



A plan for identifying community attitudes toward the community education philosophy
by Donna Graves Weisenborn

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF
EDUCATION

Montana State University

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Abstract:

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Briefly, it was found that: 1. No one population registry included names of everyone residing in the community. The Bozeman county telephone directory provided the highest number of returns followed by the tax rolls.

2. The Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified) received the highest number of returns over the three selected alternative instruments.

3. The mailed questionnaire received the highest number of returns cost the most and took the least amount of time than the personal or telephone interview.

Four different groups were tested for possible differences in their attitudes toward the philosophy of community education: 1) four age groups, 2) men and women, 3) school community and community-at-large, 4) respondents with children and without children currently enrolled in school.

The results of the Bozeman Field Test indicated that the youngest age group (25 and under) responded the most positively toward the total philosophy of community education, the oldest age group responded the least positively. All four identified groups rated the six tenets of community education from most to least positive in the same order. The three tenets receiving the highest overall agreement by all four groups included: 1) K-12 traditional school program; 2) community involvement; 3) extended use of facilities.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
VITA	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
ABSTRACT	viii
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Identification of the Problem	5
Statement of the Problem	5
Purpose of Study	6
General Questions to be Answered	8
General Procedure	10
Delimitations	12
Definition of Terms	12
Summary	13
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	15
Introduction	15
Overview of Community Education Philosophy: Traditional Education Versus Community Education	16
The Role of Attitudes in Effecting Change	27
Planning for the Implementation of Change Within the Community	35
School Surveys	42
Summary	51
III. PROCEDURES	54
Introduction	54
Description of the Community Assessment Plan	55
Organization of Descriptive Survey Administered in Bozeman, Montana	67
Treatment of Data	73
Statistical Hypotheses	74
Summary	77

Chapter	Page
IV. RESULTS OF COMMUNITY ASSESSMENT PLAN	79
Introduction	79
Selecting a Population	78
Selection of a Test Instrument	87
Method of Collecting Data	89
Population Demographics	96
Treatment of Data	97
Summary	99
V. RESULTS OF BOZEMAN FIELD TEST	102
Introduction	102
Analysis	105
Discussion of Total Philosophy	119
Discussion of the Six Components	121
Summary	123
VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	125
Introduction	125
Summary	125
Conclusions	133
Recommendations	134
LITERATURE CITED	137
APPENDICES	
A	145
B	150
C	154
D	158

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Reliability Coefficients, M-CEPI, Community-at-Large	66
2 Sample Population Registries	85
3 Number of Returns from Each Population Registry	86
4 Number of Returns from Each Attitude Instrument	88
5 Response Effectiveness for Three Methods of Collecting Data	90
6 Cost for Three Methods of Collecting Data	90
7 Time Expanded for Three Methods of Collecting Data	91
8 Success of Data Collecting Methods Identified from Other School Survey Research and the Community Education Field Test	95
9 Percentage of Returns	104
10 Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance among Four Different Age Groups toward the Community Education Philosophy	106
11 Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons between Different Age Groups	107
12 Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on Six Components by Age	108
13 Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance for Men and Women toward the Community Education Philosophy	110
14 Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on Six Components by Sex	111

Table	Page
15 Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance between the Community-at-Large and the School Community	113
16 Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on Population Groups toward the Six Components	114
17 Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance Between Respondents with Children Enrolled in School and Respondents with No Children Enrolled in School	116
18 Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on Respondents With and Without Children Enrolled in School Toward Six Components of Community Education	118

ABSTRACT

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Briefly, it was found that:

1. No one population registry included names of everyone residing in the community. The Bozeman county telephone directory provided the highest number of returns followed by the tax rolls.
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3. The mailed questionnaire received the highest number of returns cost the most and took the least amount of time than the personal or telephone interview.

Four different groups were tested for possible differences in their attitudes toward the philosophy of community education: 1) four age groups, 2) men and women, 3) school community and community-at-large, 4) respondents with children and without children currently enrolled in school.

The results of the Bozeman Field Test indicated that the youngest age group (25 and under) responded the most positively toward the total philosophy of community education, the oldest age group responded the least positively. All four identified groups rated the six tenets of community education from most to least positive in the same order. The three tenets receiving the highest overall agreement by all four groups included: 1) K-12 traditional school program; 2) community involvement; 3) extended use of facilities.

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Community education is a philosophic approach to individual and community improvement. Jack Minzey defined community education as:

Community education is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all of the educational needs of all of its community members. It uses the local school to serve as the catalyst by bringing community resources to bear on community problems in an effort to develop a positive sense of community, improve community living and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization (1972: 19).

As defined above, community education affects the well-being of everyone within a neighborhood or a community. Minzey's definition extends education from a traditional concept of teaching children to an expanded idea which identifies the wants, needs, and problems of a community. Community education stresses citizen involvement, agency coordination and cooperation, and a greater utilization of our facilities and physical resources. Community education emphasizes that local resources can be used to help solve community problems. Since the public schools are one of the largest available facilities in every community, they should be central to any community-wide improvement efforts. Minzey (1974: 3,7) defined six primary components in the community education concept. These are stated

as (1) the traditional day school program; (2) extended use of school facilities; (3) educational programs for school age children and youth; (4) programs for adults; (5) delivery and coordination of community services; and (6) community involvement.

Although community education has taken place throughout the country since the 1920's, Flint, Michigan, provides one of the best documented examples of the historical development of the community education concept. Frank Manly and Charles Stewart Mott implemented a plan for community education in Flint, Michigan, in 1935. This original plan emphasized the use of public schools as recreation centers for school age children. The community education concept grew in time to meet expanded needs. The "lighted school concept" has since changed from an emphasis on programs for children to a broader role, that of programs for youth and adults, over and above the regular school day. This continues to be one of the basic components of most community education programs. Since the widely publicized Flint model of community education has spread throughout the country, national statistics show acceptance of community education in cities and towns has grown from 560 community school districts in 1973 to 1,185 school districts in 1976 (Mott Foundation).

While many states have some form of community education program, several states such as Michigan, Minnesota, Florida, Utah, and Alaska have shown more rapid growth than others. In some

northern-northwestern states such as North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming and Idaho the concept is still relatively new. The state of Montana was first introduced to a community education program in 1971 when Butte received an H.E.W. Model Cities Grant to establish community education. This program lasted three years. It ended in 1974 when administrative policy decisions did not support continuation of the program. In February, 1977, the Board of Education at Libby, Montana, formally adopted the concept into its school system. Since then the community education concept has received increased attention in several Montana communities.

