While the belief in educational determinism is being discarded, the notion of holding educators accountable for results might provide the incentive necessary for educational improvement. The concept of accountability is based on specifically defined objectives and measurement techniques that determine exactly what the teacher intends to accomplish, and instructional methods that guarantee that most students will obtain the objectives. The change strategies presented are designed to breach the barriers to change by employing methods that cause the entire institution to become accountable to students and the community. An eight-point plan for change is considered. For a college to be successfully accountable, change must be planned and incorporated into a management strategy. The effectiveness of the strategies advocated in this report depends on the strength of the college president, the total support of him by the college board, and a suitable time period in which to implement programs. The accountability model presented in this report is applicable to any community college if implemented within a broad, flexible framework of planned change. Case studies of accountability development at various community colleges are cited.
Accountability and the Community College

Directions for the 70's

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Accountability is becoming an increasingly popular and controversial concept among educators. Accountability is both fundamental and complex; it can be applied to the activities of an individual, a department, a division, or an institution. To some people accountability suggests finance and business operations; others think of instruction and student learning. In practice accountability can apply to these and many other activities. Judging from the growing number of magazine and newspaper articles, it is indeed an idea whose time has come.

A favorite question is, “Why has accountability suddenly become popular in certain educational circles?” After all, the concept has been around for many years. Perhaps the best explanation for the historic rejection of the concept is what might be called educational determinism and the consequent acceptance of student failure. Simply stated, educational determinism is the belief that people have a predetermined capacity for learning, a capacity best defined by intelligence quotient. This being the case, it is reasonable and acceptable that an increasing number of students will fail as they climb the educational ladder. Or, to put it in the language of Darwinism, in the educational jungle only the fittest survive. Until recently this belief in a limited and predetermined capacity to learn precluded the idea of accountability for learning. How could anyone, with the possible exception of the learner who might be lazy and therefore fail to utilize all of his capacity, be held accountable for something determined by divine will or the chance of heredity? It would certainly be unreasonable to hold educators accountable for something over which they had no control.

Currently this belief in educational determinism is being discarded by a growing number of people. Studies have revealed self-fulfilling tendencies in the measurement of student achievement when educators are informed in advance of student “intelligence quotients” or “learning abilities.” Furthermore, in many colleges students have been graded in accordance with normal curve distributions, another way of demonstrating that only a few students can really excel at learning. But now, given the evidence of many studies and the re-examination of basic beliefs about learning, many notable educational researchers and writers are arguing that almost all students can learn if a variety of instructional approaches are available and if sufficient time is allowed each student. Now the question becomes, “Why do so many students fail?”

The re-orientation in beliefs about learning and what can reasonably be expected of students, schools, and edu-
cation has led to a growing interest in accountability. No longer is widespread student failure and attrition acceptable. As Charles E. Silberman so aptly states in his recent book, *Crisis in the Classroom*, "It is only when men sense the possibility of improvement, in fact, that they become dissatisfied with their situation and rebel against it."

The authors of this excellent publication describe in detail the concept of accountability and how it can be applied to instruction in community colleges. Consequently, it is worthwhile reading both for a community college policy-maker interested in learning more about the concept and an administrator who has the responsibility of applying accountability to the educational program of a community college. It will also be of interest to anyone who is dissatisfied with the present situation in their community college and wants to do more than just rebel against it.

*Richard E. Wilson*
1. The Concept of Accountability

During the sixties the schools were challenged increasingly not only for their contemporary failures, nor even for the fact that they have always failed the poor and the dispossessed, but because they were positively destructive influences for many of the children entrusted to their care. Questions were raised as to whether any institution that enjoys a virtual monopoly can remain sensitive and responsive to the changing needs of its diverse clientele. And some of the more radical critics were questioning the traditional concept of schooling itself in an age when knowledge is accessible from so many different sources. Clearly, at the end of the decade, the nation was experiencing a crisis of confidence in its schools.


Introduction: A Crisis of Public Confidence

American education is facing a crucial hour. The multibillion dollar system is now imperiled by its own dramatic failure to produce effective and pertinent learning; the nation's welfare is threatened by the fact that education seems incapable of meeting the needs of increasingly large numbers of citizens. Simultaneously, the American public is becoming more concerned and less patient. Disenchanted taxpayers, considering the vast resources already lavished upon education, are beginning to wonder what they are getting for their tax money. Across the nation voters are rejecting school bond issues, and parents are demanding evidence that students have been provided the knowledge necessary to become contributing members of society.

In a March 1970 speech, former Commissioner of Education James Allen observed, "The people have a right to be assured that ... increasingly large investments in public education ... will produce results." [Washington Post] Former Associate Commissioner of Education Leon M. Lessinger has clearly expressed the crisis of public confidence: "The American education system today is experiencing the most sustained, diverse, widespread, and persistent challenge ever to confront it. Virtually everyone agrees that something has gone wrong, that corrective action is needed." [Lessinger, February 1970:1]

Education's Failures and Society's Ills

Every year more than one million young people are condemned to live non-productive lives because they either drop out of school or graduate without the knowledge and skills necessary to participate effectively in a complex and
competitive society. In poverty-stricken urban areas, dropout rates reach 70 per cent. While governmental education expenditures exceed $65 billion a year, and dollar costs per student year have nearly doubled in the past decade, there are an estimated 15 million functionally illiterate students in this country. [Performance Contracting:36] In one year, one third of the youth who failed the Armed Forces Qualification Test had high school diplomas; yet, that test is based on fifth- and sixth-grade levels of reading and mathematics. [Performance Contracting:43]

Don Davies, associate commissioner for education, expressed it this way:

... every citizen pays a price in money, in uncertainty, in fear, and in social problems for the school failures, the dropouts, the under-educated. The price we pay as a nation is so heavy that we are forced, as Commissioner Allen has said, 'to move or to face disaster.' [Davies:12]

A Call for Educational Accountability

A new approach to public education was declared in significant portions of the President's March 3, 1970, education message to Congress and in his March 24, 1970, message to the nation on desegregation. The President's education policy reflected recommendations made to White House advisors by former Associate Commissioner for Elementary and Secondary Education Leon Lessinger before he left the U.S. Office of Education in January 1970. [Turnkey News, May 1970:5] Lessinger's recommendations were based partly on the conclusions of a report he had commissioned on his concept of educational engineering. The report, "Educational Engineering: Managing Environmental and Institutional Change to Increase Educational Productivity" [Turnkey News, May 1970:5], reinforced the findings of the earlier (July 1966) Coleman Report. [Coleman, 1966]

The Education Engineering Report indicated that the disparity of cultural backgrounds and skills between socio-economic classes makes "equal opportunity" a sham. Those who have already been deprived of opportunities to develop culturally cannot achieve equal educational results even when they are provided identical schooling. It declared that a policy of educational equality must consider inputs (racial balance, comparability of resources), but that true equality can be judged only by outputs (equity of results). The President expressed this idea in his desegregation statement: "If our schools fail to educate, then whatever they may achieve in integrating the races will turn out to be only a Pyrrhic victory." [Turnkey News, May 1970:6]

Low productivity and mounting problems of the educational system were cited, showing that costs have increased astronomically while performance levels have remained the same or declined. The report stated that those in charge seem unable to help themselves, even though the system is sinking under its own organizational weight. It further suggested that the problems of education are more likely to be solved by concentrating on outputs (measurable student learning) rather than on inputs (money, classrooms, teachers). As the President said: "There is only one important question to be asked about education. What do the children learn?" [Turnkey News, May 1970:5]

The report advanced the idea that schools should be evaluated and educators held accountable on the basis of student performance. The President stated: "Success should be measured, not by some fixed national norm, but rather by the results achieved in relation to the particular set of pupils." [Turnkey News, May 1970:6]

The notion that holding educators accountable for results might provide the incentive necessary for educational improvement was indeed controversial. Some viewed it as an heretical threat to academic prerogatives. Others hailed it as belated recognition that schools can no longer be operated as an end in themselves and that education, like other professions, must respond to society's pressing needs.
Accountability in Action
Lessinger, now Calloway Professor of Urban Education at Georgia State University, has been called “the most vociferous spokesman, if not the father of accountability.” [Schwartz, June 1970:31] During the 1968 Congressional hearings on the Federal Compensatory Education Program, many Congressmen questioned the effects of federal education expenditures. Lessinger promised results and became one of the first officials to stop “feeding the system rather than questioning it.” [Meade;4] He gave form to the concept of accountability by requiring that projects funded under Titles VII and VIII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act produce predictable and measurable results that could be certified by independent audit. Lessinger said, “the fact that many results of education are not subject to audit should not deter us from dealing precisely with those aspects that lend themselves to precise definition and assessment.” [Elam:510]

Lessinger is devoted to the idea of educational program audits designed to measure student learning performance resulting from financial outlays. [Lessinger, Nation’s Schools, June 1970:33] He currently is developing an Institute for Education Auditing that will assist school systems in accounting for the results of educational programs. [Education Recaps:1] Lessinger claims, “...educational accountability can be implemented successfully only if educational objectives are clearly stated... One mechanism for ensuring clarity in objectives is the performance contract.” [Lessinger, May 1970:52]

Performance contracts are by far the most controversial aspect of accountability. The leading spokesman for the contracting-accountability movement is Charles L. Blaschke, president of Education Turnkey Systems, Inc., of Washington, D.C. He describes performance contracting “…as a tool to insure accountability; because accountability requires results...” [Turnkey News, May 1970:2]

The performance contract concept is simple. A school system contracts with a private corporation which guarantees to conduct a learning program that will increase student performance by a stated number of grade levels during a specified time period and for a specified cost. Payment is prorated in accordance with the contractor’s success in fulfilling his guarantee.

Blaschke participated in the widely publicized Texarkana Project. The unpretentious southwestern city of Texarkana, besieged by educational problems similar to those rampant in other school systems across the nation, became the center of academic attention in early 1969 when it chose to become a “guinea pig” for guaranteed learning. Blaschke “was instrumental in getting a $5 million dropout-prevention proposal approved by the U.S. Office of Education, thus putting the Texarkana Project in business...” [Elam:511]

In September 1969 Dorsett Educational Systems was selected from a group of ten companies that had competed for a contract to operate Texarkana’s Rapid Learning Centers. These companies had guaranteed to increase the math or reading performance of approximately 400 deficient students by one grade level in a specified time for a predetermined cost.

Private industry’s penetration in Texarkana of the multibillion-dollar public education system started a nationwide trend. School systems seeking low-cost dropout prevention followed the Texarkana example. By mid-summer 1970 more than 30 new performance contract projects had been federally funded. [Schwartz, August 1970:31] Major cities including Detroit, Dallas, San Diego, Portland, Philadelphia, and Gary, Indiana, became centers of contracting activity; Virginia began consulting with private industry for state-wide school instruction. Announcements of conferences on performance contracting and accountability blossomed in the pages of educational journals. Newspaper articles proclaimed, “Private Companies Seek Chance to Prove Results of
The Challenge of Accountability

Many educators fail to perceive the challenge implicit in the fact that performance contracting is being hailed as the companion to an increasingly powerful concept of accountability. They dismiss Texarkana-style projects as remedial in nature and attribute reports of student performance gains to such causes as temporary achievement spurts or inaccurate evaluations founded on statistical regression. They smile knowingly at tales of alleged irregularities that may have contaminated test results and invalidated reports. [Turnkey News, July 1970:1] Venerable educators know that private industry did not achieve power by playing "Pollyanna" to disadvantaged citizens. When corporations compete for a chance to perform a job that academic professionals have been unable to accomplish, educators are skeptical.

Skepticism could prove dangerous. Supposing industry can do the job of education better and cheaper? Federal funds are available to support private ventures; industry seems confident that modern technology makes educational reform both possible and profitable; experts stand ready to assist school districts in preparing well planned performance contracts and in evaluating results through independent audits. The American public desperately seeks answers to critical education problems and is in a mood to grasp at any tangible evidence of accountability. Will educators see that the performance-contracting challenge is real and pick up the gauntlet?

