the community services division of the community college do not require qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest.
- H₁₆ A unified relationship between the community service of the community college and the community education efforts of the K-12 system is not found.

Except for a single respondent, all affirmed that their college was certainly a leading agency of community education. Community service programs are of many kinds (cultural, enrichment, skill training, hobby training...) and the evening school offers courses and programs, both non-credit and credit-bearing to all interested persons. Hypothesis 14 is accepted.

Advisory boards to the community services area are available and optional (q. 31a). Advice is sought by the dean of continuing education, when he feels it can be useful, from whichever source he chooses within and external to the college.

Qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest is not required (q. 32) and hypothesis 15 is accepted. Nonetheless, inter-communication between the responsible persons representing the various educational levels does occur, at least informally.

In discussion with respondents relative to a unified relationship between the community college and the public schools in community education efforts (q. 32), the interviewer observed a defensiveness and a feeling of antipathy toward the community education efforts in the public schools. Some respondents felt that both systems went their own way, others noted jealousy at times, others saw no real unified relationship. One respondent thought that inter-communication was good and that certainly no ill feelings existed among the principals at any education level. A working together, a co-relationship in serving community needs had not

been developed, according to respondents, generally. A separateness, "since the college doesn't want to be viewed as a glorified high school," as one respondent felt, was maintained.

Hypothesis 16 of this study is accepted.

RQ₁₅ Are community service non-academic programs and courses integrated into the same decision-making process as credit-bearing courses or what in-put do they receive, prior to decision, from divisional or curriculum committee members?

RQ₁₆ What are the channels or steps a proposal for an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows to its final acceptance, modification, or rejection?

RQ₁₅ and RQ₁₆ generated a single hypothesis:

H₁₇ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of community service divisions which offer non-credit academic courses and non-academic programs, courses or activities function without the approval of academic and occupational administration and faculty.

The evening college, which offers both credit and non-credit courses, is directed by the assistant dean of community education. This same dean is responsible for and directs special programs, community service programs, adult basic education programs and the adult high school.

The assistant dean of continuing education reports directly to the chief executive officer of the college. He consults with divisional chairmen as he wishes--less often with the other assistant deans--and is constrained only by a collective bargaining agreement that causes him to employ members of the regular faculty to teach credit-bearing courses that are named, described and numbered in the regular college catalog.

The channels that credit-bearing and non-credit programs and courses (evening school), and community service programs, adult basic education and adult high school programs follow (flow-chart) to final acceptance, modification, or rejection are these:

Originating Source
Assistant Dean of Continuing Education
(Chief Executive Officer)

The final hypothesis of this study, related to College B, is accepted.

Summary Remarks to the Study of College B

The study first flow-charted the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made in this college and established definite decision points. The relative importance of these points were discussed and the importance of the divisions highlighted. The instructional council was seen as important, and though it has many responsibilities in this college, it functions also as a surrogate curriculum committee. Its membership includes the divisional chairmen (9), two program representatives, the director of counseling and the three instructional assistant deans. The administrative council is made up of the college chief executive officer, instructional assistant deans, the registrar (who also directs institutional research), the dean of student services, and the business manager. This council is the most important decision-making body, functioning as "the president's cabinet," and it reviews curricular matters brought to it by the instructional council (in the case of courses) or the divisions, via the State Board of Education (in the case of programs).

Written criteria as a guide to decision makers are not found at any decision point, though general criteria for each division are established by the administrative council.

A systems analysis approach to problem solving was not evidenced in this college. The burden of curriculum development (additions, modifications, and drops) belongs to the division, though the responsibility for

decisions is shared by the instructional and administrative councils and the instructional assistant deans. Decision making, in curricular matters, appears somewhat informal, despite the formal functional procedural structure, and seems to evidence a low-pressure fellowship type of association among administrators (all of whom have come up the ranks from teaching positions in this same college) and faculty.

Those involved in curricular decision making are identified, and the nature of their responsibilities noted. The functions of the instructional council, as a surrogate curriculum committee, are clear to the administrators and to the council members--not so clear to many of the faculty and not understood at all by students. Respondents feel that the functions of this council, re curricular matters, were acceptable to the administrators. The functions are not entirely acceptable to the members of the council or to the faculty, and the students are not aware of them.

Curricular decisions are pre-eminently and practically the exclusive prerogative of the administration and teaching faculty. In-input from other sources, especially in the origination of proposals and through surveys and advisement, involvement of the whole community is invited. Authority/control over curricular matters is shared by administration and faculty. All assistant deans report to the chief executive officer of the college (the chief instructional officer) as a provision against curriculum confusion and imbalance.

A special committee or sub-committee with responsibility for curriculum development is not formed in this college. The instructional council, in exercising this responsibility among many others, is not seen as bearing a major role in curriculum development.

Regulatory bodies which influence the curriculum are both program accrediting associations and the State Board of Education, Legislature, Bureau of the Budget and Division of Vocational Education.

Curriculum decision makers have an abundance of source information available, though respondents acknowledged that many of these sources were, in fact, not used as they might be. Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature, however, is unassigned and assumed.

Priorities are chosen pragmatically when the need for several programs or courses are equal and resources force a limitation upon what can be offered.

Under an assistant dean of continuing education, special programs, community service programs, adult basic educational programs and the adult high school are organized. The evening college, directed by the same dean, offers both credit and non-credit courses and programs. Divisional in-put and reference to the instructional council is not necessary in its program/course offerings. The assistant dean reports to the dean of the college and accounts to no other official. The chief executive officer of the college maintains an overview of college offerings by these reports and by the direct reports from the instructional deans and the dean of student services.

The college sees itself as a leading agency of community education. Advisory boards to the community service division do not require representation from the public school community education interest, nor is a unified relationship in common community interests evident between the community college and the various other educational levels. Good feeling, but disinterestedness and separateness characterize the existing relationship.

The research questions of this study generated seventeen hypotheses. Of these fifteen were accepted and two rejected.

COLLEGE C

RQ₁ What is the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made?

H₁ The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made is not set forth in any college publication.

Overall responsibility for the instructional program rests with the chief instructional officer. Two other deans--for student affairs and for business affairs--with him report directly to the chief executive officer. The organization chart of this college clearly separates the responsibilities of each dean.

Two associate deans report to the chief instructional officer. One is responsible for library learning resources, the other for occupational curricula. Directly reporting also to the chief instructional officer are three coordinators of community service projects (adult education and short courses, industrial activities, business and professional activities). Likewise reporting directly to the chief instructional officer are three divisional directors.

Among other responsibilities, the chief instructional officer (1) recommends to the chief executive officer employment, promotion and retention of academic administrators and instructional personnel, (2) provides leadership to inspire the highest quality of teaching, (3) provides a wide selection of programs and courses of study suitable to meet the needs of students of the college and of the community, (4) serves as chairman of the instructional affairs council and as a member of the coordinating and

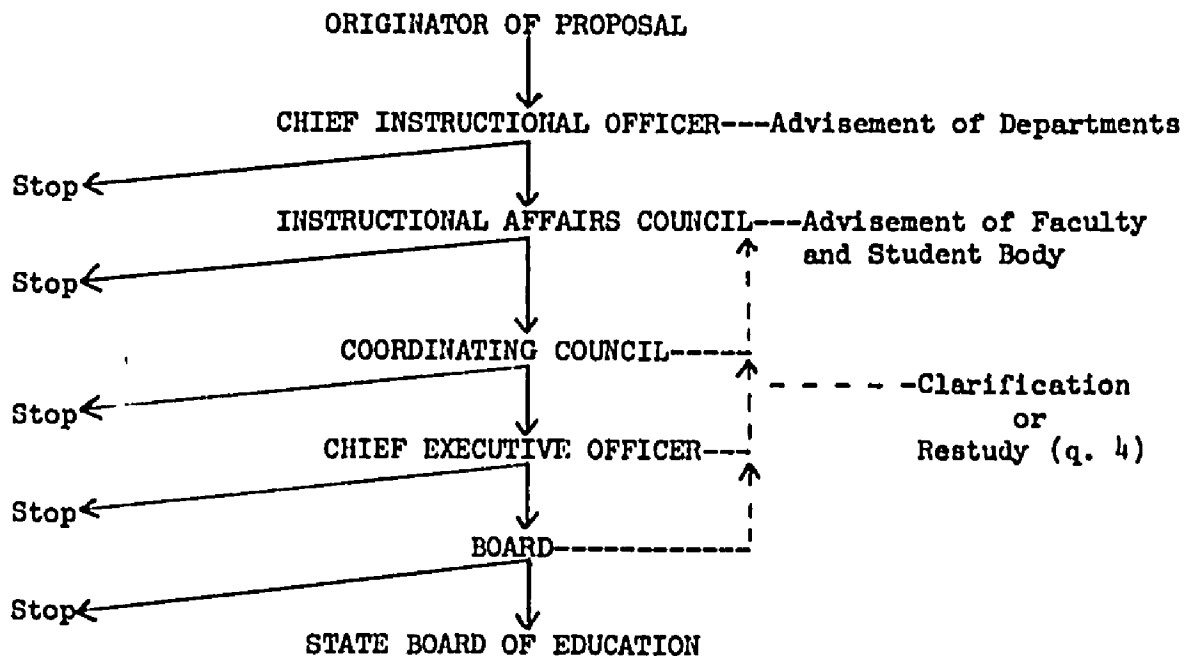
business affairs councils, (5) supervises and coordinates duties and responsibilities of deans of academic affairs, vocational-technical education and directors of adult education, library and audio-visual media.

Program and course proposals, which may originate anywhere and by any interested person (q. 2) are sent to him for an initial decision. Three divisions function in this college. Incumbent directors are either newly appointed or the directorship is still to be filled. These officers, clearly administration, will fill an important role in initial decisions in the future; at present, departmental chairmen assist in curriculum development and decision making on their own initiative or as directed by the chief instructional officer.

A proposal that is tentatively favorable, or is at least not stopped, is sent by the chief instructional officer to the instructional affairs council--the most important of several college councils and the most responsive. A regular format, which differs for each proposal, expresses considerations in performance objective terms (q. 5). The instructional council is chaired by the chief instructional officer and has presently as members seven faculty members (elected by the faculty association) representing the divisions and three students elected by student government. The instructional affairs council identifies, investigates, reviews and recommends policy and procedural matters that relate to the instructional affairs of the college. The council considers programs, courses, credit and non-credit classes both in regard to the academic programs and the community at large. Proposals are published for the entire faculty and student body, and their responses and reactions are invited by the instructional council. Favorable proposals are sent to the coordinating council.

The college chief executive officer serves as chairman of the coordinating council. Serving with him are the chief instructional officer, the chairman of business affairs and of student affairs, and the presidents of the faculty association and student government.

An acceptable proposal goes to the office of the chief executive officer where, at least by inaction, he can cause it to die. Of, if his judgment is favorable, he submits it to the board and then, if necessary, to the State Board of Education (q. 3).



No single publication explains the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made (q. 1), though such an explanation is under preparation at present and is to be incorporated into the faculty handbook.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₂ What are the various decision points in the process?