Community education by definition implies change. It is a dynamic process where a community moves from a state of separateness to a state of cohesion through cooperation. A community with diversified agencies organized to operate separately from one another, changes its problem solving process when coordinated to operate in a cooperative manner.

Making a smooth transition from separateness to unity requires knowledge and usage of the steps involved in the change process. When introducing a new concept such as community education into a community, careful planning and diagnosis of the community must be considered. Havelock emphasized the importance of solid groundwork in the initial stages of introducing a new concept in a community in his statement:

The very idea of change is threatening to most of us... In most respects most of us like our own world pretty much the way it is, and we look upon changes first as potential disturbances before we see them as potential benefits (1973: 73-75)

Taking Havelock's comment into consideration means community education advocates must do all they can to minimize a perception of threat by the community during the educational change process. A logical step in the change process before planning to introduce the concept of community education into a new area would be to assess peoples' current attitudes toward the tenets which make up the concept. As Havelock stated:

Diagnosis is a systematic attempt to understand the present situation... If you do not take the time to study and understand the current state of the system, your change efforts are likely to be misdirected and disappointing in the long run. For this reason you and your client should pause at the beginning of your relationship, and take a careful look at the system around you (1973: 63).

Program planning is a sequential process. Each stage affects the next. It is, therefore, requisite that proper attention be given at each stage; for omitting one step will endanger the final outcome.

It is with the above points in mind, that this researcher chose to develop a community assessment plan applicable to community education which identified initial community attitudes toward the basic tenets of community education.

Identification of the Problem

The problem of this study was identified by Burbach and Decker in their statement: "The community educator must build programs that will be in concert with the characteristics of his community (1974: 45)." The lack of guidelines in this area of planning are evident in their next statement: "A thorough understanding of the environment in which the community educator will function and of the people who will use them is required. That community education may lack sufficient expertise to develop this understanding gives emphasis to a critical area of need in the field (1974: 45)."

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study was to try to determine which of several methods would be most effective in collecting data that would identify community attitudes about the six basic tenets of community education. The alternative methods were tested in the Bozeman School District in Bozeman, Montana, to identify the strength and weaknesses of each. The data obtained were then analyzed to determine the attitudes of the Bozeman community, (including the school-community and the community-at-large) toward the basic tenets of community education.

Purpose of Study

As of 1976, over a thousand different school districts were operating community school programs throughout the nation. The Mott Foundation (1976) has predicted continued future growth from 1,185 in 1976, to 2,500 by 1978.

Mollay felt some of the reasons behind this growth trend in community education could be attributed to:

Changing social attitudes as much as financial cutbacks are helping to create a climate favorable to community schools ...The growing awareness that learning is dependent upon the quality of the learners home life, health, recreation, social activity, and environment (1973: 5).

Montana is one of several rural states having few established community education programs. The likelihood that community education will be given serious consideration in many school districts in Montana has been predicted for the future. The Center for Community Education at Montana State University has initiated contacts throughout Montana communities during 1976, 1977 and 1978 academic years. From these contacts growing interest has been indicated.

When a school district makes the decision to implement the community education concept, appropriate plans should be analyzed before proceeding. McCloskey stated:

Define and assess the circumstances in which you can proceed. Thorough analysis will help clarify specific leadership tasks. Consider the following questions:

1. What is the present state of public interest?
2. How much concern do people presently have for program improvements aimed at the enlargement of educational benefits?
3. To what extent does your present program embody community school concepts?
4. What parental reaction do you expect in your community?
(1973:27)

Before the change process from an established education plan to a new concept can be built, it is necessary to first assess the current attitudes of people living within a specified community. Once these attitudes are identified, appropriate strategies can be developed which attempt to approach the people at their initial level of readiness toward the new idea.

A plan to assess community attitudes toward the concept of community education was developed for use within communities throughout Montana. The attitude assessment plan developed in this study is for use by the schools to extend the community education concept through the community. For the purpose of this study, Beane's definition of the community has been applied. With reference to the schools, Beane recognizes two basic groups:

1. The school community which consists of those persons who are directly involved in the schools: teachers, students, administrators, school boards, nonclassified personnel and particular specialists;

2. The community-at-large which consists of all those persons who reside, work and pay taxes in the community and who send their children to the schools. This group might also be defined as those persons in the community who are not directly involved in the school (1974: 26,28).

Every community has characteristics which identify them as unique from any other community. Development of a plan which would be of use to all communities within Montana was developed in a flexible manner to make adaptation to individual community needs and resources possible.

The community assessment plan was intended as a guide for the implementation of an exploratory survey on community attitudes toward community education. The format was such that public school personnel and community citizens could identify a survey approach which best suited their needs. The plan was structured to identify and briefly describe the basic stages and important points of consideration in implementing a community education attitude survey. The suggested alternatives within each phase allowed for varying situations found in individual communities.

General Questions to be Answered

Two sets of questions were analyzed within the design of the overall study. Set one examined the structure of a process which could be used within each community when assessing community attitudes toward the basic concept of community education. A field test administered in Bozeman, Montana, was made to test strengths and

weaknesses of each of the alternatives identified in the plan. Set two refers to the information collected during a field test in Bozeman, Montana, of selected alternatives of the community assessment plan developed in this study.

Questions answered for set one of this study were:

1. In assessing the school community, and the community-at-large, toward three different survey methods, what were the strengths and weaknesses of each?
2. Of the four different procedures identified in this study for selecting a representative sample of the community-at-large, what were the strengths and weaknesses of each?
3. From the three different pre-tested questionnaires which would be appropriate for surveying people's attitudes toward the concepts behind community education? What were the strengths and weaknesses of each?
4. What were benefits and limitations of statistical analysis of data compared to the benefits and limitations of descriptive analysis of data, for the layman and the statistician?

Questions answered for set two of this study were:

1. Did the variable of age affect attitudes toward the tenets of community education?
2. Did the variable of sex (male or female) affect attitudes toward the tenets of community education?
3. What tenets were viewed most favorably by the school community and the community-at-large?
4. What tenets were least favorably by the school community and the community-at-large?
5. Was there a difference of views toward the tenets of community education between the school community and the community-at-large?

6. Was there a difference of views toward the tenets of community education between respondents who have children in school and those who do not?