Inevitable Accountability

Whether we like it or not, we have already entered what Lessinger calls "the age of accountability in education." [Lessinger, June-July 1970:1] Rather than respond defensively by regarding accountability as a threat, we should adopt it positively as a professional responsibility.

Accountability is nothing more than a commonly accepted ethic that we expect from other professions and enforce by regulation in many segments of our society. Education's acquired right to control the processes of our schools rests upon a willingness to meet the needs of public clients. "Governance is based on responsibility, and responsibility implies accountability... If (educators) default on the question of accountability... they will lose their right to govern and will become... technicians..." [Meade:10]

Necessity for change is a stark fact of life. Change may bring trauma, but change is inevitable. "Academic freedom will be preserved only so long as it has social utility..." [Millett] Tenure and tradition cannot stop an idea whose time has come.

The concept of accountability requires change. "...It means changing the institutions which control education..." [Davies:11] Accountability demands that educators change their attitudes, renew their creativity, and respond to society's needs by re-establishing public confidence in education.

Accountability is particularly applicable to "open door" two-year colleges that contain a variety of students from diverse educational backgrounds.

What Accountability Means to Community Colleges

The word accountability is laden with a host of meanings. It may seem threatening and unreasonable to educators who are reluctant to accept responsibility for academically inept and poorly motivated students; it might be viewed as a fashionable slogan by those with a penchant for launching naive attacks upon academe's disordered strongholds; it has profound implications for community colleges. In the following paragraphs four essential characteristics of accountability will be discussed.

1 Accountability Accents Results:

Accountability aims squarely at what comes out of an education system.
rather than at what goes into it. If educational institutions exist primarily to cause learning, then educators should scrutinize the results of their efforts. Teaching causes learning. If no learning occurs, no teaching has taken place!

Why speak glowingly of academic buildings and salaries when the failures of the education system contribute to social discord and violence? Educators must remove their heads from the sands of irrelevance or risk becoming irrelevant themselves.

Lessinger has stated succinctly the urgent need for accenting results:

...the American educational commitment has been that every child should have an adequate education. This commitment has been stated in terms of resources such as teachers, books, space, and equipment. When a child has failed to learn, school personnel have assigned him a label—"slow," or "unmotivated," or "retarded." Our schools must assume a revised commitment—that every child shall learn. Such a commitment includes the willingness to change a system which does not work, and find one which does; to seek causes of failure in the system and its personnel instead of focusing solely on students; in short, to hold the school accountable for results in terms of student learning rather than solely in the use of resources. [Lessinger, February 1970:1]

(2) Accountability Requires Measurement: Accountability suggests that we stop counting the number of volumes in the library, quit measuring square footage per full-time student, and start looking at how well students are being taught. We must use relevant criteria to evaluate teaching. Learning, the only valid evidence of teaching, can be further defined as a change in behavior. If specific behavioral objectives are established, educators can be held accountable for students who are able to demonstrate learning by acting in ways that were impossible before teaching took place.

In January 1970 Lessinger quantified accountability in easily understood terms:

If an air conditioning contractor promises that his installation will reduce interior temperatures 20 degrees below outside temperatures, it takes only an accurate thermometer to determine if the promise has been met. Similarly, if an educational manager promises that all children attending his school will be able to read 200 words per minute with 90 per cent comprehension on their twelfth birthday, as measured by a specific test, simply giving the test to all children on their twelfth birthday will readily reveal if the promise has been fulfilled. [Lessinger, May 1970:52]

Although learning cannot always be measured as easily and as accurately as in Lessinger's example, modern educational techniques enable us to achieve acceptable evidence of learning. The concept of accountability is based on specifically defined objectives, measurement techniques that determine exactly what the teacher intends to accomplish, and instructional methods that guarantee most students will obtain the objectives.

(3) Accountability Assumes and Shifts Responsibility: Accountability assumes responsibility for the success or failure of individual schools and pupils. [Meade:3] Students have traditionally been held responsible through tests and recitations for whatever they may or may not have learned. Accountability shifts the emphasis of that responsibility away from the student.

Another associate commissioner, Don Davies, has said:

This concept of accountability links student performance with teacher performance... It means... that schools and colleges will be judged by how they perform not by what they promise. It means... shifting primary learning responsibility from the student to the school. It also means that a lot of people are going to be shaken up. [Davies:11]
Accountability Permeates the College Community: Although some people (as Mr. Davies predicts) may be shaken up, teachers should not become scapegoats. Teachers cannot be accountable unless the concept of accountability permeates the entire spectrum of institutional responsibility.

In a broad sense accountability means that boards of trustees, presidents, administrators, and teachers will be held responsible for the performance of their students. [Schwartz, June 1970: 31]

Accountability implies that two-year colleges must be accountable externally to the community, and that colleges must be accountable internally to the students who pass through their open doors. This state is achieved when students from the community enter the college, find a program that is compatible with their goals, persist in college until the goal is reached, and then become productive members of the community.

In short, the entire college body including the board, the president, the administration, the students, and the instructors will become accountable to the community served by the college.

Conclusion

Accountability is far more than a glib term or "in" word. It is an operational concept "that comes to grips with the notion that schools and colleges should shoulder responsibility for . . . their pupils." [Davies:11] Accountability is a privilege—not a burden. It calls forth the best within us. It challenges us to examine our purposes, to find better ways to make education responsible to the society that pays the bills. It holds equal promise for all of education's clients, "those who come to school well prepared to share its benefits, and those who have nothing in their backgrounds that would equip them for a successful learning experience." [Davies:11]

Accountability is inevitable because it is needed so desperately.
2. The Community College: Unfulfilled Promises?

An October 1970 issue of Time contained an education feature entitled "Open Admissions: American Dream or Disaster?" The article expressed the notion that an "open access" policy could either "invigorate colleges" or lead to "academic disaster," and pointed out that education officials meeting at the American Council on Education in St. Louis displayed opposing attitudes toward a policy of open admissions. "To some it seemed a triumph of democracy; to others an omen that colleges may soon be overwhelmed with the wrong kind of students." [Time: 63-66]

Are ignorant, culturally deprived, and poverty-stricken youth the "wrong" kind of students? Should they be branded undesirable because they are academically inept and need education desperately? The American academic system is already on the brink of disaster because of the "wrong" kind of educators. Why fear the "wrong" kind of students? Overwhelming educational inefficiency can be traced to archaic attitudes and self-serving institutional callousness. Arthur Cohen in Dateline '79 pictures traditional faculty members making "desperate attempts to plant sprigs of ivy at the gates so that the barbarians will be dissuaded from entering." [Cohen: xvii]

The time for "planting ivy" has passed; the gates are open. Educators must leave their comfortable retreats and become accountable by joining the ranks of other professions in a common effort to solve national problems. A tangible expression of educational accountability in the form of honest "open door" policies supported by a willingness to assume responsibility for student learning may be the only way to prevent "academic disaster."

Historical Foundations of the Community College

The community college in the United States has been described as the only educational institution that can truly be considered an American social invention. [Gleazer, 1963: 3] Sometimes called "democracy's college," it adopted a philosophy of equal educational opportunity for all and espoused an ideal of open admissions.

The community college is not an offshoot of classical higher education in America. Its ancestry can be traced to 19th century educational innovations developed to fill needs that traditional institutions of higher learning could not meet. The classical colleges, with their limited curricula, existed to transmit culture and class values to a privileged elite. Those institutions were neither willing nor able to respond to 19th century industrial and social demands for broader curricula, and choices of subject matter including business, technical, and agricultural
courses. The nation's educational framework had to be supplemented with additional colleges and different types of institutions. Land grant colleges, created by the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862, gave substance to the concept that each individual, regardless of his economic or social status, should have the opportunity to progress educationally as far as his interests and abilities might permit. [Roueche, 1968]

The belief in extending educational opportunities to all people led to a philosophy of the "open door" that has become the hallmark of the community college movement. Its democratic style, positive philosophy, and social promise appealed to the American people and won great popularity and support. The unprecedented educational benefits accompanying the G.I. Bill of Rights after World War II further enhanced and expanded the community college movement. [Gleazer, 1970:47]

Philosophical Foundations of the Community College

In addition to the idea that universal higher education is the right of any person who can profit from it, the community college movement was also founded on the conviction that colleges exist to serve the society that supports them.

A democratic society cannot sustain itself without a well educated citizenry capable of influencing its destiny in a responsible manner. The increasing polarization and violence of American society emphasize the need for more education for all citizens. Education's role in enhancing the civic competence of the American people is crucial to the nation's economic, social, and cultural welfare. Education helps to equalize opportunity by stressing the concept of individual worth and serving as a vehicle for personal and social advancement.

The pending crisis in American society represents a particular challenge to the community college because it is more closely identified with social needs than is any other segment of higher education.

National Need for Community Colleges

The community college movement is much more than a democratically inspired attempt to meet educational demands that have been ignored by other institutions of higher learning. Post-secondary education in the United States today is a vital national need—not a luxury. Community colleges are in a unique position to answer that need.

The role of unskilled workers becomes less important as technological society grows more complex. There are few jobs available for high school graduates who possess no other training. [Cohen:54] Conversely, there is an insistent national demand for manpower trained in sophisticated skills. The obsolete concept of scarcity of educational opportunity is not applicable to highly developed nations. At one point in its history, this country needed only a few highly educated persons and thus provided economic support for only a small number of students to complete advanced education. The academic system was designed to select the talented few and to reject the majority. Today the nation cannot afford to waste human resources. Educational institutions must impart essential skills to all students. [Bloom:2]

In an age of burgeoning enrollments and increasingly selective admissions at senior colleges and universities, the community college's familiar role of meeting the educational needs of society becomes more and more important. While the university continues to cater to relatively homogeneous groups from a dominant stratum of society, the community college embraces a heterogeneous group that represents a cross section of the total population. [Lombardi] Two-year college students are more likely to come from the lower two-thirds of the socioeconomic spectrum. The "open door" is a matter of national concern, for the community college performs a vital service in removing barriers to education.
Geographic location of academic institutions is a crucial factor in education. (Most community college student bodies are localized within fifteen miles of the campus.) Colleges constructed within commuting distance of potential students extend educational accessibility to the total population and facilitate attainment of our national goal of universal higher education. [Roueche, 1968] And the fact that community college fees are either modest or non-existent removes financial barriers and provides an economical avenue to higher education. However, even if all geographical and financial barriers could be eliminated, racial minorities, women, and children from low socioeconomic classes would still be sparsely represented. [Cross:5] These groups contain human talents that cannot be wasted even though potential students might be poorly motivated. The concept of accountability demands active efforts to seek, recruit, enroll, and retain every possible student in the community; the community college must "make readily available, programs of education... that match a wide spectrum of community needs and relate economically to the total pattern of educational opportunity in the area." [Wattenbarger:2]

The Challenge of the Open Door

Today more than two million students are enrolled in community colleges. Over 1000 two-year colleges already exist in this country and more are being added at the rate of one per week. [Time:65] The community college movement has solid historical and philosophical foundations. It occupies a unique position and seems to promise a solution for many of the nation's pressing social and educational needs. The community college is now faced with the critical challenge of becoming accountable for its unfulfilled potential by translating ideals into reality.

The open-door policy of the community-junior college implies acceptance of the concept of universal higher education. The basic criteria for admission is graduation from high school; however, all individuals 18 years of age and older, who appear capable of profiting from instruction, are usually eligible for admission. Community colleges have become the primary vehicle for social and economic advancement for the lower two-thirds of the population. The typical student body is an extremely heterogeneous and diverse group that is often drawn from backgrounds characterized by low economic and social status, low educational achievement, marginal employment, and limited participation in community organizations. Students from these environments are disadvantaged to the degree that their culture has failed to provide them with experiences typical of the youth that traditional colleges are accustomed to teaching. The community college must recognize, however, that a considerable number of disadvantaged, low-aptitude students in its student body creates diverse problems that necessitate drastic modifications in traditional instructional techniques, as well as require an expanded curriculum.