H₂ Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established.

The decision points are evident from the flow-chart of the procedural (structural) process described under H_1 . They are clearly established in written form and made public through a college manual possessed by all administrators and faculty and available to students and other interested parties. The decision flow is not evident in printed form, but is being planned for inclusion in the faculty handbook. Each respondent easily identified the decision points:

1. Chief Instructional Officer
2. Instructional Affairs Council
3. Coordinating Council
4. Chief Executive Officer
5. Board

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₃ At which decision point are arguments favoring a curricular modification most carefully and minutely drawn?

H₃ The division evidences major control over curriculum development.

Questions 6a and 6b delved into learning at which decision point the real work preparatory to furthering a decision to finality was done and to help establish the hypothesis. In College C, discussion is part of normal procedure at every decision point, but voting has no place, for the consensus model obtains everywhere below the board level. Consensus is not interpreted as meaning unanimity, and, unless there appears to be no defensible objection, an adamant contrary voice would be over-ruled. The model is not taken lightly, however, and is understood to be practical unanimity.

The instructional affairs council in this college unequivocally evidences major control over curriculum development. Discussion surrounding questions 6a and 6b evidenced uniform understanding by all respondents. The chief instructional officer, alone or through this council, exercises total control over the curriculum. He is responsible for a preliminary evaluation of a proposal. Instructional matters referred to the instructional affairs council are referred by him. He chairs the council. This council serves the functions of a surrogate curriculum committee, for a separate curriculum committee has not been established in this college. The chief instructional officer decides the feasibility of new or revised credit courses. He may act alone or through/with the instructional affairs council. His is a major role, and the council he heads, as is further evidenced in cross-questions 4, 7, 8 and the multi-parted 17, unquestionably exercises major control over curriculum development.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₄ Are written criteria specifically established at each decision point (other than the final point of acceptance/rejection) as a guide to the judgment of decision makers?

H₄ Criteria specifically written as a guide to the judgment of decision makers are not found at any decision point.

Definite criteria are established, respondents reported (q. 7a) at three levels: chief instructional officer, instructional affairs council, and board. Written criteria are not found at any decision point (q. 7b). When asked whether divisions or departments each have a set of written objectives directly related to and consistent with institutional objectives (q. 20) and about their evaluation (q. 21), respondents expressed doubt. Most agreed, however, that for all practical purposes they were not, and that the divisions and/or departments showed little concern for

evaluation which was done regularly by the chief instructional officer. Such does not intend to indicate apathy in the divisions and departments--not evidenced at all, in any way--but to place recognition of responsibility. The question was asked about criteria used in evaluating proposed and existing course offerings (q. 28a) and about the frequency of their evaluation. Criteria that were mentioned as guiding decisions were pragmatic: number of qualified students interested and adequacy of resources, facilities and equipment. Practicality/utility of the course and community needs are evaluated by the internal criteria of the chief instructional officer. Evaluation of existing courses, according to respondents, was a perfunctory (never really meaningful) annual expectation.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

- RQ₅ Is a systems analysis approach to problem solving (such as that described by Bushnell) used in the curricular decision-making process?
- H₅ A curricular decision-making model which uses a systems analysis approach is not found in the college studied.

Respondents were given a listing of the steps considered essential in a systems analysis approach to problem solving and were asked at which decision points, if any, the various activities were carried out. Respondents, generally speaking, had not considered these steps before and voiced hesitance in answering. Everyone agreed that departments were "great information feeders" into the instructional affairs council in which the departmental representative defended departmental considerations. The instructional affairs council considers and evaluates alternative decisions, the chief executive officer and chief instructional officer identify any constraints that might limit freedom of decision, and the selected alternative is implemented by the chief instructional officer personally, or by the department, under his direction.

The approach to decision making is difficult to estimate. No evidence of a systems analysis approach was either apparent or discovered. Collaborative administrative intelligence and intuition seemed the understanding of some respondents and is that perceived by the interviewer.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₆ Who is involved in the curricular decision-making process?

H₆ Everyone in the community, theoretically at least, is involved in the curricular decision-making process.

Any interested person or group can originate a curricular proposal (q. 2), according to respondents. Advisory committees are appointed to every program. When asked what sources of information were used by curricular decision makers, faculty, administrators, students and a neighboring community college were significant responses.

Respondents indicated, in discussion, that in-put from every source internal and external to the college was invited and often used. The evident community college-mindedness of administration indicates that the estimation of the respondents is accurate.

This generally stated hypothesis is readily accepted.

RQ₇ What is the nature of their involvement?

H₇ Actual involvement in curriculum development is reserved to teaching faculty and administration.

Respondents identified the nature of participant's roles in the curricular decision-making process (q. 17). In the series of questions following, responsibilities, as they were identified, are noted by checking letters from the listing of participants named below. The instructional affairs council is named several times with the chief instructional officer.

- h. occupational curriculum?
- i. general curriculum?
- j. remedial curriculum?
- k. continuing adult education?
- l. community service non-credit academic curriculum?
- m. maintaining a general curriculum balance between academic and occupational programs?
- n. selecting textbooks?
- o. recommending new teaching personnel?
- p. determining teacher assignments?
- q. evaluating institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purposes), as found in the catalog to assure accuracy in regard to programs, courses and services offered?
- r. preparing statement of institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purpose) for the college catalog?
- s. preparing statement of departmental objectives for the college catalog?
- t. preparation of program objectives for the college catalog?
- u. Preparation of course description for the college catalog?

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
h.	B													
i.	B													
j.	B												M	
k.	B													
l.	B													
m.	B													
n.	B							I						
o.	AB													
p.	B							H						
q.	B													
r.	B													
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u.									I					

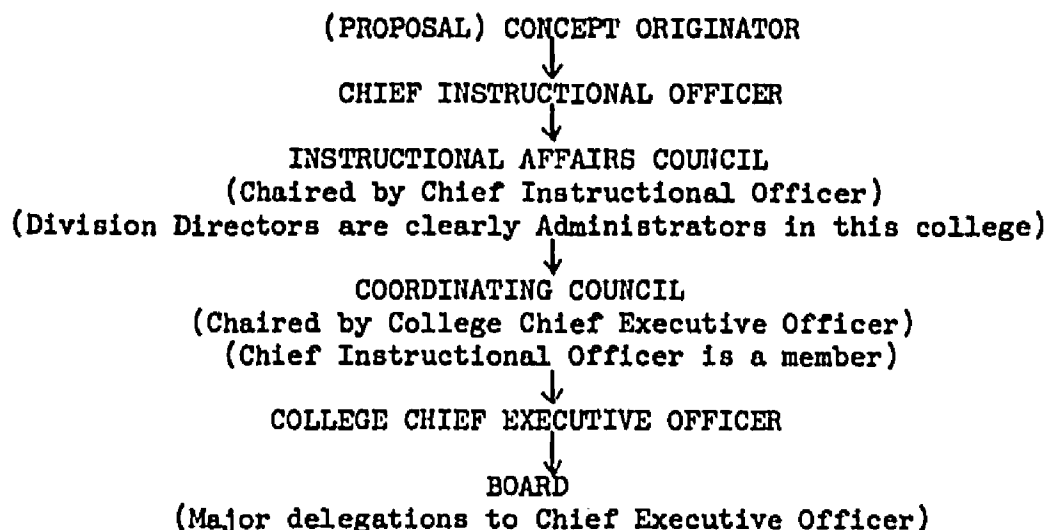
Understanding actual involvement to exclude concept originators and resource persons who may be invited to lend assistance, involvement reduces to those identified above and to those whose participation is required and visible on the flow-chart.

Three students are members of the instructional affairs council, and the coordinating council includes the chairmen of business affairs and student affairs and the president of the student government, none of whom are teaching faculty.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected.

- RQ₈ What is the balance of authority and control over curricular decisions between the administration and the faculty?
- H₈ In matters of curricular decision, administration evidences a primacy of control over the faculty.

Respondents were asked to place their college, in matters of curricular decision, on a continuum extending from administrative dominance to faculty dominance, with three mid-positions: administrative primacy, shared authority (in center position) and faculty primacy (q. 16). Respondents placed their check marks to the left of the center position at various points, the common denominator of which is administrative primacy. Cross-questions verify their judgment. The decision flow-chart is repeated, for the purpose, with meaningful notations.



Even though published literature, some of which perhaps references future development, speaks of democratic governance, the statement that "the chief instructional officer, the chief executive officer, and the board runs this college" appeared grounded in fact. The data reported under the seventh hypothesis is substantiating (q. 17, multi-parted).

The board determines criteria for college admittance (q. 23-24). Administrative primacy, if not dominance, is evident in College C. The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

- RQ₉ Do the deans (directors, coordinators...) of the academic (liberal arts, transfer...) curriculum and of the occupational (vocational, technical...) curriculum report to the same chief instructional officer?
- H₉ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of occupational (vocational, technical...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of credit-bearing continuing (adult) education programs report to the same single officer.

The chief instructional officer has been identified with each of these positions and their corollary responsibilities (cf. data under hypothesis 7). All positions under the chief instructional officer are staff positions. The organization chart verifies responses of respondents. The overview of the chief instructional officer ensures against curricula confusion and imbalance.

Continuing education credit-bearing courses are not distinguished from the regular academic or occupational curricula.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

- RQ₁₀ What importance is attached to the curriculum committee in curriculum development?
- H₁₀ The curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development.

A special committee or sub-committee for curricular matters is not found in this college. The instructional affairs council, assigned many responsibilities, recognizes curricula as one of them. Membership is

eleven. The faculty association appoints seven members to this council and the student government three. The council is chaired by the chief instructional officer (q. 12a). "Anyone who attends a meeting becomes a member for the duration of the meeting, for there is no voting, only consensus!"

The functions of this council appear clear to administrators, faculty, students and members (q. 11a), but acceptable only to administrators (q. 11b). The council meets every week, but curricula matters are not necessarily discussed, for the council has many other concerns. The chairman is appointed by college policy (it used to be elective), and his term is indefinite (q. 13). Neither released time nor special compensation are given members (q. 14a, b). The chairman is considered most powerful in controlling the council.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₁₁ Which groups, external to the college, place regulatory constraints on the curriculum?

H₁₁ Program accrediting associations and groups which control money flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints on the curriculum.

Respondents were presented with a listing of groups, external to the college, which were thought to influence the curriculum. They were asked to place, in the blanks provided, a zero (0) if no influence was perceived, an "A" if the influence was perceived as advisory, an "I" if the influence was perceived as informational, an "S" if perceived as stimulating, and an "R" if they saw the influence as regulatory. The use of more than one letter, if desired, was acceptable.

An (I) rating was given the Michigan Community College Association.

An (A) (R) rating was given the North Central and Program Accrediting Associations and the State Board of Nursing.

An (R) rating was assigned the State Board of Education (including the State Community College Board), the collective bargaining agency in some regards, the State Legislature, the State Bureau of the Budget, and the State Division of Vocational Education.

The hypothesis of this study is rejected.