General Procedure

A community assessment plan was developed to include several options. The most detailed options necessitated more time and resources, while the simpler options allowed for faster completion with less expenditure of resources, with an understanding that information gained was less detailed. Identification of the necessary elements incorporated in the plan included discussion of their importance and expected outcomes of each of the suggested alternatives.

Procedures for carrying out the plan were illustrated through alternative sample studies run in the Bozeman, Montana, School District. Groups considered in the study included (1) school-community divided into administrators and teachers; (2) community-at-large according to different age groups, male and female, people with children in school, and people with no children in school.

Four methods for selecting a representative sample of the community membership were analyzed for their individual strengths and weaknesses. These included: (a) county telephone directory (Lomar), (b) City Directory (Polk), (c) county tax rolls, (d) county voter registration. Each of these methods were included in the test administered in Bozeman.

Three basic ways of sampling were described and tested in Bozeman: (a) mailed questionnaires, (b) telephone survey; (c) door-to-door interview. Advantages and disadvantages of each were analyzed.

A choice of three pre-tested attitude instruments was selected, and the strengths and weaknesses of each alternative were identified. All instruments were tested through a mailout survey. Comparisons were made on possible differences in number of returns.

Appropriate methods for analysis of results were discussed using both statistical and nonstatistical tests. Advantages and disadvantages of both sophisticated and simple data analysis were presented. Examples of statistical hypotheses and tables were used in the analysis of the test conducted in Bozeman.

The community assessment plan was basically designed for school districts interested in adopting community education into their system. School districts can use a combination of several options presented which fit the needs of individual districts. Assessing current attitudes of the community toward community education allows the district to build the necessary background information before a community education implementation plan begins. The options presented in this study allow communities to select a plan of action that fits within its available resources and identified needs.

Delimitations

1. The investigator limited the test area to the geographical boundaries of Bozeman School District #7.
2. The plan was field tested in a specific community, thus limiting the general findings of the study.
3. The study was conducted using different samples of the defined community membership. Results of the study are, therefore, susceptible to group sampling error.

Definition of Terms

Community Education Components

The primary components comprising a community education program were identified by Minzey as: (1) the traditional day school program; (2) extended use of community facilities; (3) additional programs for school-age children and youth; (4) programs for adults; (5) delivery and coordination of community services; and (6) community involvement (1974: 3,7).

Community

A group or company of people living fairly close together in a contiguous territory, who are coming to act together in the chief concerns of life (Good, 1973: 119).

Bozeman Community

As used in this study, the Bozeman community consisted of the geographical boundaries of the Bozeman School District.

Social Attitude

Social attitude was defined as readiness to respond in a certain way (such as impartially, aggressively, positively, or negatively) to a given social phenomenon (Good, 1973: 49).

Summary

The rise in number of communities accepting the community education concept reflects a change in school philosophy from a closed system to an open system. Community education is designed to work with the community so that schools and community can be involved on interrelated issues. Proponents of community education feel an involved, coordinated problem-solving community will benefit everyone from youth to senior citizen.

Montana and several other rural states presently have very few active community education programs. Introducing the community

education concept into any community involves a change process. The change process, if not handled carefully, can create a reluctance by the people to accept the proposed new method of doing things. So that the community will see the potential benefits of the new idea, careful plans must be made to reduce the threat from a change in the traditional way of doing things as much as possible.

The intent and primary problem of this study was the development of a community attitude assessment plan which could be adapted and duplicated by interested communities throughout Montana. The plan identified a combination of several options for assessing the current attitudes of people living within a specified community toward the basic tenets found in community education. Strategies for community education implementation can be built by individual communities when they are able to identify and approach people at their initial readiness level.

The planning component was designed in a manner that made it possible for other districts to adapt the plan in a manner most suitable to their individual needs. Through analysis of the test study and results of tested alternatives, other interested communities may learn where to begin in implementing a community education program to fit the specific needs of their community.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

During the past decade increased interest has been expressed in community education. The literature reported various operational applications of community education. Investigations of many aspects of community education are desirable in order to comprehend more fully the impact of its influence on community life.

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature as it related to community attitudes toward the community education philosophy. The material is divided into four categories and was presented as follows: (1) Overview of community education philosophy: Traditional education concept versus community education concept; (2) The role of attitude in effecting change; (3) Planning for the implementation of change within the community; (4) School surveys.

It was the intent of this investigator to cover information in the above four categories to help illustrate how community education effects change in a community and why community education initiators must consider the attitudes of the people within the community when planning for change. Conway stated, "The climate of expectations within a community is made up of traditions and values which people

have about an area of endeavor such as education. The expectations which people hold become yardsticks by which they measure present performance and form opinions about future performance of their schools." Since no community has exactly the same expectations, planning strategies must be carefully developed which recognize the unique characteristics found in the community under consideration.

Overview of Community Education Philosophy: Traditional Education Versus Community Education

Community education has evolved from the theories and practices of some of our historical leaders in educational philosophy. The fundamental tenets of community education were found in the writings of Dewey and Clapp. In 1900, Dewey recognized the importance of an involved community membership.

A society is a number of people held together because they are working along common lines in a common spirit, and with reference to common aims. The common needs and aims demand a growing interchange of thought and growing unit of sympathetic feeling (1900: 11).

Throughout Dewey's life, he continued to emphasize the strong effect of environment upon the education of youth. Dewey believed that learning about life came from interaction with life; that education could not teach a person to cope with his environment unless he became directly familiar with its emotional spirit. Trying to teach a person certain beliefs, emotions and knowledge with no

understanding of the real life reasons behind those teachings will not hold a lasting effect. In Dewey's writings of 1916 he described the importance of a person's involvement in the social environment in order to truly educate:

The development within the young of the attitudes and dispositions necessary to the continuous and progressive life of a society cannot take place by direct conveyance of beliefs, emotions, and knowledge. It takes place through the intermediary of the environment. The environment consists of the sum total of conditions which are concerned with the execution of the activity characteristic of the living being. The social environment consists of all activities of fellow beings that are bound up in carrying on the activities of any one of its members. It is truly education in its effects, in its efforts, in the degree in which an individual appropriates the purposes which actuate it, becomes familiar with its methods and subject matters, acquires needed skills, and is saturated with its emotional spirit (1916: 225).