Unfortunately, few community colleges faced with these problems have lived up to their bright promise. The "open door" is too often a glib admissions statement rather than a true concept of accountable reality.

Unfulfilled Promises

Although the community college movement should be credited with pursuing the ideal of universal higher education, accountability demands that the success of that venture be judged by results. Student success (both persistence and achievement in college) is the only accurate measure of the open door.

Attrition rates at community colleges generally are alarming. The typical urban community college reports annual student dropout rates of more than 50 per cent. [Cohen:5] As many as 75 per cent of low-achieving students withdraw during their first year. [Schenz:141] In one typical California public junior college, 80 per cent of the enter-
ing students enrolled in remedial English, but only 20 per cent matriculated into regular college English classes. [Bossone:1] Remedial courses are generally poorly designed, poorly taught, and seldom evaluated carefully.

The problem of unacceptable attrition has led critics to refer cynically to the open door as a "revolving door." The obvious lack of accountability behind these shocking attrition rates seems particularly reprehensible when one realizes that they reflect the shattered hopes of disadvantaged youth who were led to believe that the open door offered them a chance. "There is a marked difference between allowing a student to learn and taking responsibility for the direction and extent of that learning." [Cohen:8]

The glaring inadequacies of many community college programs should lead educators to seek new approaches geared to individual learning and learning deficiencies. If community college instructors can be taught to become effective teachers, and are willing to be held accountable for student learning, the promise of the open door can be fulfilled. Unfortunately, there is a decided difference between the attitudes of many community college instructors and the attitudes that must be developed if they are ever to become effective teachers of community college students. [Rouche, 1968] A national survey of community colleges revealed the discouraging evidence that, although 91 per cent of the institutions espoused the concept of the open door, only 55 per cent provided programs appropriate for non-traditional students. [Schenz:22]

Inappropriate Attitudes

Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., writing in the winter 1970 issue of the Educational Record, stated:

I am increasingly impatient with people who ask whether a student is "college material." We are not building a college with the student. The question we ought to ask is whether the college is . . . student material. It is the student we are building, and it is the function of the college to facilitate that process. We have him as he is, rather than as we wish he were . . . we are still calling for much more change in the student than we are in the faculty . . . Can we come up with . . . the professional attitudes . . . [necessary to] put us into the business of tapping pools of human talent not yet touched? [Gleazer, 1970:51]

This clear statement of accountability strikes at the heart of the community college problem. The promise of the "open door" will never be realized until teachers change their attitudes and accept the professional responsibility of becoming accountable for students. When educators point a finger at the "wrong" kind of student, their own three fingers point back at the "wrong" kind of educators!

Accountability must permeate every level of the institution, but the individual instructor is by far the most important element in the success of community college programs. [American Association of Junior Colleges:62-63]

Unfortunately, the typical faculty member is seldom in complete accord with the generally acknowledged purposes or with the principles of admission applying in most community colleges. [Medsker:185] Although some teachers appear genuinely concerned about the high rate of student attrition, many simply attribute the dropout rate to the notion that the students were not "college material." [National Conference on the Teaching of English:32] How can a unique, multi-purpose institution catering to a highly non-traditional student body be successful if the faculty—who are the key element in implementing the purposes of the institution—do not agree with those purposes?

The typical community college faculty member is a subject matter specialist. The instructor is usually male, a full-time instructor, and a former elementary or secondary school teacher. [Medsker:171-73] His graduate education has developed his interests and
abilities along a narrow spectrum. This faculty member is "academically inclined," finding his greatest satisfaction in transmitting the knowledge of his chosen discipline to able students who can comprehend and appreciate his discipline. This accounts in large part for the instructor's preference for teaching advanced and specialized courses: they afford him the opportunity to teach that which he knows best.

Few community college instructors have had any preparation for teaching in that unique institution. [Cohen and Brawer] Most have served internships in schools other than junior colleges; they do not understand the community college setting and tend to think of it in terms of their own senior college or university experience. Thus, these instructors cannot fulfill the responsibilities imposed by the open door if they insist upon "aping the practices of . . . universities which were designed <in other times to provide services to different populations." [Cohen: xvii]

Four-year institutions undoubtedly serve a necessary and valuable educational function. They are selectively geared to upper socioeconomic levels and the upper third of the student population. They are research oriented and pursue the task of advancing basic knowledge rather than providing training for immediate job application. While the defined task of the university faculty member includes teaching, this is essentially subordinate to his other functions. [Blocker:144] Traditional four-year institutions are neither willing nor equipped to offer educational opportunity to all—especially when increasing numbers of those individuals seeking higher education lack the academic prerequisites for successful performance.

The community college is not a basic research institution nor a home for a "community" of scholars. The main function of the community college instructor is to teach; he must be committed to this role and specialize in instructional processes. [Cohen:21] He must be willing to be held accountable for student learning.

Like their university counterparts, community college instructors are concerned about "status" and being properly identified with higher education. They "view themselves as members of a profession in which they are independent practitioners who specialize in interaction with students in groups." [Cohen:96] They may believe that the "person of the instructor" has some intrinsic "worth in itself" [Cohen:x] and many cherish the center stage role of dispensing knowledge to the less learned. They fail to understand that being identified with higher education does not automatically confer respect, and that "an instructor is worth only as much as he contributes to the purposes of the institution." [Cohen: 45]

If instructors feel that teaching specialized and advanced courses affords them prestige, while the onerous chore of teaching remedial or developmental courses is below their dignity, they certainly do not belong in community colleges.

Accountability demands that the best qualified instructors available be assigned to well organized courses of remedial instruction. Those who believe in the philosophy of the community college should seek personal and professional prestige by carrying out the promise of the open door. Yet it is the inexperienced instructor, without preparation or understanding of the basic objectives of the course, who is most often found in remedial classrooms. [Bossone:12-13]

Many community college instructors persist in the practice of norm-referenced testing and curve-based grade-marking practices, even though these archaic mechanisms were designed to screen and sort students in the days when only a talented elite merited higher education. These traditional methods assume from the start that all will not succeed. [Cohen:86] Such practices have no place in any community college that is willing to open its doors and be accountable for the learning of all students.
Research has shown that specifying learning objectives in precise terms and using well organized, self-paced instructional sequences to reach those objectives can guarantee learning for up to 90 per cent of all students. [Bloom:1] Yet many community college instructors resist the very methods that could help them become accountable for student learning. Some are reluctant to give up their “star” role and fear a loss of status in becoming a “manager of learning” rather than a “dispenser of wisdom.” [Cohen:100] Others seem unwilling to do the considerable work necessary to systematically organize self-paced instruction. They prefer to hide behind “a feeling of elitism manifest in such statements as ‘Hold me accountable for their learning? They don’t belong in college anyway! In my day we had to work for what we got!’” [Cohen:199]

Changed attitudes are the key to fulfilling the promise of the open door.

Conclusion

If the community college is to meet the nation’s desperate educational needs and fulfill the promise of the open door, a genuine acceptance of accountability must permeate all levels of the institutional spectrum. This will require changes in the attitudes of governance and administrative officials and even more drastic changes in the attitudes of instructors. “Administrators can supervise . . . and make assistance available, but instructors must implement the process. If teachers refuse to spell out ends or to accept accountability for their being achieved, the enterprise will not succeed.” [Cohen:201]

Community colleges can no longer exist selfishly as ends in themselves, stifled by obsolete traditions and ignoring their democratic heritage. Their calling is too dynamic and too important to be rejected in favor of posing pathetically as poor cousins of the university.

Faculty members and administrators must change their attitudes and work together to gear curriculum to student achievement, to define objectives, and to accept accountability for their efforts. By “guaranteeing some form of minimum educational achievement” they can turn their institutions into places where learning takes place. By working toward equality of educational results they can transform their communities and fulfill the unique promise of the open-door community college philosophy.
3. Needed Change: Directions

The Success Factors of Change

The first chapter of this monograph examined the concept of accountability, while the second focused on the need for accountability in the community college. This chapter develops a rationale for change in the community college.

Peter Schrag has said, "Education...is the American religion. Thus, if the school system fails, so does the promise of equality, so does the dream of a classless society, so does our security against the inequalities of society." [Schrag: 68] Thus, in the face of threatened failure and in the mounting indictment of failure by the American public, new strategies are needed. Change is being mandated.

Planned change in the two-year college has been inhibited primarily by two factors. First, the barriers to change have been more formidable than the forces launched to bring it about. And second, few if any internal and/or external forces have been applied in order to change the two-year college by a comprehensive attack on the whole. The change strategies presented in this monograph were designed to breach the barriers to change by employing techniques which cause the entire institution to become accountable to the students and to the community it serves.

B. Lamar Johnson has referred to the changeable environment of the two-year college:

"The junior college seems to me to offer the best chance to stimulate genuinely fresh investigations, and then to do something about the answers. Free of the rigid traditions which tie most schools and colleges to their administration and instructional arrangements, junior colleges can tinker with all sorts of new ideas and put them to work in their classrooms." [Johnson, March 1969:34]

According to Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., executive director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, many common practices very narrowly restrict the learning process. Among the practices specifically cited were excessive reliance on the lecture method; prescribed amounts of material to be covered in a given period; reliance primarily on textbooks; and the organization of the school year—semester hours, credits, grade point averages. Gleazer demands that colleges examine the needs of students and, with the students' active participation, develop programs which meet the needs of the student. [Gleazer, 1970:51]

Whether by putting new ideas to work in the classroom or by developing programs which better meet the needs of students, the very act of initiating change would find traditional barriers
broken and new tools and procedures employed. An examination of barriers to change and a basic rationale for change will be presented in the remainder of this chapter.

Barriers to Change

The factors that inhibit change have been identified by Watson [1966:15], Evans [1967:181], McClelland [1968: 8-9], and Chin [1970:43] as follows:

1. Despite rapid social change, forces favoring the status quo in education remain strong as ever.
2. There are no precise goals set for educational institutions.
3. There is no established, systematic approach in the educational process.
4. Teacher education programs have failed to develop the skills and knowledge needed for innovations.
5. Teachers have failed to develop in themselves the habits of scholarship necessary to stay abreast of the knowledge explosion.
6. Evaluation and revision based on feedback are absent in educational institutions.
7. Many educators are reticent, suspicious, and fearful of change.
8. Complex management and funding problems always cost more than simple, divisible problems.

Attempts to clarify vague educational goals, to improve the effectiveness of ill-equipped teachers and administrators, and to establish systematic instructional methods and evaluative mechanisms are likely to be met with fear and suspicion by faculty members and administrators. Faced with these barriers, real educational change can occur only through a comprehensive attack on the total institution.

B. Othanel Smith has outlined the elements necessary to attack the whole institution.

If a fraction of the money that is currently being spent to change education were spent to find out how to succeed in making such change, a great deal would thereby be saved. Few things would be of greater signifnicance to education today than a group of behavioral scientists working with a group of practitioners in an effort to change significant aspects of the educational system [Smith: 9-10].

Agreeing with Smith, and based on the change strategies of Goodlad [1968], Griffiths [1964], Guba [1968], and McClelland [1968], the authors have developed a model for change which holds these assumptions central:

1. Change starts at the level of the individual college.
2. The president must be the educational leader of the college.
3. The president needs outside help to initiate and to accelerate change within his college.
4. The president and his outside assistants must devise methods to combat both internal and external restraints, as well as individual fear and insecurity.
5. The president, with the assistance of outside reinforcements, must provide in-service training for personnel requiring new skills.
6. The devising of new programs must be viewed as a natural and ongoing process. Self-renewal is essential.
7. The president and his outside assistants must devise a plan which calls for the eventual withdrawal of the consultants' influence.
8. The success of new developmental programs must be documented, so that models are available for new and developing colleges.