RQ₁₂ What sources of information are used by curricular decision makers?

H₁₂ Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed.

The college does not have an office of institutional research. It does have an excellent, up-to-date curriculum library (q. 19b, c, d), but its utility is questioned, for time constraints and teaching responsibilities leave little opportunity for its use. Resources used by curricular decision makers are named by respondents: library, faculty members, students, administrators, a neighboring community college. Periodicals that are used by divisions and departments are subscribed to and directed to them by the chief instructional officer. Student personnel follow-up of students who have graduated or withdrawn is considered "worthless." Other vocational-technical schools represent "pure competition" rather than resources for information. Community surveys and studies are considered "worthless, involving too many variables, justifying only what you want them to say."

It is significant that of the twenty-one questions (q. 17) (actually eighteen, for three were unassigned) that searched out responsibility for each curriculum and matters related to curriculum, the instructional affairs council was named three times, each time with the chief

instructional officer, and the chief instructional officer by himself fifteen times. Respondents generally felt that divisional or departmental directors and members of the instructional affairs council especially should keep abreast of research findings in curricular matters and in current literature. The responsibility is assumed, however, and unassigned. The interviewer would assume it to be primarily, if not exclusively, that of the chief instructional officer.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₁₃ How are priorities chosen when needs are equal and resources limited?

H₁₃ When needs are equal and resources are limited, priorities are chosen pragmatically (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution).

Respondents were given ten considerations that could influence a decision and were asked to assign importance to them by forced choice, numbering them from 1-10 (q. 29a). Three of the questions had to do with gathering information (f, g, h); three were directed at matters of college concern for itself (c, i, j); two questions were asked about simple expediency (d, e). One question (b) investigated the availability of a course or program elsewhere or at a senior college, and one asked about the relative benefit a new program or course would offer students.

Answers were not given by forced choice, as the interviewer agreed, for several of the suggested choices either did not apply (e.g., there is no office of institutional research (f), no nearby senior college (b) or were totally unacceptable (the expediency questions d and e). They were given in the following manner in an early interview, and questions were phrased accordingly with all respondents:

First level of importance: commitment of the college to serve community needs; political expediency

Second level: information from advisory boards

Third level: number of students interested who could benefit

Fourth level: use of consultants or experts

The community service, community-mindedness of the college was evidenced in discussion of this question. Nonetheless, political expediency outranked other considerations and looked to the college's welfare first.

The hypothesis of this study is accepted.

RQ₁₄ In decisions related to non-credit community-need programs and courses, and in the establishment and implementation of community enrichment and cultural programs, what influences of the K-12 system in its community education efforts is found?

Three hypotheses have devolved from this question.

H₁₄ The community college views itself as a leading agency of community education.

H₁₅ Advisory boards to the community services division of the community college do not require qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest.

H₁₆ A unified relationship between the community service efforts of the community college and the community education efforts of the K-12 system is not found.

Without hesitance, respondents answered affirmatively to the question whether the college viewed itself as a leading agency of community education (q. 30). Even apart from credit-bearing courses and an obvious position of educational importance in the community, an array of community services (academic non-credit programs and courses, cultural, enrichment, skill training, hobby teaching programs...) is available in this college and the hypothesis (14) is accepted.

Most community service programs have advisory boards (q. 31a). When respondents were asked about the public schools' community-education interest representation on these boards (q. 31b), they answered in the negative, agreeing that in their geographical area the public schools provided too little an opportunity in community educational programs and could not be helpful. Hypothesis (15) is accepted.

Continuing the discussion on the community services of the college and the community education efforts of the public schools, it was explained that community education was not sufficiently developed in the public schools of the area to expect a cooperative enterprise with the community services of the college in a joint effort to meet community needs (q. 32). Nor has the college taken a lead in helping the public schools develop community education programs. Neither the college nor the public schools have considered one another as potential partners in a common goal and a separateness of efforts continues.

The hypothesis of this study (16) is accepted.

RQ₁₅ Are community service non-academic credit programs and courses integrated into the same decision-making process as credit-bearing courses or what in-put do they receive, prior to decision, from divisional or curriculum committee members?

RQ₁₆ What are the channels or steps a proposal for an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows to its final acceptance, modification, or rejection?

RQ₁₅ and RQ₁₆ generated a single hypothesis.

H₁₇ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of community service divisions which offer non-credit academic courses and non-academic programs, courses or activities function without the approval of academic and occupational administration and faculty.

Community services do not offer academic credit-bearing programs or courses, although some participants do transfer to credit programs and

courses as a result of interest and/or ability acquired through a community service offering. Plans in the college are to place credit-bearing courses in the evening hours, but these will not be (or will no longer be) a function of community services but of the regular academic or occupational curricula.

Responsibility for community service non-credit academic curriculum (q. 17, 1) and for all community service programs belongs to the chief instructional officer (and his staff). The organization chart, in addition to remarks of respondents and data already presented, makes this responsibility clear.

The chief instructional officer, with his staff, determines the feasibility of proposed offerings and makes whatever arrangements that are necessary for their implementation.

The channels that an academic non-credit program or course offered by community services follows (flow-chart) to final acceptance, modification, or rejection are these:

Originating Source

Chief Instructional Officer

(College Chief Executive Officer)--Advice or notification

Since the chief instructional officer directs not only community services, but academic and occupational curricula as well, the hypothesis of this study has to be rejected.

Summary Remarks to the Study of College C

The study first flow-charted the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made in this college, and established definite decision points. The relative importance of these points was

discussed, and the importance of the instructional affairs council highlighted. The coordinating council was seen to resemble a president's cabinet where decisions of the instructional affairs council were reviewed. Divisions and departments assist the chief instructional officer in diagnosing problems and in formulating program and course objectives and are represented on the instructional affairs council.

General education requirements are clearly established in written form and transfer requirements are carefully observed. Criteria as a guide to decision makers at the decision points are not written, and a systems analysis approach to problem solving was not evidenced in this college. Problem solving (decision making) appeared the result of administrative intellectual collaboration and intuition; advisory committees serve each program.

The institutional affairs council exercises the major role in curriculum development. This council includes the chief instructional officer as chairman, seven faculty members elected by the faculty association and three students elected from student government. Everyone in the community is involved in curricular decisions but their involvement is either as a proposal originator or through advisory committees or the board.

Actual involvement of non-administrative, non-teaching faculty in curricular decisions includes students (instructional affairs council), the chairmen of business affairs and student affairs and the presidents of the faculty association and student government (coordinating council).

The functions of the instructional council (surrogate curriculum committee) are generally clear to administrators, faculty, students and members, but acceptable only to administration.

Authority/control over curricula matters shows administrative primacy. The chief instructional officer, responsible for all curricula, and the college chief executive officer exert total control over curricula matters.

Program accrediting associations, as also the North Central Accrediting Association, place regulatory constraints on the curriculum. State departments likewise impose certain regulations that must be observed.

Curriculum decision makers have an abundance of source information available, but limit its use in accordance with internal criteria of the chief instructional officer. Responsibility for up-to-date research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed by respondents to be largely that of someone else; e.g., the members of the instructional affairs council. Members of this council do not receive released time or special compensation, and therefore, are limited in keeping abreast of current, pertinent literature.

The college demonstrates a pervading interest in serving the community and decides conflicting priorities accordingly. The college sees itself as a leading agency of community education and substantiates its contention with many community services in addition to the academic and occupational curricula. Community service academic programs and courses are all non-credit and are not allowed to compete with catalog named, described, and numbered programs and courses.

The chief instructional officer is the responsible officer for academic, occupational, general, adult, remedial, and community service curricula.

Co-working with the public schools in common community interest programs has not developed, for the public schools are not sufficiently

oriented to and involved in community education. The college has not considered taking a leadership position in helping the public schools implement the community education concept so widely discussed today.

The research questions of this study generated seventeen hypotheses. In this study of College C, twelve were accepted and five rejected.

Summary and Discussion

Seventeen hypotheses devolved from the sixteen research questions of this study. Data were gathered from three colleges, studied independently, and selected on the basis of their geography, student populations, age, independence and were labeled College A, College B, and College C. A separate and complete pilot study was done at Genesee Community College. Findings from this study were not reported.

In each of the three colleges, six major interviews were conducted. These interviews, extending over a period of two days in each college, averaged approximately two hours, and embodied more than 250 questions in a structured interview guide of 33 principle points.

Positions, titles and responsibilities of both individuals and groups differ from college to college. Respondents in each college were carefully chosen through their identification with instructional affairs on the organization chart and by inquiring into the identity of others who, though not named on the organization chart, exercised important roles in curriculum decision making.

Variant responses, when given, were discussed until uniform answers were possible. The study of perceptions of persons responsible for curriculum development could be the subject of another interesting study, though perhaps it could conclude nothing more than recognition of the too-evident disparity of perception and fact. Discussion frequently entailed either

suggestion of conditions by the interviewer or inquiring whether the respondent agreed with the information related by the interviewer.

Short interviews with several other persons--faculty and administration--were obtained informally. These averaged 15-30 minutes, and had as their purpose either reaffirmation of specific information given or resolution of doubts expressed by respondents. The informal process of decision making, which could be still another interesting study, inevitably entered almost every conversation. The informal process is not part of this study, but quite easily could have been, for respondents were generally very gracious, helpful, and open. Printed material, when available, was requested, given, and used.

The study first flow-charted the procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made and established definite decision points. The relative importance of these points was then considered. The academic council (deans and divisional chairmen) was seen as the most notable decision-making body in one college (A), the divisional chairman and faculty in another (B) and instructional council (seven faculty members and three student representatives, under the chairmanship of the chief instructional officer) at the third (C).

Adequate written criteria were not found at any decision point in the processes of the colleges studied, although their value was recognized and they were in the plans at one college (A). Professional lay advisors and/or advisory committees are recognized in each college as vitally important.

Decision-making approaches differ in each college. A highly developed systems analysis approach (similar to that described by Bushnell in his Planned Change) is identified at one college (A). At another (B) an easy-going rapport between divisional chairmen (faculty in College B)

and administration gave a sense of informality to decision making and seemed to involve simply suggestions by divisional chairmen and approvals or disapprovals by the curriculum directing associate dean. In the third college (where divisional chairmen are clearly administrators), the problem solving approach entailed the intellectual collaboration of the chief instructional officer and the chief executive officer and intuitive judgment (C).

Involvement in the curricular decision-making process is of many kinds, ranging from the invitation to input ideas, to discussing them, analyzing them, evaluating them and deciding them. The community-at-large is represented by professional lay committees and/or advisory committees to various programs. Students are represented in the instructional affairs council at one college (B), not at all in the other two, and their interest in involvement, while encouraged everywhere, has not been great. Administrators and divisional chairmen (if not counted among the administrators) generally are the most significant influences in the decision-making process.

In two colleges (A and B), authority/control over curricular matters is shared by administration and faculty, and both groups feel that democratic governance obtains. Administrative control is evident in the third college (C).