Hart, a student of Dewey's, also voiced Dewey's views. He felt the relationship between the school and community could not be legitimately separated:

Education is not apart from life... The democratic problem with education is not primarily a problem of training children; it is a problem of making a community within which children cannot help growing up to be democratic, intelligent, disciplined to freedom, reverent to the goals of life, and eager to share in the tasks of the age. Schools cannot produce the result, nothing but the community can do so (1924: 382).

Elise Clapp spoke specifically to the role of the school in the betterment of community life.

What does a community school do? First of all, it meets as best it can, and with everyone's help, the urgent needs of the people, for it holds that everything that affects the welfare of the children and their families is its concern. Where does school end and life outside begin? There is no distinction

between them. A community school is a used place, a place used freely and informally for all the needs of living and learning. It is, in effect, that place where learning and living converge (1939: 89).

Dewey also spoke of the importance of developing a sense of community within the schools. Dewey felt schools should create an internal mini-community. Students could then go out into the larger community with a better understanding of their place within it. Community education as it is conceived today, stresses bringing the real community into the schools. The community becomes the learning arena where students become actively involved in community issues and problems.

These early views of education, though met with excitement and enthusiasm, were still not considered the accepted way of teaching or learning. Education was founded on a much narrower tradition of imparting knowledge. Dewey compared his community education philosophy with these narrower achievements of the dominant educational philosophy of his time.

It is our present education which is highly specialized, one sided, and narrow. It is an education dominated almost entirely by the medieval conception of learning. It is something which appeals for the most part simply to the intellectual aspect of our natures, our desire to learn, to accumulate information and to get control of the symbols of learning (1900: 24-26).

Garr also referred to the unnatural effect of the traditional educational philosophy of his day in his description:

Many schools are like little islands set apart from the mainland of life by a deep moat of convention and tradition. Across the moat there is a drawbridge, which is lowered at certain periods during the day in order that the part-time inhabitants may cross over to the island in the morning and back to the mainland at night. Why do these young people go out to the island? They go there in order to learn how to live on the mainland.

After the last inhabitant of the island has left in the early afternoon, the drawbridge is raised. Janitors clean up the island, and the lights go out (1942: 34).

Many of these same attitudes toward teaching and learning continued to be found in the traditional education of the fifties. Hanna (1953: 49) pointed out that schools continued to emphasize a curriculum which taught the basic skills acquired in book centered learning. He has stated:

Traditionally, schools have been given the responsibility for developing men and women with sound and liberal education under the assumption that, if this were done, desirable and necessary social changes would inevitably occur through the efforts of these individuals in their adult years. With some notable exceptions, schools have existed in a sphere more or less removed from contact with the real problems of community life. Too frequently, education has concentrated its attention on the teaching of the skills of literacy and citizenship in an academic atmosphere with little emphasis on the development of programs aimed directly at the solution of social problems and the meeting of social needs (1953: 49-50).

The staff of the Northwest Community Education Development Center has written on the subject of community education in an effort to clarify what they see as the basic difference between the traditional concept of education and the expanded concept provided by community education. They have made the following distinction between the two:

In the narrow view (traditional) of schools no particular leadership is assumed by the school and its staff for community development. The curriculum is somewhat rigid, and depends almost exclusively on book centered learning. The assumption is made that intellectualism is sufficient as a means of preparing young people to meet all human needs or at least the assumption is made that the school's responsibility ends with the intellectual preparation of the pupils (1976: 3).

A further breakdown was made which discusses the role of the school and its relation to the outside community. Once again basic differences could be found between the two views:

By and large the school handles its job alone and apart from the home. There is very little direct effort to join forces with the home and the community in the child's development and preparation for life (Northwest Community Education Development Center, 1976: 3).

Looking at the basic concept of community education and its view toward the schools and its people, the Northwest Community Education Development Center made the distinction that:

In order to have the greatest impact on the development of the individual, the home, the school, and the community must be supportive of one another in terms of the best interest of the individual. The community school not only sends its staff and leaders into the home and the community, but it involves adults from the home and the community in the learning experience of the children and in leadership responsibility for activities during the optional portions of the school day, week, and year. In this relationship the home, school and community form an effective team for the development of the community as a whole (1976: 6).

Even though traditional thought has been the major influence in education from the past to the present, threads of the more open, participatory concept have run through the philosophies of many educational leaders. Seay felt a continued objective of many

schools had been recognition of the importance of involvement in one's community life:

Community school leaders of the thirties, forties, and fifties recognized that an educational objective requiring changed behavior could be achieved only through the learner's participation in learning experiences related to the solving of problems--preferably the problems found in the learner's own experiencing of community life. Community educators of today agree with them (1974: 31).

With these basic contrasts in mind, the present philosophy of community education should now be more specifically investigated. This researchers investigation of the literature shows that differences between philosophical attitudes within the concept of community education are also found. These variations were explored for each adds a slightly different dimension to the overall concept.

Minzey saw the modern concept of education as having a broad base when he stated:

Community education is an educational philosophy which permeates basic belief. It enlarges and enhances the role of the public school...public schools have some kind of responsibility for almost all activities that take place within the community... The school plays a catalytic role, serving an organizing function (1972: 52).

Minzey saw the school as the primary agent in the community education theme. He saw the relationship between 'community school' and 'community education' as:

Community education is the educational concept; community school is the vehicle by which many services of community education are delivered...The responsibility for coordinating the function of relating needs to programs becomes that of the schools (1972: 152).

People also identify community education as based through agencies other than the schools such as the city council or various service agencies within the community. Fairchild and Neal made no mention of the formal school setting; they exhibited a more general viewpoint in their statement:

Today we assert with confidence that all life educates consciously or not, deliberately or not, constructively or not, and that education should therefore become a life-long process of functional learning experience which together increase the learners competence in living. This is the philosophy of community education (1975: 17).

In a study by Wilson the community as a whole was seen as the focus for community education. No specified program was outlined for the community, rather each community is to assess its own unique needs and make plans to fulfill these identified gaps.

Inherent in the community education concept is the belief that each community education program should reflect the needs and interests of its particular community. Thus community education varies from school community to school community and the community education program in one location cannot be made to fit another (1976: 17).

Van Voorhees spoke to community education and schools and was in basic agreement with Wilson's statement above when he said:

Inherent in the community school philosophy is the proposition that since each community is unique, the school must be unique to meet the community's needs (1969: 166).