This eight point plan will now be considered in detail.

Key Unit for Change

The key unit for change is the individual community college and its president, administrators, instructors, parents, board of trustees, students, and the community it serves. Goodwin Watson [Watson: 52] points out that change in any part of a system is likely to have effects on the other parts. The structural relationships of the college are critical to the overall effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the instructional pro-
cess. A climate of mutual support for the collective goals of the institution is essential.

If the institution is to undertake a program of educational development, it should be the governing board—whether acting on the advice of the educational leader or in the absence of strong internal leadership—which establishes the policy giving priority to instructional improvement. Whether the formulation of this policy results from the governing board's initiative or from administrative recommendations is of secondary importance, so long as the board members understand their roles. Working jointly with the president, the board might be expected to establish policy to:

1. Develop goals that accommodate the needs of students, parents of students, and the community as a whole.
2. Recommend programs which should be undertaken by the college to meet the goals of the institution.
3. Direct the implementation of systematic research to determine the level of achievement of stated goals.
4. Direct the allocation of resources consistent with stated goals.
5. Maintain community support for and participation in the programs operated by the college.

Educational Leadership

The president must assume the role of educational leader and be held accountable by his board of trustees for the success of the programs of the college.

The Social Educational Research and Development, Inc. (SERD) report entitled Effective Vocational Educational Programs for Disadvantaged Secondary Level Students [1968:222] determined that, in most cases where positive relationships were found to exist within an institution, it was the overall climate established by the educational leader (president) that made the program successful. Effective educational leadership in the community college requires an individual of unique talents. Cohen and Roueche reported that while most authors support the concept of educational leadership, few reach the point of defining the term in a functional way. [Cohen and Roueche:1] The definition of educational leadership is an elusive task; it can be best expressed in functional terms. The SERD report indicated that successful leaders were in continuous informal communication with the staff, community employees, funding agencies, and students. [Effective Vocational . . . 1968:222] The research of Guba and Bidwell [Guba and Bidwell:65-66] supports the view that the leader of an institution is the communication link between the community and the classroom; their studies demonstrated that the operation of an organization appeared to be dependent upon the perceptions of the organization's administrators. Innovations in organizational procedure, changes in organizational structure, and shifts in personnel proceed largely from the administrator's evaluation of the effectiveness of these aspects of the organization.

The president's world view, his structure of needs, and his values and reference-group identification all play a key role in his willingness to accept and support change, as well as his ability to delineate institutional goals. [Guba, 65-66]

Robert Lahti, president of William Rainey Harper College, cites the crisis of educational leadership in this way: "The complexity of today's management problems and of the systems devised to solve them has created a new profession, one of the few important ones, by the way, for which little or no formal training is available." [Lahti, May 1970:62]

Lahti stresses that the leadership and management skills commonly needed by the president include the acceptance of responsibility, the ability to make decisions, and the need to understand and set the goals for the institution. [Lahti, May 1970:66]

Simon adds the president's role in faculty leadership to the list. Teachers must be taught how to teach. According to Simon, teachers must be led...
away from an "accrued amateur status" to one where teachers become "learning specialists." [Simon:77-8]

The strategic focus for change within the community college is vested with the president. The president must assume the role of educational leader in the areas of instruction, administration, student services, finance, and community support. The president needs help in defining and developing those skills which enable him to determine most effectively the range and management of his role: (1) to develop and manage college programs which meet student and community needs; (2) to develop administrative policies and procedures which hold instructors accountable for student learning; (3) to establish financial priorities to support programs; (4) to initiate changes in the academic operating structures to accommodate different learning rates of students.

When the president leads actively, the roles and impact of vice presidents, deans, department chairmen, registrars, and business managers will very quickly conform to the goals which the president and his board have made explicit.

**Outside Expertise**

In order for institutional change to occur at an accelerated pace, the president needs the support of specialists in junior college education, management, and developmental research.

Griffiths has observed that the major impetus for change in organizations comes from the outside and that the degree and duration of change is directly proportional to the intensity of the stimulus supplied by the outside force. [Griffiths:524-536] Lippet, Watson, and Westly agree that the external change agent must operate within the client organization for a period of time in order to initiate and stabilize innovation. [Lippet, Watson, and Westly, 1958] Watson agrees that most innovation in education results from pressures from outside the institution [Watson:44]; Donald E. Tope, writing in *Change Process in Public Schools*, fears that the chief administrator cannot act at the same time as an "advocate for change" and as an institutional "mediator." [Tope:90] Cohen and Roueche disagree. They place the responsibility for change squarely on the shoulders of the president: "The president must ultimately accept responsibility (and be accountable) for bringing about educational change in his institution." [Cohen and Roueche:29]

Bennis concludes that the external change agent provides perspective, detachment, and energy, while the internal change agent possesses the intimate knowledge of the institution and the power to legitimize recommendations, which the external agent lacks. [Bennis, 1966]

Instructional designs and strategies suited particularly to the unique mission of the two-year college have not yet evolved, the result, perhaps, of the failure of many community colleges to consider the real need for strong internal leadership and to a paucity of outside expertise designed to improve educational skills. [Cohen, 1969:xvii]

In order to develop strategies designed to effectively and rapidly change the two-year college, the president and his board of trustees must arrange for qualified consultants to assist in the development of new skills and new commitment throughout the institutional hierarchy (president, board of trustees, administration, faculty, students, outside agencies and constituencies).

**Combating Fear and Insecurity**

Strategies designed by the president and his team of consultants will require that the college move in the direction of the new goals. This may cause resistance, fear, and insecurity on the part of the faculty members and administrators.

Ervin L. Harlacher, president of Brookdale Community College, has said, "Accountability ... may be just the right catalyst to stimulate constructive action ... It is one thing, however, to make ourselves accountable if we have modern tools with which to work; it
is quite another to be held accountable if we are using a hand plow to do a job that requires a bulldozer.”[Harlacher:2]

Cockston and Blaesser reported their findings concerning change strategies used in student personnel work and concluded that the most powerful barrier to organizational change was the resistance expressed by persons to whom a projected change seemed threatening. They also concluded after reviewing the research of Coffy and Golden that change is facilitated when leadership has broadened participation in decision-making, when change has been established as an ingredient of institutional development, and when change can be brought about without threatening the individual’s membership in the group. [Cockston and Blaesser:14] The insecurity of instructors who are encouraged to teach by objectives has been demonstrated in an experiment by Mager.

Most teachers rely heavily on the lecture method of instruction even though modern technology provides more effective techniques. This apparent paradox is understandable when lecturing is viewed as a means of fulfilling the teacher’s needs rather than those of the student. An experiment where the flow of information over closed circuit television was controlled by the learner, rather than by the teacher, demonstrated an innate need to lecture. Students requesting information over the circuit were allowed to turn the camera off when sufficient information had been supplied. Surprisingly, a great number of teachers continued lecturing to dead cameras even though they knew that the student had severed the connection. [Voegel:7]

In-Service Training

New efforts to reach institutional goals will call for changed attitudes on the part of faculty and administrators, as well as for the acquisition of new teaching management skills. The major focus for change in the two-year college is in the president’s office. The major practices to be changed, however, are those fundamental classroom practices employed by teachers. The problem of ineffective instruction in the junior college is a complex of attitudinal, administrative, and teaching inadequacies. The educational leader and his team of experts must attack this problem at the outset.

New attitudes toward the purposes and goals of an institution require changes in traditional standards and expectations of classroom practices, among them:

1. The expectation that all students will reach certain levels of development in a specific time
2. The view that students will spend most of their time listening, reading, and writing
3. The idea that classrooms are quiet study areas where primarily sedentary activities take place
4. The notion that all students can be reached by the same instructional techniques in the same time period. [Kaufman and Lewis:130]

The same report concluded that when the administration fails to attack the traditional standards and the value systems which undergird them, teachers are faced with an impossible job. [Kaufman and Lewis:130]

Successful programs, on the other hand, generally contain six basic objectives: (1) maximum personal development, (2) successful learning experiences for the student, (3) courses which meet students’ needs, (4) positive reinforcement in lieu of punitive teaching practices, (5) highly individualized instruction, and (6) flexible time calendars. [Basic Program Plan]

Educational programs should be designed which permit each student to develop to the limit of his ability—programs which accept the student where he is and take him as far as he can go. If education were viewed as a footrace, traditional education would be characterized as a hurdle event where all students would start together but only some would be expected to cross the
finish line. In fact, the finish line would be adjustable in order to make sure that not everyone would be able to cross it (e.g., marking on the curve and setting time limits for instruction).

New behaviors dictated by the educational system advocated in this monograph require teachers and administrators to accept each individual at his unique starting point and to set as their goal a level of achievement mutually agreed upon by teacher and student.

As previously stated, a change strategy for the two-year college must focus on the results of the instructional program. This result is measurable student learning. The primary concern is the operation of a learning-oriented system of instruction. [Roueche and Herrscher, *Junior College Journal*] Traditional education is scholarship oriented, not learning oriented. Bloom's theory of Learning for Mastery [Bloom: 1-11] provides a framework which places the responsibility for student learning more directly on teachers—rather than solely on the student. An effective instructional system provides a total approach to the problem of learning (i.e., learner characteristics, media, learning materials, faculty training, and the physical environment).

In order to improve the results of the system, the two-year college's outside assistants would need to conduct in-service training which employs new strategies, such as the systems approach to instruction. [Basic Program Plan] The systems approach permits the translation of basic objectives of the Bloom model into system-related activities, including (1) evaluation of curriculum content in terms of subject matter, social needs, and student needs; (2) writing and screening objectives; (3) analyzing objectives to determine requisite skills in order to ensure a high level of achievement; (4) relating objectives to alternate learning experiences where required; and (5) assessing change in student behavior in terms of achievement and attitude toward learning.

**Self-Renewing Programs**

The change program of the junior college must be viewed as a natural outcome of re-evaluated goals of the institution. The force and direction of change must be implemented in an insistent and persistent manner. It is imperative that the change efforts be pursued until goals are achieved. The college must be viewed as an instructional laboratory where it is safe to try new approaches. B. Lamar Johnson reports a conversation with the dean at Florissant Valley Community College, St. Louis:

An administrator is "sunk" as an encourager of innovation the first time he frowns at a faculty member who tries a new idea that fails. When new ideas are tried, some of them inevitably will be unsuccessful. If faculty members are blamed for the failure of apparently well-conceived new plans, they are unlikely to try other innovations. The right to fail, then, is one which must be guaranteed in the innovating college as completely as academic freedom is guaranteed in all of higher education. [Johnson, March 1969:1]

Of prime importance is the need for any innovative person within the college to have the support of the administration and his colleagues. Whether the agent of change is a dean, a "vice president in charge of heresy," a teacher, or an educational systems committee, both support and funds must be available. [Johnson, March 1969:4]

The cultivation of an institutional development program is the key mechanism for causing new programs to be viewed as natural directions for the college. Organizational development begins with a process of diagnosing the roadblocks which prevent the release of human potential within the organization. William Rainey Harper College has developed such a list of objectives for organization development: [Lahti, *Harper College*: 2]

1. To create an open, problem-solving climate throughout the organization...
2. To supplement the authority associated with role or status with the persuasiveness of knowledge and competence
3. To locate decision-making and problem-solving resources as soon as possible
4. To build trust among individuals and groups throughout the organization
5. To make competition more relevant to work goals and to maximize collaborative efforts
6. To develop a reward system which recognizes both achievement of the organization and growth of people
7. To increase the sense of "ownership" of organizational objectives throughout the organization
8. To help managers to manage according to relevant objectives rather than according to "past practices"
9. To increase self-control and self-direction for people within the organization.