The constraints upon curriculum by external agencies were identified with difficulty in each college and seemed to bother no one. Program accrediting associations were singled out and whatever regulatory influence state agencies or the North Central Accrediting Association placed appeared to present no difficulty and little negative concern.

A wholesome appreciation of both academic and occupational curricula, with mutual regard, was evidenced everywhere. Directors of both

curricula report to a common official (even though he may also direct one of the curricula) to avoid confusion and imbalance of the college offerings. Development of either curriculum was generally seen as a response to the marketplace, rather than as an effort to balance one program against the other artificially. At one college (B), however, some concern was expressed that a traditional transfer program might become secondary to occupational curricula in college concern and in the community understanding.

A curriculum committee has been formed in only one college (A), and is important in the decision-making process. The functions of this committee are unclear and unacceptable to administrators, faculty, students and committee members. In the other colleges, corresponding committees are an instructional council (B) or an instructional affairs council (C), both of which have many responsibilities--curriculum among them. The functions of the first are clear and acceptable to administrators and members, of the second clear to all groups, but unacceptable to faculty, students, and members. Membership representation of faculty is broad. Students serve only in the instructional affairs council at one college (C).

Members of the curriculum committee (A) and the instructional affairs council (C) receive neither released time or other special compensation for their service. Those who serve on the instructional council (B) receive one-fourth teaching load released time and other compensation.

Each college boasts a well-stocked curriculum library, readily accessible and containing up-to-date periodicals and curricula research findings and a host of other informational sources. Lack of time, motivation, and/or the absence of assignment of responsibility are evident problems in all colleges studied. The curriculum committee or its surrogate nowhere demonstrates the importance assigned it by the authors.

Pragmatic concerns (i.e., what is good for the college as an institution) govern decisions when resources are too limited to admit more than one of several new courses or programs of equal importance into the college curricula.

Three hypotheses devolved from a research question (14) which inquired into the relationship of community service programs emanating from the community college and the community education programs of the public schools. While each college views itself as a leading agency in community education, advisory boards to its community service programs do not necessarily seek membership from qualified representation of the public school community education interest. Principals responsible for each interest may correspond informally, but usually do not. Both programs, insofar as they exist, function apart from the other--at times with resentment for the others--but usually without even thinking of the other who shares, in some degree, a common community interest. A unified, cooperative relationship between the community college community service division and the public school community education development is not found in the colleges studied. Leadership in effecting such a unified relationship has not been forthcoming from Colleges A, B, or C.

In College B, regular academic credit-bearing courses are offered by community services in the evening school. Both other colleges restrict community service academic programs and courses to those which do not give credit. Each college has well-developed community service non-academic programs and courses (cultural, enrichment, skill training, hobby teaching...). In College A, the dean of community affairs reports directly to the executive vice president; in College B the assistant dean for continuing education reports directly to the chief instructional officer; in College C, the chief instructional officer controls community service

curricula. Some faculty resent programs and courses--credit especially but non-credit, too--being offered outside their purview, particularly when they resemble or are substitutes for regular college offerings. College administrators respond, invariably, that flexibility and quick decisions are a must in this area for the community college of today.

The importance of the general curriculum is accentuated in College C, and is evaluated frequently. In Colleges A and B, general studies are simply determined by transfer institutions. A specifically designed remedial (developmental) curriculum exists at none of the three colleges, and responsibility of remediating courses are assigned the curriculum directors and divisional chairmen. Each of the colleges expressed the absence of a need for this special curriculum.

Continuing education in Colleges A and C is not a curriculum distinct from the college's regular credit-bearing program or is considered a community service if credit is not offered. The evening college in College B offers credit courses, apart from the regular offerings, and is directed by the assistant dean of continuing education.

Following the presentation of data from each college, a statement of acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis, as related to that college, was made. In College A, ten hypotheses were accepted, six rejected and one partially accepted and partially rejected. In College B, fifteen were accepted and two rejected. In College C, twelve were accepted and seven rejected.

The chart following summarizes results in each college separately and collectively. Collectively, nine hypotheses were accepted and one rejected. Three hypotheses (plus one partially) were accepted at two colleges, and three (plus one partially) were rejected at two colleges.

Summary: Hypothesis Acceptance/Rejection

Hypothesis	College A	College B	College C
1		Accept	Accept
2	Accept	Accept	Accept
3		Accept	
4	Accept	Accept	Accept
5		Accept	Accept
6	Accept	Accept	Accept
7		Accept	
8			Accept
9	Accept	Accept	Accept
10			
11	Accept } Reject }	Accept	
12	Accept	Accept	Accept
13	Accept	Accept	Accept
14	Accept	Accept	Accept
15	Accept	Accept	Accept
16	Accept	Accept	Accept
17	Accept	Accept	

The Hypotheses Accepted at all Colleges are These:

- H_2 Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established.
- H_4 Criteria specifically written as a guide to the judgment of decision makers are not found at any decision point.
- H_6 Everyone in the community, theoretically at least, is involved in the curricular decision-making process.

- H₉ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) or occupational (vocational, technical...) programs and deans (directors, coordinators...) of credit-bearing continuing (adult) education programs report to the same single officer.
- H₁₂ Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed.
- H₁₃ When needs are equal and resources are limited, priorities are chosen pragmatically (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution).
- H₁₄ The community college views itself as a leading agency of community education.
- H₁₅ Advisory boards to the community services division of the community college do not require qualified representation from the K-12 community education interest.
- H₁₆ A unified relationship between the community service efforts of the community college and the community education efforts of the K-12 system is not found.

The Hypothesis Rejected at all Colleges is this:

- H₁₀ The curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development.

The Hypotheses Accepted at Two Colleges are these:

- H₁ The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made is not set forth in any college publication.
- H₅ A curricular decision-making model which uses a systems analysis approach to problem solving is not found in the colleges studied.
- (H₁₁) Program accrediting associations and groups which control money flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints on the curriculum.
- H₁₇ Deans (directors, coordinators...) of community service divisions which offer non-credit academic courses and non-academic programs, courses or activities function without the approval of academic and occupational administration and faculty.

The Hypotheses Rejected at Two Colleges are these:

- H₃ The division evidences major control over curriculum development.
- H₇ Actual involvement in curriculum development is reserved to teaching faculty and administration.
- H₈ In matters of curriculum decisions, administration evidences a primacy of control over the faculty.

(H₁₁) Program accrediting associations and groups which control money flow into the college are the only external regulatory constraints on the curriculum.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary of Study

The importance of decision making was singled out, early in this study, as the central process of administration in any organization. The administrative role and responsibility toward an organization was defined specifically as the function of developing and regulating the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible. The quality of decisions which an organization makes and the efficiency with which the organization puts the decisions into effect were placed as the criteria by which an organization may be evaluated. Several historical approaches to decision making were mentioned--common sense, authority, intuition, revelation and reason--but empiricism, it was pointed out, is the only approach which is scientific.

The curricula was seen as the essence of the community college, the very purpose for its being. What is taught and learned, and how it is taught and learned is the result of decisions by those empowered to make them. A scientific model looks for information in-put from every reasonably available source; both internal and external sources were considered and were described as advisory, stimulating, simply informational, and regulatory.

Fundamental to any model is concern with determining, first, the nature and degree of existing conditions currently obtaining. This concern was placed as the problem of this study, for ameliorative or

remediating action can be taken only after the current status of a problem is described.

The community college philosophy and purpose was described in considerable detail and related to the curriculum which is judged appropriate through decision-making processes which require currency, vitality, and comprehensiveness.

It was proposed in this study to learn how curricular decisions are made in selected Michigan community colleges--the structures, processes and criteria as vehicles, models and guides by which curriculum was judged appropriate. To this end, sixteen research questions were formulated; seventeen hypotheses devolved from them. Certain assumptions to this study were made and delimitations were noted.

The study began with a careful review of pertinent, relevant literature. Emphasis was placed, throughout the review, on the most recently expressed thought of the authors which rarely dated back more than a decade.

Although the philosophy and purpose of the community college has been spelled out in great detail, the authors pointed out that several important, basic issues remain unresolved. Untoward philosophical attitudes, biases, personal theories, value judgments and underlying decisions of curricular decision makers complicate the problem and become determinants of the curriculum. The need for a structure and system to accommodate them effectively and efficiently amidst changing times and conditions was recognized and clearly defined institutional goals given as a first necessary step.

The growing consensus about the nature and program of the comprehensive community college is not yet universal, it was observed. Each curriculum presents special problems that decision makers must confront.

The several curricula of the comprehensive community college were discussed and the major problems faced in designing each were recognized as parameters, influences, barriers, constraints, determinants...that become criteria affecting decisions that had to be made.

Influences external to the community college and its programs were recognized as emanating from national and regional, state and local sources. Among the national influences three complications were considered: confusion as to national goals and lack of clearly defined objectives for higher education, rapidly changing and vacillating leadership, and the late arrival of the community college as a national priority. The clearly evident pull toward centralized bureaucratic control on the state and national levels was seen as resulting from the absence of a unified and sound national policy structure and a reliable and consistent funding program. The influences of national professional organizations, usually informational, advisory and stimulating, were referenced, as were the regional and professional accrediting associations, foundations, testing agencies, textbook publishers--all of which bring into existence norms to be considered by curricular decision makers.

The marked increase in influences upon the community college at the state level in recent years was noted. Coordination and master planning, budgetary regulations, guidelines of various kinds were seen as facts. The legislature, the executive office, coordinating agencies, judicial bodies and other governmental and non-governmental agencies provide directional and/or operational influences upon the community college. The Constitution of the State of Michigan and other state department publications were referenced to report the specific influence of the State of Michigan upon established public community colleges.

The local image of the community college was considered important. In practice, the public is represented by the elected members of legislative bodies, the executive and judicial officers. Underlying these powers, and giving them strength, are various individuals, formal and informal groups, coalitions of different groups, organized pressure groups and groups that fight to be heard, especially wealthy persons or groups. The influence of various political, civic, ethnic, social and educational groups was reported.

Local college boards and administration, authors reported, are important in governance structure. Both exercise control of budgets and funds. Faculty power over curricular decisions is still very limited, and student power almost non-existent. Collective bargaining represents a force of still unpredictable dimension in strengthening the faculty position.

The decision process of program and course selection is a continuing one, for community college clientele includes persons with all kinds of needs for education and these needs change rapidly, it was observed, with social, technological, demographic, and economic trends. Curriculum development was seen as representing decisions made subjectively about the question of what should be learned. The importance of a theory of curriculum design was recognized and select notable research conclusions were reported. Prevailing approaches to curriculum analysis and development have been called "common sense" approaches involving discussion, political activity, judgment of experts, emulation, and search for social needs.

A systems analysis approach to curriculum development was reviewed and reported as being most promising as a feasible, workable and efficient method for developing, using, and evaluating a curriculum.

Following the review of literature, the methodology of the study to be made was presented. Preparatory planning was reviewed and the plan of

the study was presented. The review of literature focused on decision-making criteria, an integral part of this study. The investigation which followed accepted the validity of the literature and centered more on structures and processes of curricular decision making necessary to the wholeness and completeness of this study. The rationale for selecting the colleges to be studied was then explained. The sources of data were described in detail. The method to be followed and the description of the study was explained.