Melby and Kerensky described education as that of Education I, (present or traditional education) and Education II, (new or community education). These authors felt:

The most distinguishing mark of the new educational program is its close involvement with the life of the entire community. The richness of its program will reach all the people at convenient times and places with offerings adapted to their interests and needs. The education centered community provides education for all. It not only helps people but it also helps people to help themselves. In the school of such a community and in its varied community life, much of the teaching and leadership comes from the people themselves. In the process of helping others they educate themselves (1971: 102).

Decker gave us a philosophy of community education which stressed linking together home, school, and community.

The community education philosophy stresses developing and strengthening the vital relationship, mutual dependence and fundamental linkage between the home, school, and community in all phases of human growth and community improvement. By utilizing the total community environment the community becomes a living-learning laboratory for students and adults. Tax dollars as well as private funds are used more effectively and much duplication of services is eliminated (1975: 7).

Minzey attempted to clarify some of the basic differences between earlier philosophical definitions and interpretations given to community education in its current state of evolution.

The definition of community education has passed through an interesting evolution. It is probably accurate to say that early definitions were comparatively limited in their potential impact as compared with more recent conceptualizations. Community education in its earlier stages tended to define limited programs such as recreation or extra programs...such as they tended to deal with programs tacked on to the existing curriculum...even strong supporters of community education tended to view it as an extra...The common thread which runs through (earlier)...interpretations is that, in general, they are all subparts of the concept (1972: 52).

LeTarte and Minzey in their book, Community Education From Program to Process, developed a community education statement which

attempted to combine the many programs and processes which were necessary to the understanding of the whole concept.

Community Education is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all of the educational needs of all of its community members. It uses the local school to serve as the catalyst for bringing community resources to bear on community problems in an effort to develop a positive sense of community, improve community living, and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization (1972: 19).

The evolutionary process of defining the concept of community education brought with it the process of putting theories into practice. Community education practitioners are given the task of applying the broad definition of the concept into a workable application at the local level. This means that philosophy must be brought down into obtainable goals. This task has been attempted by describing the characteristics to be found in a community education program.

The number of components found in any one community will vary according to the needs and resources of that community. However, a framework for the program provides the practitioner with identifiable areas to begin. Practitioners of community education consider process as a key to a successful program. Process can be thought of as an overriding key to successful programs. Everett (1938: 457) differentiated process from program when he said:

All life is education versus education is gained only in formal institutions of learning. Education requires participation versus education is adequately gained through studying about life (1938: 457).

When identifying the components of community education, the philosophical concept is oriented to a process. The program itself is defined as a process within which people work together to solve problems. Minzey described six basic components which he felt should be included as working goals in a community education program.

1. An Educational Program for School Age Children In Community Education, attention should be given to relevance, community involvement, and the use of the community to enhance classroom teaching.
2. Use of Community Facilities There is often an abundance of unused space in most communities...School buildings, in particular, should become a focal point for community activities and services.
3. Additional Programs for School Age Children and Youth Additional information, activities, and experiences can be provided by expanding offerings to students before school, after school, weekends and summers.
4. Programs for Adults The needs of adults would be recognized as being as important as those of the school age student, and the student body would be perceived as being all of the people who reside in that community.
5. Delivery and Coordination of Community Services Only when existing agencies are unable to provide services would the community education coordinator assist in the development of new programs. The coordinator actually acts as a broker, relating problems to resources and making referrals to the appropriate sources.
6. Community Involvement This phase of Community Education has often been described as the effort to return "participatory democracy." The idea is to help persons who live in a particular neighborhood participate in the identity of local problems develop the process for attempting to solve such problems (1974: 7).

The Department of Health, Education and Welfare, through the Community School Act of 1974, identified eight minimum elements which should be included in a federally funded community education program:

1. School involvement
2. Serve an identified community
3. Public facility as a community center
4. Extended scope of activities and services
5. Identifying and documenting community needs
6. Identification and utilization of community resources
7. Serve all age groups
8. Provide for active and continuous community participation on an advisory basis (Department of H.E.W.: CFDA Number 13.563:57937)

The philosophies and philosophical definitions discussed above have a commonality in their positive stress on total community involvement. A sense of identity with and willingness to participate in community issues is necessary to bring people together. Communities can only be improved if people are willing to work together to solve problems.

Differences in philosophies were found in the degree to which: 1). The community was stressed over the schools; 2). the importance attached to process over programs, and 3). recognition of community education as an integrated part of education over a segmented program which could be added or tacked on to the traditional school curriculum or dropped as budgeting would dictate.

Leaders within community education emphasized different aspects of the overall concept. This has led to a variety of philosophical definitions. Synthesizing these ideas brought together the basic philosophy to be used in this research.

Community education, as defined in this study, necessitates an open education system which acts as a catalyst to bring people with diverse backgrounds together in order to develop a sense of community. Through the process of community involvement people are able to identify and solve common problems which are unique to their community.

The Role of Attitudes in Effecting Change

The decision to adopt a community education philosophy is often the result of a school system decision to change from a traditional education role to a broader, more comprehensive purpose of education. Such a change implies a shift in the attitudes of those with given responsibility to identify educational priorities within a given school district. Community education emphasizes the importance of an involved community membership in educational decision making. Whereas, traditional education has been referred to by the Northwest Community Education Center (1976) as a system where there is very little direct effort to join forces with the home and the community.

Such a philosophical difference in the purpose found between traditional and community education affects the way people need to think of themselves and their relationship with the education system as a whole. Community education is a dynamic process, requiring time, involvement and new responsibilities for all citizens. Therefore, significant changes must take place in the attitude of those affected. How people feel toward the basic concepts of the community education philosophy is perhaps the most significant factor to consider before beginning the process of change from a traditional closed system to the open community education system.

Before the initiator of community education can begin implementing a new philosophy of education into any community, the existing attitudes of the citizenship must be carefully considered so the discrepancies between what is and what is desired can be ascertained. A literature review to examine the nature of attitudes and their importance in any successful change process is therefore included to support the role of attitudes and their effect on change, and to examine their role in the accepted goals and objectives of education.

The term, attitude, is one of the most common terms in the broad field of educational psychology. Humans are unique in that they possess the ability to make and communicate attitudinal positions. As Simons (1976: 80) noted, the attitude structure of humans is

exceptionally complex as a relatively enduring predisposition to respond favorably or unfavorably toward an attitude object. It is generally accepted that a person's attitudes are sets of evaluative categories formed or learned during interactions with persons and objects in the social world; they are the manifested implications of combining a belief with a relevant value system.