Goodlad warns that new programs must not be regarded as waxing or waning short-term arrangements. [Goodlad: 5] Several strategies may be used to ensure that the new program is not a short-term project. First, the board of trustees may authorize the college to secure consultants to work with the college over a one-year period or longer; the consultant team would assist the institution in the development of goal statements and in the formulation of objectives. In addition, the team would be available throughout the year to conduct in-service training sessions. The same team or a separate team could be formulated to audit the progress of the college over a period of time. Second, the college can form or join with a consortium of other colleges which are dedicated to similar institutional goals. In this manner, progress can be made toward meeting the goals of the institution through meetings, workshops, training sessions, and the exchange of information among institutions represented by the consortium. The third strategy which may be employed to strengthen institutional goals is the submission of proposals requesting funds to support innovation within the colleges. Proposals may be submitted in any of several ways: (1) by individual colleges for federal, state, or private grants; (2) by a consortium as a whole; or (3) by a group of colleges within a consortium who, by the nature of their organization, are unique (i.e., private church-related institutions, comprehensive colleges, technical institutes, etc.).

The key concept necessary to sustain the innovative program over a sufficient period of time is the development of an accountability plan which allows for the implementation of objectives, such as those of William Rainey Harper College cited above. An accountability model which outlines the steps necessary for the adoption of an accountability program in a community college is presented in Chapter 5.

Going It Alone
Institutional leaders should realize that consultants are temporary and that their influence must necessarily be withdrawn—that in their place a self-renewing process must be installed as an integral part of the institutional development program.

"Revolutionaries, if successful, turn into conservatives or reactionaries in defense of that order which once was new... Some colleges which attained distinction because of innovations a generation or two ago still cling to what was, at the time, a useful pattern despite its inadequacy for today." [Evans:56] A built-in, self-renewing process is essential if an institution is to ensure that new research is examined, evaluated, and installed—if warranted—on a timely basis.

In summary, then, an operational system of institutional development through objectives allows for efficient management and problem solving by each manager. (Teachers also are managers.) The impact and direction of both individual and institutional growth and performance would be affected by the quality of the objectives and by the plans originally agreed...
on, and would not be contingent upon
the presence of an outside agency.

Toward a Model

We are constantly reminded that the
lack of diffusion in educational re-
search is a key problem. Programs
which work must be documented and
their findings reported in the literature.
While a new community college is
opened every week [Gleazer, 1969:13],
other private two-year colleges are clos-
ing due to a lack of funds, support, and
students. [Menefee:23] Both new and
struggling colleges must have access to
conceptual models which demonstrate
successful institutional development
programs.

There are several advantages to the
development of models. One value of a
general model is that it permits the
viewing of a total process. The response
of the student to the combined effect
of all that is put into an educational
system is, after all, learning. Thus,
when a student's learning is viewed as
the product of a multitude of interre-
lated factors, it becomes more obvious
why our concern must be for dealing
with the total, rather than the individ-
ual, effect of these factors and for view-
ing our problems in their largest man-
ageable context.

Another advantage of a model is that
it provides a criterion for development.
The model which an institution design-
ates as its goal usually may be thought
of in an abstract or ideal manner, but it
must be expressed in tangible terms—a
model to which individuals can relate
and make commitment. Stated this
way, it is a goal against which an insti-
tution can assess progress and against
which individuals, within the institu-
tion, can measure their contribution.

An overall design, however, must be
viewed not only on its own merits, but
also in light of the world in which it
must be developed and operated. The
most perfect educational model would
be of little value if it required unrealis-
tic resources for implementation or
management. The model presented in
Chapter 5 must be considered in light
of the change strategies presented in
this chapter and the management strat-
egies presented in Chapter 4.

When an institution can articulate its
ends in terms of affecting the perform-
ance of individual human beings and
can measure each of its present actions
against these same criteria, then it be-
comes possible to envision new ways to
"bridge" the gap between present levels
of goal attainment and hoped-for future
ones. All the working pieces are visible
and identifiable from a common refer-
ce point. With "where we are" and
"where we want to be" both expressed
in common terms, the management of
education can become a goal-directed
evolutionary process—a process that
begins with schools as they are today
and facilitates development toward
where it is both desirable and possible
to be. In such a "bridging" process, a
self-renewing institution can become a
reality.
Leadership in Management

Every problem and every program to which a college is committed is the result of changes which have occurred or changes which will be made. For a college to be accountable, change must be planned and incorporated into a management strategy. The president's ability to manage change depends on his ability to:

1. Identify and synthesize goal statements and assumptions from the board of trustees and recognize the impact of change on the environment of the college
2. Conceive and develop courses of action with competent outside assistance that will achieve objectives and solve problems
3. Make timely and consistent decisions that will permit other managers to accomplish goals or schedules
4. Obtain the resources, staff, money, material, and knowledge necessary to achieve objectives
5. Keep lines of communication open to all members of the college
6. Motivate people toward the creation of an environment which facilitates the desired ends.

Educational accountability focuses on results. Educational managers (presidents), therefore, must develop skills which will get things done—in the correct manner, on time, and for a reasonable cost.

Management has been defined as the art of getting things done through other people. [Likert: 47] Within the hierarchy of the institution, the president is finding it increasingly less effective to exercise "command" authority. Instead, he "manages"—that is, influences decisions—of people and groups both within and without the institution. "Managing," particularly groups such as the board of trustees, local citizens, and the community bureaucracy, requires communication skills of a high order.

The Language of Management

Based on business and educational definitions supplied by Drucker [1954], Likert [1967], Steiner [1969], and Ins-group [1968], a basic list of management terms with special application to the community college has been compiled and may be referred to in Table A.

Table A Management Definitions

Accountability: an obligation of the college to answer to its constituency for carrying out delegated responsibilities; the obligation of members of the college to produce and account for results, in terms of objectives or assignments which have been delegated.

Assumption: temporary estimate of a very important probable de-
development that cannot be predicted with accuracy and over which the college has no control.

*Authority:* the right, power, and freedom to take action necessary to carry out work or obtain results for which the person is accountable.

*Goals:* general target or aim from which several objectives are derived.

*Mission:* basic reason for organization's existence; purpose.

*Objective:* an end result; a specific goal or target toward which effort is directed.

*Policy:* a standing decision made to apply to repetitive questions and problems of significance to the enterprise as a whole.

*Procedure:* a standardized method of performing specified work; standard operating procedure.

*Program:* a sequence of action steps arranged in the priority necessary to accomplish an objective.

*Strategy:* compatible combination of policies, objectives, and programs that will allow the college to accomplish its mission and become accountable.

*Rationale:* a statement which presents the relationship of the objective to some larger or overall purpose.

The college's mission underlies the change strategy which policy endorses and the president puts into operation. Objectives, which are statements of intent based on programs, curricula, and instruction, implement the change strategy. All personnel of the college assume responsibility in accordance with the chain of authority which moves from the governing board to the chief executive of the college and on down the line. Each individual becomes accountable, then, for his contribution to the overall plan.

Results (the fulfillment of objectives) which allow the college to accomplish its mission permit the institution and its personnel to be accountable to the constituency served by the college. Commitment to a policy statement which is performance- and objective-based permits an institution to start where it is and to make an initial jump into operating procedures which offer some assurance that outcomes will be desired ones.

**Management of Objectives**

The process described above is known as "management-by-objectives." According to Cohen, "the process of specifying objectives is applicable to any area, field, subject, discipline, body of knowledge, or desired teaching outcome." [Cohen:167] Objectives may be expressed for every element of an enterprise considered important enough to be the subject of plans. [Steiner:150]

Various persons have defined and/or quantified objectives, among them Mager [1962], Green [Undated], Steiner [1969], Cohen [1969], Drucker [1954], Lahti [1970], Harty and Monroe [1968]. There has even been limited effort to construct a taxonomy of objectives which could be used in a management-by-objectives model for the two-year college. A taxonomy-of-objectives to accompany the accountability model presented in Chapter 5 follows.

**Table B**  
*A Taxonomy of College Objectives*

**Requisites:**
1. Must be derived from a goal
2. Must include three parts:
   - **Task**—activity, behavior to be performed.
   - **Conditions**—the setting in which action will take place.
   - **Criterion**—standards of acceptability or the specified degree of accuracy.

**Taxonomy**

A. **Policy Objectives:** derived
from the mission of the college and expressed as goals. The immutable goal, from which all others are derived, is measurably improved competency for all members of the college community.

B. Program Objectives: time-constrained statements describing predicted measurable accomplishments of a program director and/or department of the college. Cost constraints are frequently incorporated to serve as level-of-achievement indicators. Three levels of program objectives are:

1. Department objective—a time-constrained statement describing the predicted accomplishment of a department of the college. The statement facilitates department evaluation as well as cost/effectiveness analysis.

2. Unit or team objective—a time-constrained, predicted accomplishment of a department sub-unit, or a cross-departmental team. Accomplishment of the unit objective contributes to the accomplishment of department or program objectives. Facilitates evaluation of the unit and cost/effectiveness analysis. Typically represents the common efforts of staff members who share the same instructional area (such as teachers of remedial English).

3. Personal development—a time-constrained predicted accomplishment of a single member of a unit or team (in most cases the individual teacher, department chairman, dean, etc.). Contributes to the accomplishment of unit or team objectives. Facilitates self-appraisal, performance reviews, and periodic negotiation of staff personal development.

C. Learner Objectives: measurable predictions of what a learner will be able to do or produce in order to demonstrate his knowledge, skills, preferences, or beliefs resulting from an instructional experience. May describe a learner state, action, attitude, competency, or product. Three levels of learner objectives are:

1. Curricular objective—established by the department unit or team involved; the broadest in scope and most time-consuming of learner objectives. A measurable, broad competency acquired by the learner over a period of months or years as a result of many curricular experiences. Typically involves knowledge, attitudes, or skills from more than one "discipline."

2. Instructional objective—established by individual instructor and learner; the learner knowledge, attitude, or skill described is broad enough to be meaningful in itself, yet narrow enough to be perceived by instructors and learners as "manageable." Typically not accomplished until after several instructional events or sessions over periods of time ranging from a week to several months.

3. Task objective—established by individual instructor and learner; specifies a very small measurable accomplishment. Limited in scope to that outcome that can be accomplished by a typical learner in a single instructional event or session.

Planning for Change

Little has been written about managing planned change in a community college; however, there are planning models used in both business and the military from which basic principles and practices can be selectively adopted. In borrowing from these areas, information can be organized around six basic questions: (1) Where is the college at present? (2) Where does it want to go? (3) How does it get there? (4) When does the college want to arrive? (5) Who is responsible? and (6) How much will it cost? The answers to these questions help managers collect, process, retain, retrieve, and distribute their planning data. Decision-making be-
comes a process over which they have firm control.

Where the college is. To reveal the current status of the college, base line studies must be conducted to determine dropout rates, student success in further educational endeavors or in occupations, needs of students, and needs of the community. The results of these studies should be used to elucidate those environmental factors which have significant bearing or influence on the performance of the college as a whole. Data collected should bring into sharp focus the needs of the individual in the community, as well as the needs of the community as a whole. It should enable the college managers to evaluate the ability of the college to meet these needs in the face of the obvious environmental constraints (i.e., personnel, facilities, time, finance).

Where you want to go. Some estimates of future events, no matter how tentative, must precede formal planning; a college five-year plan, for example, should be developed on the basis of predicted population changes, or the college may find it has allocated its resources incorrectly. Assumptions, of course, offer no guarantees, and deviations from anticipated results are bound to occur. Assumptions need to be reviewed and changed when they no longer apply. Plans based upon these assumptions must be altered accordingly.

Objectives, on the other hand, are only meant as temporary estimates of a desirable future result. Objectives are achieved through effort, but the results cannot always be predicted with accuracy.

It is through the use of assumptions and objectives that the direction toward the goals of the institution is established.

How you want to get there. Policies are broad statements of general intent that describe what is permitted; procedures are more precise instructions that describe how it should be done. The president is generally responsible for translating policy into procedures for getting things done.