A pilot study at Genesee Community College was described and credited with improving the interview guide instrument and the interviewer's technique. A description of the instrument followed and the procedural plan of the interviewer was reported. The research questions of the study and the hypotheses related to them for testing against descriptive data to be obtained were presented.

Structural interviews were conducted in each of the three colleges selected for the study. Six major interviews at each institution, each of approximately two hours length, were conducted with carefully chosen respondents identified on the organization chart or otherwise pointed out as important in the curriculum decision-making process. More than 250 questions embodied in a 33 point interview guide were discussed in these interviews. Short interviews with several other persons in each college--faculty and administrators--averaged 15-30 minutes and had as their purpose either reaffirmation of specific information given or resolution of doubts expressed.

The study followed the interview guide found in the appendix of this study. Findings in each college were reported and a statement of acceptance or rejection made for each hypothesis. In a section labeled

"Summary and Discussion" in Chapter IV, data gathered from the three colleges were considered together under each hypothesis. The individual and collective results of hypotheses' acceptance or rejection were charted.

In College A, ten hypotheses were accepted, six rejected and one partially accepted and partially rejected. In College B fifteen were accepted and two rejected. In College C twelve were accepted and seven rejected.

Collectively, nine hypotheses were accepted and one rejected. Three hypotheses (plus one partially) were accepted at two colleges, and three (plus one partially) were rejected at two colleges. Hypotheses were presented again and ordered into the groupings as described in this paragraph.

The pilot study was particularly helpful in preparing the interview guide. Nonetheless, in subsequent research, several such guides are suggested to replace the single-guide approach. The single guide was cumbersome and was unreasonably long. While respondents were very cooperative, they could have been spared undue and unnecessary intrusion into their time schedules had several guides been devised; e.g., one for administrators, one for divisional and/or departmental heads, another for faculty, for members of the curriculum committee, and perhaps for members of the educational association. Further, several specifically directed guides could have allowed greater in-depth probing in shorter interviews with more respondents.

Conclusions to this Study: Existing Conditions in Colleges Studied

1. The procedural (structural) process by which curricular decisions are made are not completely and fully described in print or publication in any college. In one college procedural elements are described and are generally available to any interested person; these elements, insofar as they are written, are neither comprehensive nor adequately explained and are thought to be obsolete or unused by at least some persons important in decision making.

2. Decision points in the procedural process are clearly established in each college studied. However, the relative importance of each decision point and the division of responsibilities among them is generally obscure.
3. Divisional chairmen are particularly important in the curricular decision-making process. The dimensions of their control is contingent upon administrative influence and power.
4. Written criteria are not found at any decision point in the processes of the colleges studied. Plans to write such criteria are in progress in one college and not considered in the other two.
5. A systems approach to curricular decision making is observed in one of the three colleges studied. A non-scientific approach obtains in the other two.
6. Community involvement in the curricular decision-making process is apparent in the community service curriculum but practically reduces to the political influence of the board and the academic advisement of selected and invited committees in other curricula. Student involvement is minimal or non-existent.
7. Actual involvement in curriculum development depends upon administrative approval and faculty cooperation.
8. Authority/control in matters of curricular decisions is shared by administrators and faculty in two colleges. Administrative primacy or control is evident in the third.
9. Curricula confusion and imbalance between academic and occupational programs/courses, resulting from an organization by-pass of the chief instructional officer by the director of occupational programs, is not a problem in any college.
10. A curriculum committee is found in one college. Functions usually ascribed to such a committee are performed by committees that are responsible for many activities, curriculum among them, in the other two. The curriculum committee is not generally recognized as one of the most important college committees. Its function, and the curricula responsibilities of its surrogate, does not constitute the major role in curriculum development. Their functions are largely unclear and/or unacceptable to administration, faculty, students, and members themselves. Released time and special compensation is given members in one college.
11. Program (professional) accrediting associations regulate specific curriculum. The North Central Association and the various state agencies are not generally viewed as regulatory. Although their influence is recognized, they are thought to parallel, for the most part, ideals and regulations internal to the colleges.
12. Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curricular matters and current relevant literature is unassigned and assumed.

13. Pragmatic concerns (i.e., what is best for the college as an institution) govern decisions when resources are too limited to admit more than one of several new courses or programs of equal importance into the college curricula.
- 14.. The colleges view themselves as leading agencies of community education.
- 15.. Advisory boards to the community services division of the colleges do not require and do not specifically seek qualified representation from the public school's community education interest.
16. A unified relationship between the community service efforts of the colleges and the community education efforts of the public schools is not found. Leadership in effecting such a unified relationship has not been demonstrated in any college.
17. Community service non-credit academic programs/courses and activities--and in one college credit-bearing courses also--are offered without the need of approval from academic and occupational administration and faculty.
18. A specifically designed developmental (remedial) curriculum is not established in any college and the need for such a curriculum is not recognized. Divisions handle specific problem students.
19. A specifically designated general curriculum is not found in any college. General courses are accentuated and frequently evaluated in one college and are decided by transfer institutions in the other two.
20. Continuing (adult) education credit-bearing courses are not distinguished from academic or occupational curricula in two colleges and are offered by the community service division in the other. Continuing education non-credit academic programs/courses, as also cultural, enrichment, skill training and hobby training programs/courses, are offered in each college as a community service.

Discussion and Recommendations

Many considerations affect the curricular decision-making process in the community college. Discovery must take place at each college as to when, with what and with whom what must be accomplished for whom. At the beginning of this century the prevailing attitude was that educational problems could be resolved through appeals to common sense, authority, intuition, revelation or reason. Dependable knowledge about education has come from various of these sources. Empiricism certified its

dependability! While these sources of knowledge cannot be counted on to provide the most reliable means for obtaining knowledge about observable relationships, empiricism, if seen as a total method of gaining knowledge, cannot be supported either. Experience or observation alone ignores due regard for system and theory. Nonetheless, knowledge is capable of being verified or disproved by observation or experiment.

The importance of a theory of curriculum has been established by Dressel, Mayhew and others. David S. Bushnell has been one of the authors who centered his attention on the systematic process of discovering knowledge, solving problems, making decisions.

Decision making has been called the central act of administration. The administrative role and responsibility has been specified as the function of developing and regulating the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible. The quality of decisions which an organization makes together with the efficiency with which the organization puts them into effect has been placed as the criteria by which an organization may be evaluated. Because decision making is so important--the central act of administration--it represents the chief problem to administration. A college administrator should be able to estimate his personal effectiveness and efficiency and that of the organization he represents or controls by taking a close analytical and evaluative look at the question how (or by what process) are decisions made in this college.

In one of the colleges studied, decisions in curricular matters are made through a combination of intuition, common sense, external authority and qualified opinion, all put together to form a perception which becomes the basis for final approval or rejection of a curricular proposal. In another college, the intellectual collaboration of chief administrators who draw upon information resources according to their perception of value,

combines with intuition to finalize curricular decisions. Contrast these approaches with the systems analysis approach of the third college which is described below. Systems analysis might be described as a method for determining where, when, with what and with whom you must accomplish what for whom and where.

In this college, an idea or request (curricular proposal) is first subjected to a market analysis. With the help of professional lay advisors the need for curriculum development is the focal point of attention. What must be accomplished for whom? The problem is carefully diagnosed in the initial stage of the decision-making process. The needs in the community are analyzed and the condition of the student body reviewed. The college serves the community through preparing its students, insofar as they are qualified and interested, for available opportunities.

The market analysis leads to dropping the proposal, deferring it for possible future reconsideration or formulating objectives for its implementation. When, with whom, with what is a proposal to be implemented are questions asked and demanding answers with the assistance of advisory boards, in curriculum development considerations. Costs, space, equipment and operation analyses identify constraints which lead to a decision to drop, defer, or recommend for implementation. Alternatives have been considered in each step of the process and the one selected for implementation becomes the subject of frequent evaluation.

Results of evaluation become in-put for a decision to continue implementing the plan or returning it again to market analysis and curriculum development for review and improvement. The systematic process is unending. Curricular development is never finished.

Authors suggest that the systems analysis approach to problem solving is currently the most promising approach to a scientific method of decision making. It is recommended that this approach be studied with a view toward its implementation.

In none of the colleges studied are the procedural (structural) processes by which curricular decisions are made clearly presented in a single college publication. Furthermore, although decision points are clearly established, the precise role and relative importance of each is not generally understood by respondents to this study. Since respondents were chosen because they were recognized as being particularly important in the decision-making process, it is fair to assume that any lack of understanding evidenced among them is projected throughout the institution.

The structure which must support a system requires a network of communication links between teachers and students, teachers and administrators, administrators and tax-payers which promotes learning needs and conveys information. Without information about both the structure and the process by which curricular decisions are made disinterestedness, if not a disgruntledness or a spirit of antagonism, can be expected by those interested and wishing to be involved in curriculum development. Furthermore, participative or democratic governance, seen by all authors as an ideal, suffers to whatever extent useful knowledge is not available or is inaccurately projected.

It is a second recommendation of this study that both the structural and process procedures be clearly written and made available to whomever is interested, and that, at the same time, the precise role and actual importance of each decision-making level be spelled out for general and specific clarity of understanding. The explanation should leave no room

for doubt as to who is responsible and to what degree, for what, and at each level who or what group is the actual decision maker.

It is recognized that criteria for making decisions are often and necessarily elusive. It is also recognized that without definite criteria, commonly understood and accepted, a group's decision is likely to be the result of persuasion or bias or attitude or underlying theories or the power of an individual's position or personality. These may not be the best factors for making objective decisions.

The recommendations of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the State Community College Board, the Michigan Community College Association, the Planning Program Evaluation System, the collective bargaining agent, community education efforts of the public schools, the U. S. Office of Education, accrediting associations, local businesses, industries and professions, students' needs and the needs of the entire community, curricular research and current literature--all these are in-puts into a curricular decision-making process. Each college has its own strengths and weaknesses, and these too affect decisions. All these factors have meaning and many of them form, or should form, criteria to guide decision makers at each step in the decision process.

It is a third recommendation of this study that insofar as possible, criteria be written at each decision point to serve as guides to decision participants in order to objectify decisions by standards empirically fashioned through sound research.

In each of the colleges studied, either a curriculum committee or a surrogate consider curricular proposals and is, at least in the formal structure, an important element in the procedural process of decision making. Of the seventeen hypotheses of this study, the one that was

rejected in each college stated that the curriculum committee is generally recognized as one of the most important college committees and bears a major role in curriculum development. In the colleges studied, the functions of the curricula council or the surrogates are largely unclear and unacceptable to administrators, faculty, students and members. Released time and/or special compensation is given members in one college. Responsibility for up-to-date knowledge of research findings on curriculum matters and current literature is unassigned and assumed. Members who serve on the committee are usually not chosen for their expertise, but for their availability and/or interest and divisional representation. The curricular responsibilities of the members, insofar as they are clear, are narrow.