Research in the social science fields consistently investigates attitude-related factors. In an historical review, G. W. Allport noted reasons for this fact:

Furthermore, it is a concept which escapes the controversy concerning the relative influence of heredity and environment. Since an attitude may combine both instinct and habit in any proportion, it avoids the extreme commitments of both the instinct theory and environmentalism. The term, likewise, is elastic enough to apply either to the dispositions of single, isolated individuals, or to broad patterns of culture (1954: 1).

Characteristics and Components of Attitudes

While the construct of attitude is complex, numerous researchers have worked to isolate their commonalities. Kiesler, et al. summarized the characteristics as follows:

1. Their presence is inferred; cannot be directly observed.
2. Attitudes vary in their direction and intensity.
3. Attitudes are relatively enduring; they are consistent over time.
4. Attitudes are responses to something; the self or the environment (1969: 10).

Attitudes function in a variety of ways, depending upon situations. Their functions are, however, classed as discrete function

components. Katz set forth the major functions as:

1. The instrumental, utilitarian function
2. The knowledge function
3. The value-expressive function
4. The ego-defensive function (1960: 164)

While these functions are variously labeled, reference to and utilization of them is noted consistently as affective, cognitive and behavioral variables.

Some researchers, such as Sherif, Sherif and Nebergall (1965), Zimbardo and Ebbesen (1969), and Watson and Johnson (1972) felt that the study of the nature of attitudes from the characteristics and components vantage point was productive only to a certain degree. Then what was needed were the details for assessing the ranges of attitudes assimilation for various classes of individuals and varieties of specified topics. When this was achieved, strategies for changing attitudes could then be developed and initiated.

A problem may be encountered when attitude concepts are intermingled with those of beliefs and values. When research is conducted on a larger public's attitudes, it may seem difficult to differentiate among the concepts. This is especially apparent when writers, such as Jones and Gerard (1967) considered attitudes as the implications of combining beliefs with relevant values.

Beliefs are relatively easy to define. They are assessments, relational statements about the self and environment derived from data inferred to be true and factual. Simons (1976) noted that beliefs may

be about the past or future; of conceptual relationships; descriptions of the real world; about objects, others, self, and the credibility of sources or casual inferences.

Values, being more socially developed, are more complex.

Jones and Gerard stated that:

Value refers to a wide variety of motivational phenomena. Any singular state or object for which the individual strives, or approaches, or extols, embraces, voluntarily consumes, or incurs expense to acquire, is a positive value. Anything that the individual avoids, escapes from, deplures, rejects, or attacks is a negative value (1967: 158-9).

Values are affective, or emotion-laden. Rokeach has developed a generalized value system:

1. Total number of values that a person possesses is relatively small.
2. All men everywhere possess the same values to different degrees.
3. Values are organized into value systems.
4. The antecedent of human values can be traced to culture, society, and its institutions, and personality.
5. The consequences of human values will be manifested in virtually all phenomena that social scientists might consider worth investigating and understanding (1973: 30).

Thus, the producers of attitudes--beliefs and values--are interactive. By placing these elements in a serial relationship regarding the topic of this research, it could be observed:

A value system:	Education
An attitude:	Education is desirable
A belief:	A good education means a good salary

Rokeach (1966) contended that every individual may have tens of thousands of beliefs, hundreds of attitudes, but only dozens of values.

Attitude Change

Given that persons exist within various value systems by attaching "good-bad" feelings to their beliefs, then any plan to initiate reinforcement, alteration, or creation of beliefs or attitudes must know details of the presently-held system. To be determined, so to speak, is the cognitive status quo of a particular value system.

It might be assumed that if an attitude is a predisposition toward (or away from) something, then we would anticipate that individuals respond in ways somewhat consistent with their given attitudes. This assumption, however, may not hold up. Wicker (1969) concluded that attitudes are only slightly related to actions, if they are related at all. Thus, the problem for the researcher is to determine public opinion formation regarding a value system being investigated, such as community education. As Katz stated:

The public opinion process is one phase of the influencing of collective decisions, and its investigation involves knowledge of channels of communication, of the power structures of a society, of the character of mass media, of the relation between elites, factions, and masses, of the role of formal and informal leaders, of the institutionalized access to officials. But the raw material out of which public opinion develops is to be found in the attitudes of individuals, whether they be followers or leaders and whether these attitudes be at the general level of tendencies to conform to legitimate authority or majority opinion or at the specific level of favoring or opposing the particular aspects of the issue under consideration. The nature of the organization of attitudes are thus critical areas for the understanding of the collective product known as public opinion (1960: 163).

In order to determine the likelihood of any program development on a community level, public opinion, or attitudes held by the public toward the topic, must be determined. Then, if justified, a program designed for attitude change may be initiated. David Jesser stated:

It is imperative that educational organizations and agencies as they attempt to develop appropriate strategies designed to implement needed change must consider many environmental factors and relationships including:

1. Attitudes conducive to change
2. Developing competencies to cope with change
3. Developing competencies to administer or manage change
4. Planning for the implementation of change (1977: 20)

Attitude change is a problem of the discrepancy between the information being communicated to someone and that individual's initial viewpoint toward the subject matter. Discrepancy infers two positions on some type of scale; one polarity is that of the individual receiving information, while the other is that of the information being communicated. The implication of a discrepancy is that individuals evaluate incoming messages in attempts to assess the degree of divergence between them and their own cognitive stances. Whether consciously or not, this placement is a judgment process dependent upon some form of social evaluation.

Ranges of acceptances for various issues, objects, and persons include noncommittal positions toward subjects. If a position does not fall too far beyond either pole of the acceptance range, it may be

assimilated into the range of acceptances. If the position clearly falls beyond ranges of acceptance, individuals tend to appraise it as being more discrepant than it actually is. The more intense an individual's commitment to an issue, the greater the displacement of any discrepant messages away from the parameters of the particular ranges of acceptance.

Festinger (1957) proposed that there are numerous alternative responses when a topical position falls beyond either pole of the acceptance range. A state of cognitive dissonance exists and persons gravitate toward consonant states.

It is further noted in Festinger's work on dissonance that any change or no change response is a function of movement toward or away from the boundaries of the range of acceptance; individuals experience consonance or respond to dissonance variously by changing attitudes, discrediting the source of information and/or the information, seeking social approval, and increasing resistance to change. Circumstances and/or individual coping mechanisms are responsible for determining which alternative responses to discrepant messages are employed.