A good strategy combines policies with objectives and programs so that the educational leader can secure the best possible results by optimizing capabilities, resources, and opportunities. Programs are major courses of action that should enable educational managers to achieve objectives within the frame of policy guidelines.

Programs are generally the mechanisms used to satisfy the needs of the community and of the individual. If a student finds a program which meets his needs, and it in turn meets the industrial or social needs of the community, the college has served its function for that individual.

College programs must constantly be reviewed and tested against unfulfilled needs. Programs typically:

1. Involve a large portion of the college budget
2. Involve a long-term commitment of human resources
3. Require a high degree of closely coordinated effort.

When you want to arrive. The president, as educational manager of the college, must decide who does what and what is to be done. He must use resources to accomplish the most important objectives. Thus, it is essential to have a workable system of priorities and schedules to accomplish the goals of the college. The control system may be simple or as elaborate as necessary and may vary from paper charts at the instructor level to computer applications for the president, dean, registrar, and business manager.

Who is responsible. Just as the programs of the college are recognized as the most important and difficult part of planning, so people are the college's most critical resource. To operate effectively the organizational structure must allow for individuals to assume responsibilities for which they are willing to be held accountable.

How much it will cost. A properly developed budget should reflect an ap-
proved program of action, which includes program price tags and full-time student cost ratios. In the past, the business managers of many colleges have been required to work backwards. Under such circumstances, budgets have tended to retard rather than to exert a positive influence on the ability of the college to meet goals.

Accountability: An Administrative Responsibility

Elsewhere in this monograph the point has been made that necessary change is desired by a public that is able to influence educational outcomes by limiting the dollars needed for public education. The volume of funds poured into schools coupled with education's inability to solve old problems—much less face new issues head-on—has frustrated citizens of all political outlooks. Visible problems such as the academic failure of nontraditional students, student militancy, and widespread drug use have been attributed by many educational writers to weaknesses within the schools. College presidents, and to a lesser extent community college presidents, find themselves unable to bring together the resources of the college which will produce the results that students and communities desire. Finally, the students themselves cry out for an education which does not reduce them to Social Security numbers, alpha numbers, or blocks in a seating chart in the college classroom.

A decision by the president and his board to regard accountability as an institutional challenge rather than an institutional threat should gain the support of many individuals in the system who are certain, after many short-lived innovations have been shelved, that they cannot guarantee the attainment of individual learning objectives unless the institution is managed to support that end.

A key factor in securing acceptance of a concept of accountability by the people within a college is their perception of their own responsibilities. The educator has little control over many of the external factors which significantly affect the learning process.

In order for a policy of accountability to be successful in a community college, everyone from the board of trustees to the people who comprise the system must recognize that the college management process is a continuing information feedback mechanism which is designed to hold the entire college responsible. [Roueche and Baker]

It is the responsibility of the college president to guarantee the student an environment in which all resources are mobilized to make a positive impact on his life. Management-by-objectives enables the president to set the course, allow others to assume their responsibilities, and step in or "manage" only when there is a deviation from the expected outcomes. In this way, administrators and faculty feel that there is convergence between their own personal objectives and the institution's objectives.

The president of a community college is like a ship's captain: he is not responsible for uncontrollable factors which result in "drift" from a planned course. He is accountable, however, for doing something about them; for recognizing that they will affect his course and planning accordingly; and for turning them to his purposes wherever possible in order to get him where he wants to go more efficiently. Such managers do not see "drift" from course as a threat as much as a part of the realistic environment in which they must work. As outlined above, the college starts by identifying "where they are" and "where they want to go." Through the use of constant reference points, they can approximately determine their position at all times. When "drift" or a discrepancy is noted, the course modification is rarely a return to the original course but instead is a new course to the goal. This new course is always a reasoned judgment by the president and is only as valid as the information on which it is based. It is important to understand that the course will not be
exact but will be in the desired direction—toward the objective.

Richard E. Schutz [Schutz: 43], writing in Preparing Research Personnel for Education, refers to this “new course” as a “self corrective mechanism” which has three characteristics: (1) operationally defined objectives, (2) a means of evaluating discrepancies between objectives and current performance, and (3) procedures to change the program to minimize discrepancies. An adaptation of his model is presented in Table C.

Table C  
Self Corrective Mechanism

Management by objectives is the only known device which will enable the president to convince the college and its constituency that accountability is possible. The president must deal with process and product simultaneously. He must have the courage to accept responsibility—to be accountable—for a process in which errors or drifts are of less concern than direction; where change as the consequence of continued “homing-in” on goals is no threat; and where the stating of the question can be more important than the answer, but where the answer is almost always expressed in terms of effects on human beings. To survive as an institution, education must, and can, become accountable for both the process and the product. [Rhodes: 13]

President Harlacher of Brookdale Community College [Harlacher: 8] issues this challenge:

I suggest that if we undertake to provide “guaranteed accountability”—not guaranteed performance, for there are too many ways of covering up mistakes in this area—I suggest that we will be forced to acquire and execute effectively the technological knowhow of which private industry now appears to be the sole source. I suggest that this is the only course open to us if we are to preserve the enormous gains education has made over its long history and, at the same time, apply the technology that can facilitate accomplishment of our objectives. And I submit that, in such circumstances, faith in the community college’s seriousness of purpose and determination to fulfill its mission within its community will be revitalized, and that those of us who are involved in the teaching-learning process will acquire new vigor.
5. A Planned Program of Accountability Development

Introduction
A planned program of accountability development can never be completely standardized because each college is a unique institution. The model presented in this chapter is applicable to any community college if implemented within a broad, flexible framework of planned change.

Well-organized strategies are important, but their success depends upon human factors. Systems cannot replace people. If concepts of accountability are to be translated into action, educational leaders must play a vital role in creating a climate conducive to change.

The effectiveness of the strategies advocated here rests on the assumptions that the college president is a dynamic educational leader with the full support of his board behind him every step of the way and that the change program will be sustained over a period long enough for it to become firmly established. The management techniques recommended here are similar to "management-by-objectives" and decision-making systems employed so effectively by government and industry.

Planning the Program

The Initial Estimate of the Situation
A planned program of accountability development requires a purpose or rationale. Members of educational institutions are not likely to support change strategies unless the members are convinced that a problem exists.

The first step in developing accountability within an institution is to make an initial estimate of the situation. The president and key members of his staff should ask themselves, "Is this college accomplishing its mission?" The initial estimate may reveal that the college is not meeting certain needs and thus is not fulfilling its goals and accomplishing its mission. The complexity of the factors involved in analyzing whether the college is meeting all of the external and internal needs implicit in its goals may make this task too difficult for the president and his staff. It may be necessary to hire expert consultants to conduct a detailed audit to define the problem and to determine the precise current status of the institution.

While the consultants are engaged in such an analysis, the president and his staff should turn their attention to identifying goals, validating policy objectives, and creating a climate conducive to change.

Identifying Goals, Validating Policy Objectives, and Creating a Climate Conducive to Change
Although a college president and the key members of his staff can initiate a development program, an acceptance of the accountability concept must per-
meet all levels of the institution. In fact, the success of the program really depends upon the effectiveness of people at teaching levels rather than those at supervisory levels.

William Rainey Harper College in Palatine, Illinois, has instituted an organizational development program that attempts to integrate individual needs for growth and development with organizational goals and objectives. The philosophy of the program is that people have a drive toward growth and self-realization that can be achieved through work, challenge, and responsibility. People expect recognition and satisfying personal relationships. They become flexible and responsive when their personal goals coincide with their institution's goals, and when they have confidence in their ability to influence their environment. [Lahti, April 1970: 1-3]

The community college president and key members of his staff should strive to create an open, positive sense of group participation. One way to begin is through a series of informal workshop sessions with all faculty members and administrators. The mission, goals, and broad policy objectives derived from goals should be presented for discussion. Abstract goals and broad policy objectives should not be used as platitudes designed to create a facade of consensus. All members of the college should be encouraged to express their views and feelings—both positive and negative. These discussions should become increasingly candid as an emerging sense of group identification and a feeling of trust open lines of communication and allow members to deal constructively with potentially disruptive issues.

The common effort of identifying goals and of validating policy objectives keeps conflicts and disputes in the open where they can be readily dealt with and resolved. Participation in a team effort minimizes barriers between instructors and supervisors and leads to creativity, vitality, and enthusiasm. Everyone clarifies his thinking so that he better understands his responsibility towards advancing the change strategy. The whole procedure is now perceived as an institutional challenge rather than as a threat. Eventually a common agreement on policy objectives is achieved and an open problem-solving climate exists. The college leadership must continue to nurture this climate so that it remains conducive to change.

Defining the Problem: The Pre-Audit

Consultants may be hired to determine how well the college is accomplishing its mission. While the president and his staff are carrying out the process described above, consultants conduct a pre-audit of both the external and internal environment of the college. The pre-audit provides base line data to determine the current status of the college.

(A) External Analysis. Through sampling and interview processes, the consultants would determine both the unfulfilled needs of the community and the extent of community support for the college. Depending on the comprehensiveness of the college, the following analyses could be made:

(1) How well has the college filled the professional service needs of the community?

(2) How well has the college filled the technical occupational needs?

(3) To what extent have programs been undertaken to fill vocational needs of the citizens served by the college?

(4) What has happened to students who have completed the transfer programs of the college? How many have entered four-year colleges? How many have persisted until graduation?

(5) How well are industrial needs being met? To what extent could new industry be expected to move into the community if adequate industrial skills were available?

(6) To what extent are the general education and basic education needs of adults in the community being met by
the college? What proportion of the adult population is enrolled in the college in order to improve communications, increase leisure time, or to develop new occupations and skills?

In addition to the areas surveyed above, the pre-audit might determine the current relationship between the college and: (1) business and industrial leaders; (2) the formal and informal power structure of the community; and (3) the various mass media within the community.

(B) Internal Analysis. The internal examination of the college would concentrate on three areas: (1) an analysis of the effectiveness of the instructional component in causing learning; (2) an analysis of the effectiveness of the administrative component in supporting the individual teacher and ensuring that the needs of students are met; and (3) an analysis of the effectiveness of communications within the college.

Specific areas of both the instructional and administrative components of the college which would be audited are listed in the following paragraphs.

(1) Instructional Programs. The underlying assumption of the instructional strategies advocated in the program of accountability development is that student aptitude is a measure of the time required to learn, rather than the capacity for learning. [Bloom:1-12] Selection of course content and learning experiences must accommodate differential learning rates. Base line data necessary to determine the current status of the college would include the following: (a) success ratio of students by current program (grade distribution, dropout rate, etc.); (b) program relevancy to needs of students; (c) attitudes of teachers toward students; (d) adequacy and flexibility of instructional resources supporting teacher efforts; (e) the extent to which instructional programs are designed to support individual learning rates by utilizing individualized instruction, audio-tutorial processes, and open labs.

(2) Administrative Programs. The underlying assumption of the administrative strategies advocated is that the president will accept responsibility for implementing administrative policies designed to promote instructional improvement. Moreover, his responsibilities include the delegation of enough authority to produce a climate conducive to change. He must also assure all members of the college that management-by-objectives is participatory management, and is in line with B. Lamar Johnson's "right to fail" concept. [Johnson, Islands of Innovation]

The consultants would collect data to serve as a basis for evaluating the college's administrative practices in the following areas: (a) the flexibility of grade-reporting procedures (What latitude does the instructor have in carrying students in an "incomplete" status at the conclusion of a given semester or quarter?); (b) the flexibility of inter-program transfer (Is it possible for students to change from one program to another?); (c) the effectiveness of student personnel services (How do students and faculty perceive the effectiveness of student personnel services?); (d) the flexibility of registration practices (Do registration practices restrict the flexibility of instructor and/or student needs? In the event a student is still "in progress" in a course at the conclusion of a term, are procedures available which would allow him to register for a full load?); and (e) the capability of the business department to support college programs (Are business practices designed to support college programs or are college programs designed to meet budget needs?).