It is another and multi-parted recommendation of this study:

- a. that a curriculum committee be established as a recommending body in the colleges where one is not found.
- b. that the chairman of the curriculum committee report to the chief instructional officer and have as his full-time responsibility leadership in curriculum development, and continual development of personal expertise.
- c. that the curriculum committee membership reflect the broad college curricula and be comprised of faculty members elected each year (or re-elected) by their divisions and counseling staff member.
- d. that students elected by student government and other interested persons be invited observers at curriculum committee meetings to be heard upon recognition of the chairman.
- e. that the curriculum committee meet regularly and file minutes with the chief instructional officer and make them public to the entire college population.
- f. that curriculum committee members receive one-quarter to one-half released time from their other responsibilities to carry out the functions of the committee and other motivating compensation.
- g. that the responsibilities of the curriculum committee (and within the committee of its members) be clearly set forth and made available to any interested person, and include:

- 1) review of all curricular proposals and proper advisement following this review.
- 2) up-to-date and maintained currency in curricula research and relevant literature, under the leadership of the chairman.
- 3) continual and systematic evaluation of existing course offerings in the light of both college and divisional objectives, and use of such evaluation as an aid in curriculum development.
- 4) offering leadership to the faculty and eliciting faculty participation in curriculum development.
- 5) maintaining on file up-to-date outlines of all courses taught and devising procedures for revising them, keeping them up to date and increasing their usefulness.
- 6) using results of community surveys and studies, and follow-up studies of former students and graduates as an aid in curriculum development.
- 7) assist the chief instructional officer in directing and carrying on continuous and long-term evaluation and planning.
- 8) give proper attention to the general education, remedial, and continuing education objectives of the college.
- 9) be represented in community service decisions to call attention to undesirable competitive offerings and to report them, if found, to the committee.
- 10) be attuned to suggestions of accrediting associations and other voices external to the college and assist in their implementation by the chief instructional officer.

In each of the colleges studied, the hypothesis which stated that a unified relationship between the community service efforts of the community college and the community education efforts of the public school system is not found was accepted.

Many books and articles have been written about community education. Many speeches have been given, hours and lives dedicated to the philosophical concept which unifies the meaning of education of every kind and at every level. It is a concept which utilizes "the local school or some other agency to serve as a catalysis to bring community resources to bear on the community problems in an effort to develop a positive sense of

community, improve community living and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization."¹ Clark visualizes the community education movement in four stages, the third of which sees "all educational agencies working together toward common goals, sharing resources and complementing the service of one another." The fourth, he sees as "the reconstruction of a total educational process under a philosophy of community education; 'helping people to help themselves'."²

Such a visualization is comforting to the community-minded educator who may be disappointed in the acceptance of the hypothesis of this study. Comfort can be taken too from the realization that the beginnings of the community service development in the community college dates back hardly more than a decade, at least on a national scale, and must run the long road to maturity.

The concepts of community education and community service are almost parallel and hopefully will merge in the time ahead. The writer has been a student of both and can appreciate the importance of both the neighborhood and the larger community which encompasses many neighborhoods. Many of us are residents of both communities, the local school district, and the local community college district. Emphases in the concepts of community education and community service may differ, but the binding element is educational, cultural, social and recreational service to all of the community in accordance with the needs of the community and the individuals which comprise it.

¹Dr. Jack Minzey, Director, Center for Community Education; Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan, quoted in Philip A. Clark, Associate Director Community School Development Center, Western Michigan University, "If Two and Two and Fifty Make a Million," Community Education Journal, Vol. 1, No. 1: February 1971, p. 8.

²Loc. cit.

It is a final recommendation of this study that community colleges, legitimate in the larger community, take leadership in assisting the public schools, legitimate in their neighborhoods, develop community education in their districts--that it exert leadership with the public schools in developing a unified relationship, in working together toward common goals, sharing resources and complementing the service of one another in meeting the needs of the community and helping every individual to stand with dignity and be his own man.

Implications for Future Research

This study proposed to describe existing conditions in the curricular decision-making processes in select Michigan community colleges. As a descriptive study, it was designed, with certain assumptions and delimitations, to learn the structures and processes by which curricular decisions are made. As such, this study has avoided comparison, analysis, or evaluation.

The accepted worth of all community college objectives was acknowledged and the general acceptance of community college philosophy and purpose was one of the assumptions of this study. In Chapter I the philosophy and purpose of the community college was spelled out in statements emanating from the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, from a position paper by the Michigan State Board for Public and Community Junior Colleges, and in statements detailed by the Michigan Community College Association. The object of another useful study could well be analytical, comparative, and evaluative of existing conditions in the Michigan public community colleges against these expressions of philosophy and purpose.

It was recognized, similarly, that in every organization both formal and informal elements are at work in the administrative process. While

this study was delimited to look at the formal element, an inclination to change course and concentrate on the informal element arose while it was in progress. Discussions in an atmosphere of ease with respondents, invariably included them. With scarcely an exception, respondents were very gracious, helpful and open. A descriptive study of the informal process of curricular decision making could be a useful addition to the science of behavior in the community college organizational setting.

Still another study--perceptions of curricular decision makers--would be a valuable case study for any college seriously interested in curriculum development through a systematic approach. Disparity of subjective views and facts, even in this study, was at times surprising, and the knowledge of decision makers which seemed reasonable to assume was, at times, assumed erroneously and had to be clarified. Such a case analysis could be done by an office of institutional research and could have as its object clarity of procedures and processes, definitions of roles and openness of communication among faculty and administration, especially among principals in the decision-making process.

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APPENDIX A

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-GUIDE

APPENDIX A

A STUDY OF CURRICULAR DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES...

This study examines the processes for making decisions about programs and courses of study. Existing conditions are its primary concern.

It is not designed to critique any one process. Nor is it an evaluation or an analysis of any college.

Respondents who assist in this study will not be identified, and the colleges they represent will be treated with anonymity.

All questions relate to credit-producing programs and courses unless otherwise mentioned or clearly implied.

If a question is unclear, please check with the interviewer. If an answer is not known, please leave space blank. Your comments or observations, wherever they are placed, are very welcome.

1. Does any single college publication explain the entire process for making decisions about programs and courses of study in your college?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

2. On the next page is a blank flow chart mapping the channels through which a curricular proposal moves at your college. Which of the following could be placed in Station A as the originator of a proposal? Please check all that apply.

_____ a) an administrator

_____ f) a business man

_____ b) a faculty member

_____ g) a professional person

_____ c) a student

_____ h) a community agency

_____ d) a board member

_____ i) another educational institution

_____ e) an advisory committee member

_____ j) any interested person

3. Where does the originator send the proposal for initial consideration? (Please fill in box at Station B, page 305.)

Continue to fill in the chart by indicating at each station the appropriate committee or person to which the proposal is next sent. For example, the originator→chairman of relevant division→faculty of relevant division→faculty senate→senate sub-committee→faculty senate→president→?

Use as many boxes as you need, adding additional ones if necessary.

STATION A

Answered in Question 2

STATION B

STATION C

STATION D

STATION E

STATION F

STATION G

STATION H

STATION I

Originator

Initial Decision

Subsequent

Decisions

Leading to

Final Decision:

4. At each step, the proposal may be sent back to its source with a request for clarification and/or restudy, then returned.

a) yes _____ b) no _____

5. Is a regular form(s) or format(s) used in preparing a proposal for consideration?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

The next three questions (6-8) relate to your flowchart on page 2.
Please answer them by circling the Station Letters that may apply.

- 6a. At which Station or Stations is discussion and voting a usual part of the decision-making process?

A B C D E F G H I none

- 6b. At which Station would discussion generally be longest and most detailed?

A B C D E F G H I none

- 7a. At which Station or Stations, if any, are definite criteria established as a guide to the judgment of decision-makers?

A B C D E F G H I none

- 7b. At which Stations, from those circled in 7a, are the criteria written?

A B C D E F G H I none

8. At which Station or Stations are the following activities carried out?

a. diagnosing curricular problems A B C D E F G H I none

b. formulating program and course objectives A B C D E F G H I none

c. identifying constraints that limit freedom of decision A B C D E F G H I none

d. considering alternative decisions A B C D E F G H I none

e. evaluating alternative decisions A B C D E F G H I none

f. implementing selected alternative A B C D E F G H I none

- 9a. Is the president's cabinet involved with him as advisors, consultants or representatives in the final decision?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

9b. If yes, what are the positions of the members of his cabinet? Check those that apply and write in others if necessary.

- ____ a. Chief instructional officer
- ____ b. Head of Academic (liberal arts, transfer...) programs
- ____ c. Head of Occupational (vocational, technical...) programs
- ____ d. Dean (director, coordinator...) of Community Services
- ____ e. Dean (director, coordinator...) of Student Personnel (or equivalent office)
- ____ f. Chief Budget Officer
- ____ g. Presidential assistant(s)
- ____ h. Vice-president
- ____ i.
- ____ j.
- ____ k.
- ____ l.

10. Does this college have an active curriculum committee?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

11a. Are the functions of the curriculum committee clear

- a. to the administration? yes _____ no _____
- b. to the faculty? yes _____ no _____
- c. to the students? yes _____ no _____
- d. to the committee itself? yes _____ no _____

If not, please explain to the interviewer.

11b. Are the functions of the curriculum committee acceptable

- a. to the administration? yes _____ no _____
- b. to the faculty? yes _____ no _____
- c. to the students? yes _____ no _____
- d. to the committee itself? yes _____ no _____

If not, please explain to the interviewer.

12a. Who serves on the curriculum committee?

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Has Voting Rights</u>	<u>How Selected</u>
a. counseling staff	_____	_____	_____
b. faculty	_____	_____	_____
c. administration	_____	_____	_____
d. students	_____	_____	_____
e. <u>ex-officio</u>	_____	_____	_____
f. other	_____	_____	_____

12b. How often does the curriculum committee meet? _____

12c. Does the chief instructional officer (e.g., the dean of instruction) serve on the curriculum committee?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

12d. If yes, what is his role? Please check whichever applies, or write in correct answer.

_____ a. a regular voting member

_____ b. a regular non-voting member

_____ c. advisory only

_____ d. _____

13. How is the curriculum committee chairman selected?

What is his term of office? _____

14a. Do any of the members of the curriculum committee receive released time from their regular responsibilities for their committee work?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

If yes, how much time? _____

14b. Or other special compensation?

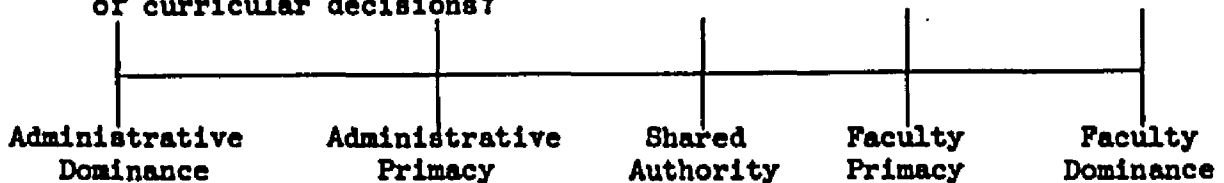
a) yes _____

b) no _____

15. Insofar as the following groups may influence the curriculum, please place one or more of the following letters in the blanks provided. A--Advisory, I--Informational, S--Stimulating, R--Regulatory, O--None.