The climate of opinion, economic conditions, social ethics, and the political learnings of each community at any given point and time will greatly determine the content and structure of the school, as well as its philosophy and purpose. To determine the feasibility of

program initiation, modification, or reinforcement, the base levels of attitude must be ascertained. This, however, must be understood as the tapping of an as-yet nonobservable entity. The researcher must ask opinions, observe the public's behavior, study demographic variables, or develop and administer some form of attitude measure to begin the process of understanding from what point change might begin.

Planning for the Implementation of Change

Within the Community

Society is constantly changing and evolving to reflect new needs and concerns. Communities that deal with change only as a reflexive reaction to a situation rather than as part of an overall plan which provides a carefully deliberated solution will find themselves pulling in several directions at once with no overall benefit to the community as a whole. Planned change, as defined by Havelock "comes about through a deliberate process which is intended to make both acceptance by and benefit to the people who are changed more likely (1973: 5)."

Planning a community education program implies by its very title an effect on the whole community membership. A basic requirement, therefore, must include a study of the community's predisposition toward the type of changes encouraged in the community education philosophy. Havelock explained:

For example, the members of any social group share a number of common beliefs, values, and rules of behavior. These shared "norms" describe what it means to be "us" instead of "them". A change agent should make himself familiar with these features of his client system (1973: 44).

Owens and Steinhoff elaborated on this position in their statement:

Certainly one of the dominant themes of our life and time is change; its pervasiveness, its rapid pace, its effect on traditional practices, ethics, beliefs, and behavior are familiar challenges to everyone (1976: 21).

The difference between ignoring change with the old fashioned attitude of 'what will be will be' and "contemporary concepts of organizational change include a significant element of deliberateness that involves planning, direction, and control of the attempt to bring about fundamental alterations of the organization (Owens and Steinhoff 1976: 22)."

Owens and Steinhoff stated further that "the demand for change is expressed in terms of problems to be solved; in the case of schools, these emerge--sooner or later--as issues of social policy" (1972: 22).

Community education philosophy is founded on the basic belief in the ability of people to think for themselves, and to be personally responsible in helping shape the future that affects their lives. Before ever coming to the planning stages of building broader community participation, educators must have reached conclusions as to whether people basically need to be controlled by others or are self-controlled.

McGregor briefly described these theories as Theory X and Theory Y:

Theory X postulates 3 basic propositions. A. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can. B. Because of this characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment so that they will work toward the organization's goals. C. The average human being prefers to be directed, wants security, and avoids responsibility. Theory Y takes a different view: A. Physical work and mental work are as natural as play if they are satisfying. B. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control toward an organization's goals if he is committed to them. C. Commitment is a function of rewards. The best rewards are satisfaction of ego and self-actualization. D. The average person can learn to accept and seek responsibility. Avoidance of it and emphasis on security are learned and are not inherent characteristics (1960: 33-57).

If the school system believes that people would rather be directed, want to avoid work and responsibility, then there is little need to seek out the opinions of the community membership. For they obviously would have little perceived need for community education. Community education precludes that people want to be involved and responsible for happenings in their present and future. According to Maslow, the needs and feelings that are most important to people include the concepts emphasized in community education. Maslow's five headings included:

1. Physiological needs - basic human needs, such as food, clothing and shelter.
2. Security - they need to be free of physical danger, or the danger of being deprived of ways to meet the basic physiological needs.
3. Social - the need to be accepted by other human beings, to belong, and to have the approval of others.

4. Esteem - the need to be recognized by others, through the granting of status, prestige and power.
5. Selfactualization - the need to fulfill one's potential or to do what one believes is important from his own point of view (1954: 131).

Community education could not be as successful and widespread as it is today if people once given the chance were not responding in a Theory Y manner. People will participate, be involved, responsible citizens when given the tools and confidence to do so. Such behavior works toward Maslow's points of self esteem and self-actualization.

Taylor pointed out:

To meet this challenge the school will need to devise ways of working jointly with other community organizations to develop effective learning opportunities for character developments, the positive induction of youth into adulthood, and for the responsibilities of citizenship (1977: 12).

In the past, many communities treated their citizens as Theory X oriented. Community education will require a change to that of "responding to the need for the school to participate constructively and energetically in the reconstruction of the total educational environment in which children grow up will require new thinking, new planning, and new practices (Taylor 1977: 13)."

Once the decision has been made to enhance community involvement through a community education program, the consideration must then be where to begin the change process. Zander believed "resistance to change might be minimized if careful attention is given

beforehand to the following matters: What the change should be like, how it should be implemented, and who should participate in making decisions about the change(1950: 9)." Havelock adds to this point in his statement:

In a process model, there should be 1) a rational sequence in the evaluation and application of the innovation; 2) research development and packaging of a program change should occur before dissemination of the program change; 3) there should be planning on a massive scale (1971: 179).

Owens and Steinhoff said that:

Typically problems of directing and controlling change in schools have been approached in a relatively unsystematic way. Faced with the need for some kind of change in the school goals or the way in which it seeks to attain its goals, the administration tends to proceed more or less intuitively, and falls back on common sense and his own experience. The results generally have been less than spectacular (1976: 8).

David Jessor elaborated this point in his statement:

While there is an inevitableness about change, this need not--indeed should not--imply that we have neither the ability nor the capability to exercise some degree of control or influence over many of the changes that will occur. If such were the case we would simply be forced to accept the changes, together with the consequences thereof, and to adjust, in some fashion, to both. When acting in this manner, we would be admitting, either overtly or covertly, that we possess only a capacity for adjusting to our environment. But, as we experience or anticipate change, we do have other alternatives available including:

1. Ascertaining the nature and direction of changes that are likely to take place, and then attempting to be ready for the changes when they occur.
2. Exerting some degree of control over changes that will probably occur, thus maximizing the beneficial aspects of minimizing the harmful aspects (1977: 10).

Just as a community with no plan for its future will not know its destination, a community with no baseline for its planning will not know where to begin. As Havelock stated:

Many people who want to bring about change have definite ideas about what the change should be...however, being an effective solution given involves more than simply having a solution. You have to know when and how to offer it (1973: 9).

To accomplish this, Havelock suggested:

Assess your relationship with a client system. If you know where you stand with a client, and if you know how he sees you, you will be in a better position to adapt and enhance this relationship as the change effort progresses (1973: 43).