(3) Communications. During the internal analysis, the consultants should gain some understanding of the effectiveness of communications between people and departments within the college. Weak areas requiring attention would be reported to the president and his staff.

Determining Current Status
After completing the pre-audit, the consultants would develop a report docu-
menting their findings. Based on the unfulfilled needs of the community, the consultant team would establish priorities by placing recommended corrective actions in the order considered most important. If capable of doing so, the consulting team might estimate the costs and time required to complete corrective actions.

The college president and his staff would study the consultants' report and evaluate recommendations by using the following typical questions as criteria:

(a) Is it feasible to undertake the fulfillment of the need?
(b) Is sufficient information available to allow each recommendation to be considered and then formed into a tentative objective?
(c) Is the recommendation in consonance with an established goal of the college?
(d) Can the recommendation be undertaken by the college within present or future budget limitations? If not, can funds be generated through proposals and/or grants?

The president and his staff then prepare a final report, in which priorities would be listed, for presentation to the entire college staff and faculty for their consideration.

Implementing the Program

The Programming Phase

The planning phase identified goals and policy objectives, defined the problems, and determined the current status of the college. By involving all members of the faculty and staff in a common effort to validate policy objectives, a climate conducive to change was created. Planning "set the stage" to translate plans into action through programs designed to bridge the gap between "where the college is" and "where it wants to go."

(a) Program Objectives. The broad policy objectives established in the planning phase must be amplified in sufficient detail to convert plans into programs. Specific measurable program objectives that direct efforts toward achieving broad policy objectives should be established; various objectives and alternate courses of action should be analyzed in detail. Relative costs and benefits must be systematically reviewed, and possible program objectives and the courses of action necessary to achieve them must be quantified in terms of people, funds, and resources. Programs should anticipate change by providing alternatives and must account in advance for probable future needs; program costs must be projected to support future needs. Resources sufficient to fund programs capable of meeting all of a community's needs will seldom be available. And since it is better to do a few things well than many things poorly, choices must be made. Essential programs should take precedence over "nice to have" programs. Objectives should be expressed in terms that specify the exact measurable outcomes desired. Program objectives must be "feasible and relevant to the needs of ... society." [Robinson:217-18]

(b) Derived Objectives. From program objectives are derived specific department objectives necessary to support each program; lower-level objectives are developed from department objectives. The achievement of a program objective may require an interdepartmental team objective. Sub-units functioning separately within a department may require sub-unit objectives. Departments, teams, and units must establish curricular objectives. Each person must develop his own performance objectives to accomplish agreed-upon portions of higher-level objectives. Instructors should establish instructional objectives and task objectives for learners.

(c) Objectives Enhance Effectiveness. This ordered network of systematically derived objectives serves as an effective means for coordinating resources and efforts to accomplish program objectives. These specifically planned, precisely stated, measurable objectives increase self-direction throughout the organization. Each individual understands clearly his specific responsibility
and concurrent authority as well as the interrelation of his function to the rest of the organization. The objectives are mutually supporting and they eliminate areas of overlapping authority or voids of responsibility. Increased self-direction facilitates delegation of authority with full responsibility and decision-making prerogatives. The need for supervision is reduced when effectiveness is measured by results.

(d) Personal Involvement. All members of the college faculty and staff should participate actively in the programming phase just as they did in the planning phase. A continuing review of objectives at all levels of the institution creates personal commitment through mutually derived objectives.

The Budgeting Phase

When the programming phase of accountability development has progressed to the point that well-designed, rational, systematic programs have been conceived in sufficient detail, responsible resource allocation can begin. Budgeting translates programming decisions into specific financial commitments in two phases. First, the various alternate courses of action within a program are evaluated by means of a preliminary process known as costing. The cost of each alternative is a crucial factor in determining which alternatives should become program requirements. Program objectives at all levels within each department must be quantified so as to reveal necessary requirements to achieve the objectives. The budgeting process matches requirements to available resources and then apportions resources accordingly. An absolute commitment of resources is tied to immediate program objectives, while a planned commitment is linked to longer-range objectives.

Simulation models can be of particular value in the programming and costing phases of planned program budgeting. The major benefit of this approach is that prior to making a decision, one can simulate and evaluate the impact of one alternative versus another by using many different trial assumptions. James Dobbins of the Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia (RELCV) has developed a computer simulation model that is generally useful to any college or university.* The RELCV Computerized Simulation Model for Relating College and University Cost Structures to Institutional Goals, Plans, and Characteristics is an augmented version of the simulation model, University Cost Structure and Behavior, developed by Peter Firmin and Associates of Tulane University under a National Science Foundation grant. The program is written in a language that is virtually machine-independent and, therefore, can be run on many kinds of computers.

The Training Phase

Background

A planned program of accountability requires that all members of the college community develop new attitudes, skills, and techniques for effecting change. Board members, to begin with, must accept the idea that the college is accountable to its sponsoring community, and its policies must reflect community needs. Students, on the other hand, must accept responsibility for participation in a program of self-development.

Between the board and the student, however, lies the key element of change: the college's administration and faculty. Student success depends upon instructors causing learning. Instructors, for their part, are most likely to succeed in this endeavor if administrators have established student-oriented policies.

The president, with whom ultimate responsibility lies, may need assistance in charting a new direction. Depending on the complexity of the institution and its programs, the president may require an internal change agent, institutional planning officer, or, as the Ford Foundation's Philip H. Coombs has proposed, *A copy may be obtained by writing to Mr. Dobbins at RELCV.
a "vice president in charge of heresy." [Coombs: 14-15] This individual may be responsible for introducing new ideas on campus, but Roueche and Boggs advocate an education development officer who functions primarily to provide instructional leadership. This staff officer focuses on the quality of student learning and is an important catalyst in the design of a student-oriented instructional program. [Roueche and Boggs: 1-16] The educational development officer, assisted by his staff and team of outside consultants, must devise a program of on-the-job training in instructional and administrative techniques. Until graduate and undergraduate schools accept the mission of training two-year college teachers and administrators, the two-year college itself must provide in-service training that will allow for the accomplishment of an accountability system.

Instructor Training

An in-service training program for instructors should concentrate on developing a teacher technology—the acquisition of skills necessary to employ a systematic approach to instruction. The process includes:

(a) Specification of objectives. The instructor specifies instructional objectives and task objectives for his students. Instructional and task objectives are keyed to specific courses of instruction, which in turn have been set up by the department chairman or director as the means of implementing curricular objectives.

(b) The definition of relevant criterion measures for determining student skills. These are necessary so that the instructor can decide what needs to be taught, where a student should begin in a sequenced course of instruction, and when he has mastered assigned units of instruction.

(c) Selection of learning materials which facilitate meeting the objectives and embody a multitude of learning experiences.

(d) Revision techniques which are designed to increase performance, eliminate nonproductive teaching techniques, and allow for inputs by the student.

e) Development of communication skills for managing students in an open atmosphere.

Based on newly acquired skills gained in their training programs, teachers would move from their traditional methods of instruction to the designing of individualized, self-paced instructional units. They would create a new learning atmosphere, in which students might expect to participate in decision-making and receive guidance in designing and carrying out their instructional programs. The instructor would be a partner in the learning process, capable of providing assistance in most aspects of this process.

Administrative Training. College administration exists to provide leadership towards the goal of student learning and, ultimately, student success. To a large extent student learning and student success will depend on the willingness of the college to stay abreast of changing needs in the community. No individual or group can anticipate the future with certainty. The environment changes, new needs emerge, and old programs become irrelevant. Sources of support change, presenting new opportunities and eliminating some of the old ones. Thus, the management process has to provide for continuous examination of goals and programs. [Robinson:218] Administrators need skills in the technique of management-by-objectives.

Based on the programs operated by the college, and specific support required by the instructional divisions of the college, each administrative unit establishes departmental and/or personal development objectives designed to improve and implement those ideas which meet the needs of the community. For example, the internal audit of the college may have determined that (1) course content was not relevant to needs of individuals or industry served by the college; (2) registration, course
enrollment, and course scheduling procedures needed to be modified in order to accommodate varying rates of student learning; (3) non-punitive grading procedures would enhance student success and reduce college casualties; (4) certain programs operated by the college were not relevant to the needs of the community, while additional programs not operated by the college would be required to meet existing or future needs of the community. The planning and programming phase dealt with these issues through the establishment of program objectives. Administrative services are now needed to back up efforts to realize these objectives. Often administrators need in-service training to enable them to discharge these obligations. An outline of the way in which administrative support can be operationalized follows.

1. Institutional Services (president's office)

   Goal: To maximize each student's opportunity to learn and develop.
   a. Provide resources (budget and staff) necessary to conduct and/or achieve research, planning, development of individuals and the institution, public information, and public support
   b. Report to the board of trustees the results of programs and the success of students within programs, on-the-job or in higher education.

2. Academic Affairs

   Goal: To maximize each student's opportunity to learn and develop.
   a. Provide, in the most flexible and efficient manner possible, the educational programs necessary to satisfy the needs of individuals and the community, including:
      (1) Transfer programs
      (2) Career programs (vocational and technical)
      (3) Continuing education program
      (4) Community service programs
      (5) Provide adequate support for these programs through efficient learning resources.

3. Student Affairs

   Goal: To maximize each student's opportunity to realize his full human development.
   a. Provide educational, recreational, and social experience to students
   b. Manage the recruitment and admission of students to the college
   c. Provide students with advice and counsel to enhance their self-images so that they can determine their own personal goals
   d. Assist in the training of individual instructors in counseling.

4. Financial Affairs

   Goal: To maximize each student's opportunity to learn and develop.
   a. Provide a business organization that utilizes program budgeting procedures
   b. Provide management information to key individuals within the college
   c. Provide efficient physical facilities, materials, and support services that contribute to the success of programs and the accomplishment of the college mission
   d. Establish procedures for the payment of fees that will accommodate individualized instruction.

5. Registrar

   Goal: To maximize each student's opportunity to learn and develop.
   a. Provide innovative scheduling and reporting procedures designed to support flexible and modular scheduling
   b. Establish procedures for equating open laboratory contact hours to instructor contact hours for purposes of state and federal reports
   c. Establish grading procedures that accommodate individualized instruction (in conjunction with academic affairs and the president's office).

6. Educational Development Officer

   Goal: Through instructional and institutional support, maximize each student's opportunity to learn and develop [Rouche and Boggs, 1970].
   a. Provide faculty training in individualized instruction
b. Provide assistance in the selection and organization of instructional objectives
c. Provide guidance in solving measurement and research problems
d. Provide assistance in designing and revising learning activities
e. Conduct instructional research and evaluation
f. Promote research-based decisions.

Controlling and Evaluating the Program

Program Evaluation. The evaluation of a planned program of accountability development requires an ongoing assessment in order to determine when a chosen alternative is not producing desired results. Hence, the evaluation of a program serves as a control mechanism. Evaluation provides an indication of a program's effectiveness in terms of budget controls and within pre-established time frames.

For example, assume that the college had funded a program to meet the needs of individuals and society in the data processing field. The program objective was to train 150 students per year at an annual per-student-cost of $750. At the end of the first semester 50 students had abandoned the program. Institutional research designed to determine why the students left the program would provide critical management information, and a recycling of the programming and budgeting process could occur. An examination of the situation may disclose that the majority of the students who left the program did so in order to join a private computer company offering a one-year training program with partial pay and guaranteed employment. Cases such as this indicate the need for closer coordination with industry. Extra funds may be channeled into programs where alternate courses of action allow for the transfer of funds from one program to another.

Instructional Evaluation. The president may decide that evaluation of the instructional programs should be conducted by experts. When an individualized instructional system, along with an ongoing system of planning, programming, and budgeting is fully operational in the college, periodic evaluation of all phases may be conducted by the president and his staff. Initially, however, consultants may be required to assist in the establishment of evaluation criteria. In this case, evaluation of educational programs is a monitoring process.