- _____ a. State Board of Education (including State Community College Board)
- _____ b. Accrediting Associations
- _____ c. Michigan Community College Association
- _____ d. A Collective Bargaining Agency
- _____ e. State Legislature
- _____ f. State Bureau of the Budget
- _____ g. State Division of Vocational Education
- _____ h. State Board of Nursing
- _____ i. American Dental Association, Council on Dental Education
- _____ j. American Medical Association, Council on Medical Education
- _____ k. Other: _____

16. Here is the control-continuum suggested by the American Association of Higher Education. Where would you place this college in matters of curricular decisions?



17. Using letters from the list below, please indicate answers to the following questions in the space adjoining each question. Write in the answer if it is not suggested in the listing.

- A. president or chief executive officer
- B. dean of instruction or chief instructional officer
- C. dean (director, coordinator...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer) programs
- D. dean (director, coordinator...) of occupational (technical, vocational...) programs
- E. dean (director, coordinator...) of community services
- F. divisional (or departmental) chairman
- G. curriculum committee
- H. faculty-at-large (e.g., senate)
- I. faculty through departmental meetings
- J. classroom teacher
- K. ad hoc committee when needed

17. continued

Who is responsible for: (Please use as many letters as may apply.)

- a. leadership in stressing the value of improving the curriculum? _____
- b. exercising veto power? _____
- c. avoiding a fragmented approach to curriculum development (i.e., favoring certain segments, slighting others)? _____
- d. providing professional atmosphere favorable to faculty members in carrying out curriculum developmental endeavors? _____
- e. leadership and the properly balanced, successful operation of the total curriculum? _____
- f. evaluating course offerings in the light of college objectives with a view toward their improvement? _____
- g. transfer curriculum? _____
- h. occupational curriculum? _____
- i. general curriculum? _____
- j. remedial curriculum? _____
- k. continuing adult education? _____
- l. community service non-credit academic curriculum? _____
- m. maintaining a general curriculum balance between academic and occupational programs? _____
- n. selecting textbooks? _____
- o. recommending new teaching personnel? _____
- p. determining teacher assignments? _____
- q. evaluating institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purposes) as found in the catalog to assure accuracy in regard to programs, courses and services offered? _____
- r. preparing statement of institutional objectives (philosophy, aims, purpose) for the college catalog? _____

17. continued

- A. president or chief executive officer
- B. dean of instruction or chief instructional officer
- C. dean (director, coordinator...) of academic (liberal arts, transfer) programs
- D. dean (director, coordinator...) of occupational (technical, vocational...) programs
- E. dean (director, coordinator...) of community services
- F. divisional (or departmental) chairman
- G. curriculum committee
- H. faculty-at-large (e.g., senate)
- I. faculty through departmental meetings
- J. classroom teacher
- K. ad hoc committee when needed

Who is responsible for: (Please use as many letters as may apply.)

s. preparing statement of departmental objectives
for the college catalog? _____

t. preparation of program objectives for the
college catalog? _____

u. preparation of course description for the
college catalog? _____

18. To whom do the following report?

a. dean (director, coordinator...) of academic (liberal
arts, transfer) program. _____

b. dean (director, coordinator...) of occupational (technical,
vocational...) program. _____

c. dean (director, coordinator...) of community services. _____

d. dean (director, coordinator...) of continuing (adult) education. _____

19a. Please check the following sources of information which are used by curricular decision-makers in this college:

_____ a) an office of institutional research

_____ b) a library that is readily accessible

_____ c) a library that provides relevant up-to-date periodicals

19a. continued

Please check the following sources of information which are used by curricular decision-makers in this college:

- _____ d) a library that provides current research findings (e.g., Southern Region Education Board /SREB/, the Western Interstate Compact for Higher Education /WICHE/, the New England Board of Higher Education /NEBHE/, Educational Research Information Center /ERIC/ ...)
- _____ e) faculty members
- _____ f) students
- _____ g) administrators
- _____ h) board members
- _____ i) advisory committees
- _____ j) community surveys and studies
 - how frequent? _____
 - by whom conducted? _____
- _____ k) external consultants or experts
- _____ l) neighboring community colleges
- _____ m) "feeder" high schools
- _____ n) other vocational-technical schools
- _____ o) student personnel follow-up of students who have graduated or withdrawn
- _____ p) periodicals subscribed to by divisions or departments
- _____ q) student personnel testing services to evaluate programs and courses
- _____ r) learning resource center (or librarian)

please list any other

19b. Who (or what group) is expected to keep abreast of research findings in curricula matters and current literature? _____

19c. Is the responsibility specifically assigned to anyone?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

20. Do divisions or departments each have a set of written objectives directly related to and consistent with institutional objectives?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

21. If yes, how frequently are they evaluated to determine whether modification is necessary?

22. Are courses within programs evaluated with sufficient frequency and modified if necessary to maintain continuous accord with departmental objectives?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

23. Does the catalog specify the criteria for admission into this college?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

24. Who determines these criteria? _____

25. Does the catalog (at least at printing time) specify the criteria for admission into a specific curriculum?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

26. Who determines these criteria? _____

27a. Are there criteria by which general education requirements are determined?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

27b. If yes, what are they? _____

27c. Are they periodically evaluated?

a) yes _____ b) no _____

27d. If yes, how frequently? _____

28a. What criteria are used in evaluating proposed and existing course offerings?

(Please check those that are used and add others that may apply.)

	Proposed Courses	Existing Courses
a) Institutional objectives as spelled out in the catalog	_____	_____
b) Departmental objectives	_____	_____
c) Number of qualified students interested	_____	_____
d) Availability of qualified instructors	_____	_____
e) Adequate facilities and equipment	_____	_____
f) Adequacy of resources	_____	_____
g) State demands or controls	_____	_____
h) Accrediting requirements	_____	_____
i) Government funding	_____	_____
j) Practicality/utility of course	_____	_____
k) Need in community	_____	_____
l) _____	_____	_____
m) _____	_____	_____

28b. How often are existing courses evaluated? _____

29a. When there is an apparent need for a number of new programs or courses, and limited resources restrict the number that can actually be offered, how are priorities determined? Below are listed ten suggestions. Please assign a number to each in the order of their importance.

- _____ a) which benefits students most?
- _____ b) availability elsewhere or at senior college?
- _____ c) number of students interested?
- _____ d) which faculty member or administrator is more influential?
- _____ e) which division's or department's turn is it for a favor?
- _____ f) information from office of institutional research?
- _____ g) information from advisory boards?
- _____ h) use of consultants or experts?
- _____ i) availability of instructors?
- _____ j) availability of equipment and facilities?

29b. Are there other considerations that would be influential in bringing about a decision? _____

30. Does this college view itself as a leading agency of community education?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

31a. Are there advisory boards to the community services area?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

31b. Is the public school's (K-12) community education interest represented on these boards?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

32. Is a unified relationship between the community services of this college and the community education of the public schools (K-12) found in non-credit educational offerings, cultural and enrichment programs?

a) yes _____

b) no _____

33. What are the channels or steps a proposal for an academic non-credit program or course to be offered by community services follows to its final acceptance, modification or rejection?

A. Originating source

↓

B. _____

↓

C. _____

↓

D. _____

↓

E. _____

↓

F. _____

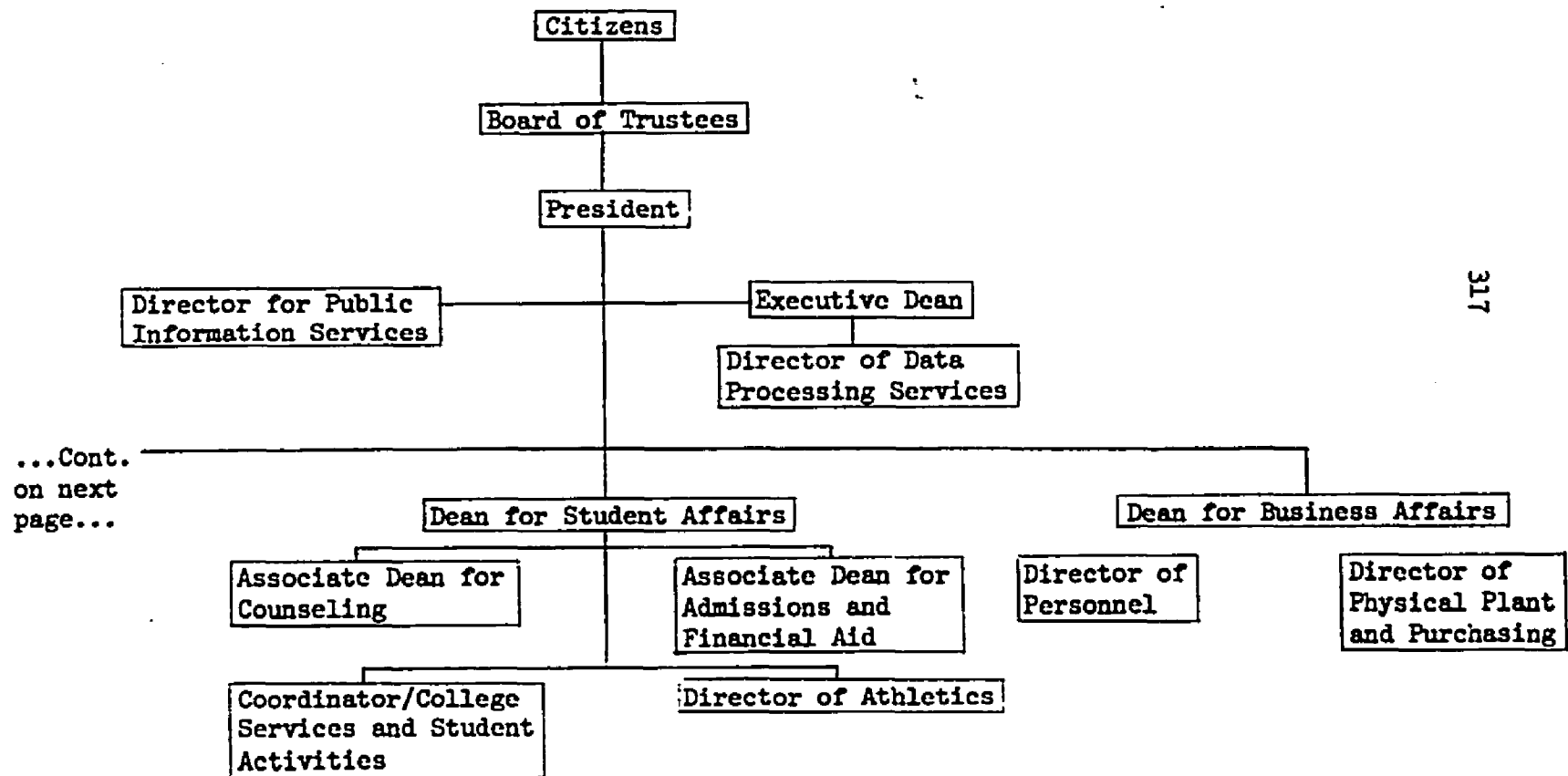
Use as many spaces as
needed to arrive at
final decision.

APPENDIX B

ORGANIZATION CHARTS OF COLLEGES STUDIED

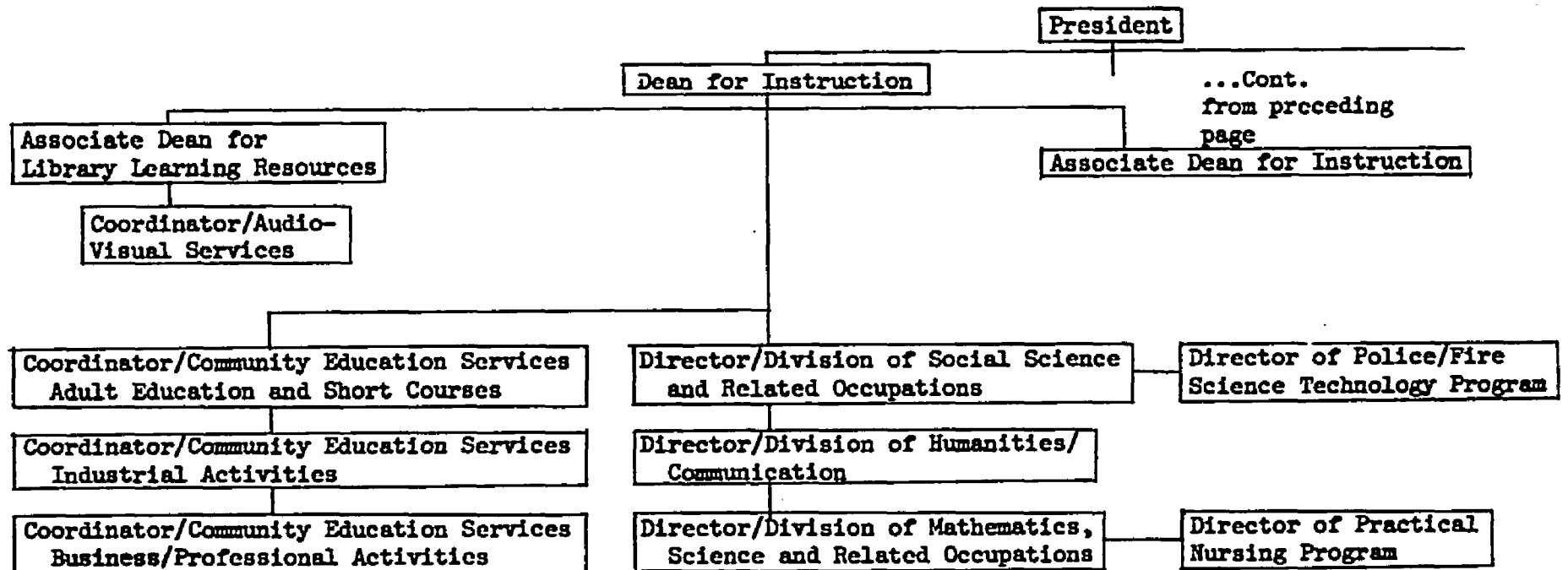
MUSKEGON COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Administrative Organization

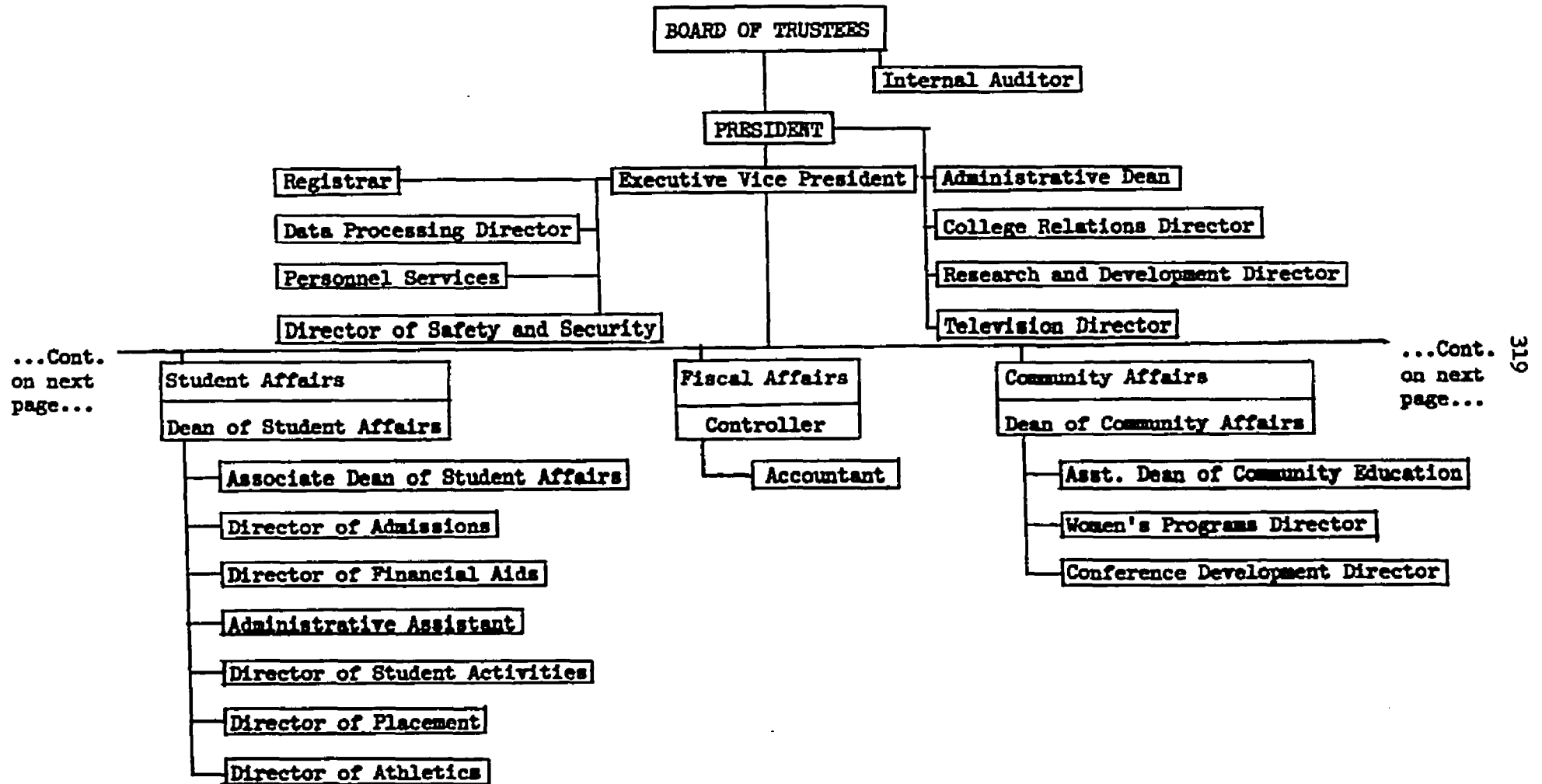


MUSKEGON COMMUNITY COLLEGE

(Continued)



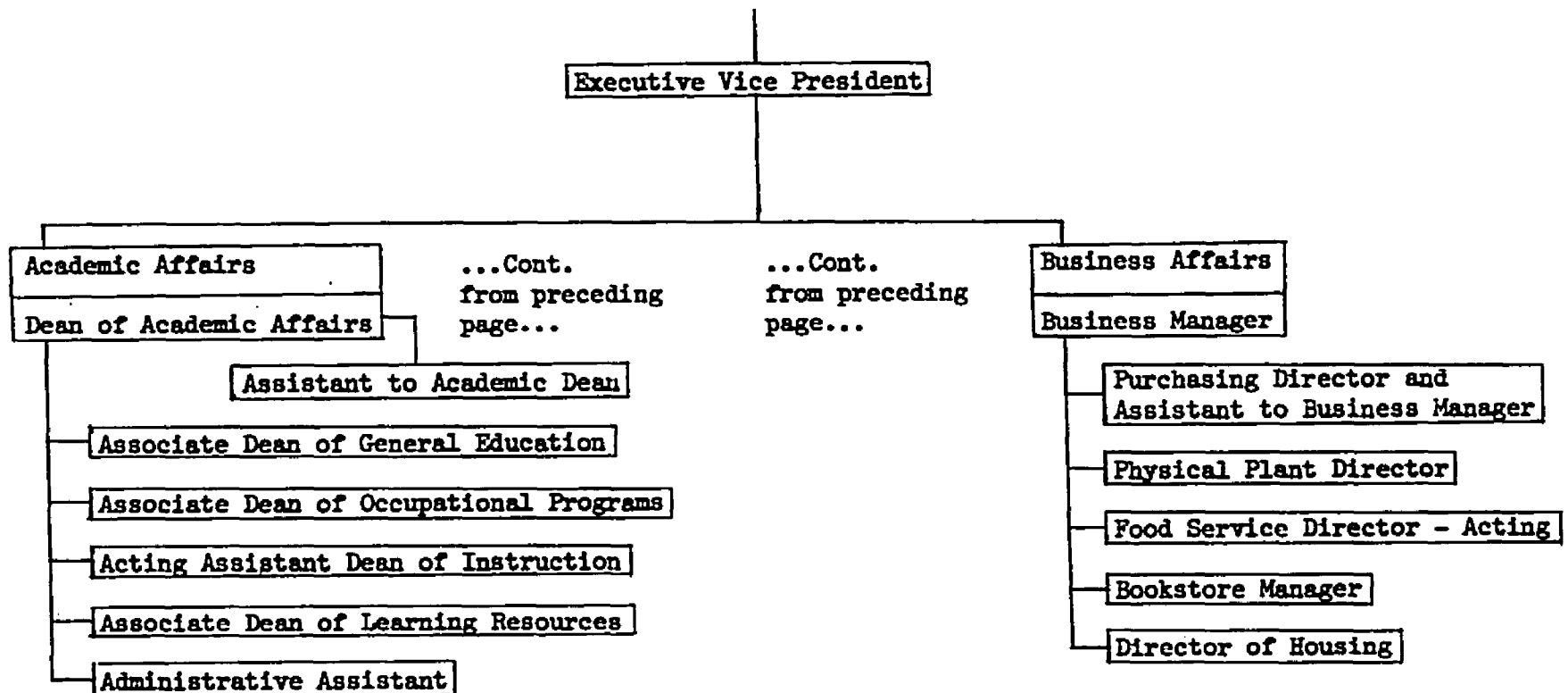
DELTA COLLEGE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION



August 1, 1972

DELTA COLLEGE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

(Continued)



GRAND RAPIDS JUNIOR COLLEGE

Administrative Organization