Self-instructional units that have been produced or purchased for each course must be validated on the basis of student behavior change determined by achievement of stated objectives.

In addition to the internal examination of unit effectiveness, the consultants would determine how well each course supported the objectives of the program.

Administrative Evaluation. Evaluation of administrators would be conducted initially by consultants to determine whether objectives had been achieved by each administrative component. Ongoing evaluation could be conducted by senior administrators or by the president. One aspect of the effectiveness of administrative support could be evaluated by determining the adoption of procedures that contribute to the attainment of the objectives of accountability development. Specifically, a few of these procedures could be:

1. Converting a number of courses into self-instructional procedures
2. Adoption of non-punitive grading procedures
3. Making registration and enrollment procedures more flexible
4. Evaluation of instruction in terms of student success
5. Improvement of counseling procedures
6. Improvement in research and decision-making procedures
7. Improvement of college-community relations
8. Creation of open lab procedures.

Individual Evaluation. A procedure known as an appraisal interview is em-
ployed successfully at William Rainey Harper College as a means of reviewing the individual's progress in carrying out the goals and objectives which he and his supervisor have agreed upon. The appraisal process, indispensable to a management-by-objectives program, reinforces the principles of participative management, coaching and development, and the maintenance of the best supervisor-faculty relationships.

A successful appraisal interview requires the existence of good job descriptions throughout the college and a degree of sophistication in goal-setting arising out of job descriptions. Each supervisor should spend adequate time in preparation for the interview and have available past performance and interview data.

Careful probing or clarification should produce agreements on areas to be improved, or adjustments needed for goal completion. In all cases, both should agree to each condition and the appropriate note should be made by the supervisor for the summary, which will become the focus for new adjustments and/or plans devised to insure personal improvement.

The appraisal interview is a natural part of the accountability development program. Its success depends on the creation of a non-threatening atmosphere in which a respectful exchange of opinions can take place. When objectives have been decided upon by instructor and supervisor—or instructor and students jointly in the planning phase—an appraisal of results is entirely appropriate.

Near the end of the interview the supervisor—or the instructor using the appraisal-interview technique with students—should ask certain questions. Responses to these questions become basic information which should be used not only by supervisors and respondents, but also by the institution as a whole.

1. Are your duties and responsibilities adequately defined?
2. Do you find your work sufficient and challenging?
3. Do you feel your work and ability are appreciated?
4. Do you feel you get the backing and support you need?
5. Are you informed and consulted when you should be?
6. Do you have access to your supervisor (dean or department chairman) to talk things over freely?
7. Do you have the authority and opportunity to exercise initiative?
8. Do you feel your opportunities are adequate?
9. What could your supervisor or others do to help you do a better job?
10. What kind of place, in general, do you feel this is to work?
11. What other things that you like or dislike about your responsibilities would you like to convey to your supervisor?

Summary
This chapter has presented a program of accountability development for community colleges. Many of the ideas and procedures outlined are now in operation, in part, in colleges around the nation. Several case examples are cited in Chapter 6.
No industry can long survive without knowing what it produces. For decades, however, schools and colleges have been vague and indefinite about their outputs. [Johnson, Islands of Innovation:304]

Miles has observed that educational innovations are almost never evaluated on a systematic basis since few criteria of educational effectiveness are ever developed prior to the initiation of a new program or technique. [Miles:658] Typically, educators have suggested that educational objectives are difficult to evaluate.

Accountability focuses on the output—the individual student! Accountability requires precise answers to the continuing question: "What can the student do after instruction (completing a course or program) that he could not do before?" All objectives, both institutional and program, are stated in measurable terms. Chauncey has emphasized the importance of measurable objectives as a prerequisite for evaluation:

... the systems approach means ... applying the same kind of logical "systems analysis" to education that has been used so successfully in such areas as the electronics industry, military planning, and space exploration. ... The first requirement of any systems approach is to formulate a precise statement of what is to be accomplished. ... Once the objectives have been defined, the systems approach requires an analysis of the precondition that will bring about the desired result—and the preconditions that will bring about this precondition, and so on. The analysis proceeds backward from the stated goal by asking, in great detail and stage by stage, exactly what must take place before the end result can be expected to occur. It is through this backward analysis, and the examination of a multitude of alternatives at each stage, that the optimal means to the desired ends emerge ...

[Chauncey:18-20]

Evaluation is built into the accountability concept from the beginning. The accountability concept makes it possible for all members of the community to see what "results" are being produced with its tax dollars.

Accountability: A New Idea?
To some readers, the ideas developed and presented here may seem "far out" and unrealistic. To others, accountability is a path they have been pursuing for several years. While the authors cannot point to any single community college as an example of the model presented in this monograph, it is possible to identify two-year colleges throughout the country that have accepted the accountability concept.
Under the leadership of its founding president, Thomas M. Hatfield, the trustees of John Tyler Community College in Chester, Virginia, more than a year ago issued strong policy statements regarding educational accountability. At John Tyler, the president is held responsible for the outcomes of the educational program. (The John Tyler accountability statements are included as Appendix A.)

Brookdale Community College, Lincolnton, New Jersey, is another two-year institution committed to total educational accountability. Brookdale's president, Dr. Ervin Harlacher, is professionally committed to using student success as the measure for evaluating the presidential office and other college personnel. Like John Tyler, Brookdale's trustees have approved explicit accountability criteria.

Moraine Valley Community College, Palos Hills, Illinois, is still another two-year college building its educational program on accountability. Moraine Valley's president, Dr. Robert Turner, is committed to making the open door concept a reality for the students his college serves. All college personnel— instructional, administrative, and support staffs—develop measurable objectives against which their performance is evaluated.

Kittrell, Mitchell, and Mount Olive Junior Colleges all serve as excellent examples of private institutions that are more than a year down the road toward implementing an accountability model similar to the one we have presented. Kittrell's president, Rev. Larnie Horton, and other private college leaders feel that a college committed to real educational accountability may soon be able to recruit prospective students on a "money-back guarantee." If the student does not succeed, the college would be willing to refund part or all of the student's money.

Guaranteed learning is the goal for many private colleges which consider accountability an opportunity for maximizing educational effectiveness. It is not viewed as a threat, but rather as a tool for achieving the college's mission. Accountability is not just another "in" word in American education. It is a concept that works. In fact, it is already working in the colleges mentioned here. These two-year institutions are pointing the way for others. It is our hope that the ideas presented here will make it possible for other institutions to quickly follow suit.

"Greater than the tread of mighty armies is an idea whose time has come."

Victor Hugo
LOCAL BOARD
John Tyler Community College
Proposed Resolution
Concerning Accountability for the Effectiveness of Educational Programs
December 1, 1969

WHEREAS, equal opportunity for all persons is a cherished American ideal;
WHEREAS, personal opportunity in the contemporary world is largely dependent upon competencies gained through the process of formal education;
WHEREAS, John Tyler Community College is a public institution existing for causing students to learn in accordance with their own goals and the needs of our society and economy;
WHEREAS, accountability for student learning is an accepted responsibility of the entire college community;
WHEREAS, the Local Board of John Tyler Community College is desirous of continuing the development of an instructional program that accommodates differential learning rates of students and produces measurable evidence of student learning;

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED that the

1. college president shall periodically inform the Local Board of:
   1) the success of students in attaining course objectives, including their attrition and failure rates;
   2) the success of students in occupations assumed upon leaving the college, including the employer's perception of the value of the college's programs;
   3) the success of students who transfer to other institutions;
   4) the extent to which the programs of the college are attaining the stated aims of the college.

2. college community is encouraged to:
   1) continue the development of an instructional program that accommodates differential learning rates of students and produces measurable evidence of student learning;
   2) foster an "open and frank atmosphere" focused on enhancing the "teaching-learning climate" for which the college has been commended by the accrediting agency;
   3) emphasize research-based planning for the continuing refinement of the instructional program to the end that college resources contribute maximally to opening the doorways of opportunities for students.
Sample Questions for Presidential Candidates

LOCAL BOARD
John Tyler Community College
Questions for Presidential Candidates
December 1, 1969

The Board should set the conditions for presidential leadership and then find a man who will accept total responsibility for such leadership. If possible the Board should seek not simply an institutional administrator but an educational leader who is able and willing to be held as accountable for student learning as for his other responsibilities.

In an interview situation, one means to identify a man who is willing to accept responsibility for student learning is to ask him the right questions and tell him what is expected of him in the job. If the Board only asks questions about buildings, budgets, previous experience, etc., it may expect that the man will respond in kind and not address himself directly to the central reason for the existence of the college: student learning in accordance with their own goals and the needs of our society and economy.

When the candidate is interviewed, that for which he is to be called to account can quickly be made known to him. If he is a flexible, dynamic sort, he will rise to the challenge; if not, it is better for all that it be known in advance. The man who becomes the new president must—if he is to be called educational leader—hold himself accountable for student learning and not leave student achievement to tradition and good intentions.

Following are a list of questions which may be helpful to the Board to ask presidential candidates. By no means are these questions all that should be asked. They represent an attempt to give a new president some indications of the significant educational challenges facing John Tyler Community College.

1. Fact: the average test scores of new students entering John Tyler Community College are lower in all categories (Math, English, Natural Science, Social Science) on an examination given nationwide than the average scores for all new students entering other Virginia community colleges.

Question: Will you assume responsibility for the design of programs which will accommodate students who enter the college unprepared for meeting the demands of college freshman work—and assure that such programs are in fact successful in terms of student progression to higher levels of study and the number of students who stick with the program? Do you have any specific ideas as to how you would achieve this? Will you be willing to give a report on this to the Board after each quarter?

2. Fact: Student performance on the job assumed after leaving the college is an important measure of the success of the college. The perception of the college held by leaders in industry, business and the profession will have much influence on the development of the college.

Question: Will you periodically survey employers for information which will indicate how they perceive the college's programs? And report the results of this survey information to the Board?

3. Fact: It is a policy of the Virginia Community College System that faculty increases shall be on "merit." The policy does not define how merit shall be determined. Merit pay, when practiced, traditionally does not (or is unable to) base increases on student learning. The "systems approach to instruction" now being developed at John Tyler Community College provides the instructor with the means to demonstrate evidence of productivity in terms of student achievement. In its simplest form, this evidence can be final examination papers which may be compared to the results of a test given to students at the beginning of the quarter.

Question: Will you assure that faculty members are held accountable for student learning? That pay increases are based on student achievement insofar as feasible?

4. Fact: A community college has many different programs. Tyler has about 25. Students are ordinarily not allowed to enter many programs without screening. The process of screening is crucial for student progression and achievement. Currently, the exclusion of students from programs of study for whatever sound reasons is a source of controversy on many campuses.
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Question: Will you give attention to the bases used for placing students in different programs and report periodically the results to the Board on this matter?

5. Fact: Higher education is essentially conservative and change does not come easily. Most professors are inclined to lecture as the predominant mode of instruction. Experimentation with the refinement of the instructional process is needed. Experimentation for its own sake is not the purpose; but rather experimentation based on a carefully developed plan for enhancing student learning.

Question: Will you attempt to foster an atmosphere within the college of experimentation and concern for continuously improving the instructional program in terms of measurable student achievement? And, of trying new methods for causing students to learn, disregarding those which do not succeed and refining those which produce success?

6. Question: Will you assure that studies are made to determine the percentage of students who leave before completing one quarter? Before completing the program for which they are enhanced? How many students return at later dates after having dropped out?

7. Will you assure that follow-up studies are made to determine where students go when they leave the college? The types of jobs they take? How successful they are if they transfer to a four-year college or university?

8. Question: What means would you suggest for determining what specific abilities or skills are gained by students in college programs? How students who complete programs are in fact better prepared than those who drop out?
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