Jesser supports Havelock in his statement:

In many instances planning, or what is purported to be planning, is undertaken as a result of someone's hunches or wishful thinking without any serious consideration being devoted to determination of need. At the same time, it should be recognized that need can only be determined through comprehensive analysis of what is and what might be. Obviously, information must be collected and carefully scrutinized before any discrepancy between what is and what might be can be ascertained (1977: 12).

When the client system includes a total community membership, study needs to be given on how the community would feel toward the changes that could result from the implementation of community education. Initial study of your client (i.e., community system) is only the first phase of the change process. Its need is crucial to the success of the following steps but importance should not be mushroomed into a complicated, exhaustive study that wears on the initial enthusiasm of the whole program.

Havelock emphasized:

We suggested a systematic and comprehensive approach, but this does not mean you must be exhaustive. Your diagnosis may not get you an "A" in survey research, but this is not your purpose. The diagnosis should merely be adequate for giving you a good general picture of a client situation (1973: 73).

Stop planning and go to implementation when you have agreement on purposes and expectations for the change. A preliminary design, indications of commitment and approval of resources. Overplan can be overkill (1973: 9).

To accomplish this primary step of the initial assessment of the community's attitude toward the basic philosophy of community education so an implementation model can proceed from an accepted point of entry, a generally designed implementation model would not be appropriate to attempt to apply on any one community. In an Education U.S.A. special report the reason for individualizing a community education plan for each community was clarified by Don Davies:

The solutions and approaches to community involvement must be locally developed and locally administered to be really effective. The fundamental purpose of community involvement is to involve individuals and decisions which affect their lives. A single, national model for involvement imposed externally would undermine the very purpose it sought to fulfill (1977: 93).

Identification of community readiness toward the changes necessitated by the implementation of a community education program is a key to program success. By knowing the readiness point a plan can then be designed which will begin at a favorable entry point to the community's identified acceptance level. The Northwest Center for

Community Education suggested:

Difficult to accept as it may be, evidence is mounting that a favorable program setting has more to do with program success than unique program characteristics (1976: 4).

Favorable program settings can be established once it is known how the community feels toward the different proposed changes identified in a community education program.

School Surveys

To accomplish the descriptive research necessary for the assessment of community attitudes toward community education; an opinion survey has been identified for use in a diagnosis process of the initial community entry point for the implementation of a community education program. Ary, et al. defined this research as follows:

Descriptive research studies are designed to obtain information concerning the current status of phenomena. They are directed toward determining the nature of the situation as it exists at the time of the study. There is no administration or control of a treatment as is found in experimental research (1973: 286).

Conway, et al. expressed the fact that:

The people are the community. It is their values, beliefs, and opinions that must be ascertained. An opinion survey of the general community seeks information concerning how respondents feel about an issue, idea, or object. Opinions, or dispositions, are the result of a person's past experiences, group memberships, and value system (1974: 68).

Rogers, et al. identified the survey method as a research tool to measure community opinion toward community issues:

Academicians favor the use of scientifically designed surveys to reliably identify community opinions on a set of issues ...Attitude surveys can be a good barometer of community desires and opinions. Sometimes results can be surprising in their identification of residents perception of needs, particularly if they are repressed needs within the community. The attitude survey can be an outlet for expression when no other exists (1976: 122).

This research has emphasized the importance of effective and meaningful planning to bring about a successful program change in a community. Planning and designing procedures need to be carefully considered to bring changes of maximum benefit to the community. Without planned change, school systems and communities will have to cope with changes they have not foreseen. Jesser commented on this fact in his statement:

Change occurs with or without planning. The major purpose of planning is to bring about some needed and agreed upon change designed to correct or improve upon an existing situation. Appropriate planning which provides for collection and analysis of data makes possible an orderly and systematic procedure for achieving change (1977: 95).

The school survey on whatever concern, provides a channel of information necessary to develop or improve programs. School surveys provide the school district with information about the people to be affected or who are affected by a school related concern.

According to Cooper:

...it (the school survey) is designed to secure a complete collection of data as is reasonably possible for its analysis; it is aimed at producing either carefully considered evaluative judgments, or important recommendations for future development (1960: 1211).

Carithers felt institutions should survey their communities frequently for the following reasons:

First is the trend to long-term planning and development of the technology and systems approach that makes long-term planning possible. Keeping a finger on the pulse of constituent populations is a necessity for making changes that are politically or socially acceptable.

Second is the change in social structure in the cities, towns, suburbs, and rural areas in which we work.

Third is the emotional climate of our time. We call its various manifestations student unrest, teacher militancy, voter resistance, parent concern. This emotional climate may very well be created or affected by the attrition of the informal communications systems and its function in resolving conflicts before they reach dangerous intensity (1973: 7).

School surveys have been in use for several decades throughout the United States. In 1948 Edgar Morphet explained some of their important aspects:

There are very few schools, school systems, or educational institutions which are adequate in every respect at the time they are established...Seldom do they meet all of their responsibilities as well as they should. A survey, therefore, should help to discover or call attention to deficiencies which may have existed for many years and to assist in bringing about needed improvements... Any tendency to continue a program without constant or periodic evaluation or to make changes just because someone has an idea that changes should be made is likely to be disastrous... (1948: 11-13).

It is reasonable to expect that the school survey can be used as a significant instrument for the study and improvement of all facets of education. Sears summarized many of the contributions of school surveys when he wrote:

Without trying here to present quantitative evidence of the value or extent of the survey's contributions, it is believed that no one would question the statements that, because of the school survey movement:

1. Our school practice has been improved.
2. Our school housing has been improved.
3. The status of the profession has been improved in fact and in the estimation of the public.
4. The science of education has been further developed.
5. The teaching of education has been benefited.
6. Education is more intelligently understood and appreciated by the public.
7. Education is more liberally supported (1948: 246).

The design of the school survey must take into careful consideration the purpose for which the results will be used. Each community and school district is unique in its design. The survey therefore must also uniquely fit the capabilities and needs of the system. Strahan and Todd have explained some of the considerations each community must recognize before a school survey is begun:

The local school survey might focus on certain objectives such as: (1) to discover the needs which exist in the neighborhood and in the school which serves it; (2) to find out what the community and staff expectancies are with regard to the school's curriculum; (3) to determine areas of strength and weaknesses in the school's curriculum and instructional practices, and; (4) to enlist community resources in the school program (1966: 283-284).

Review of general survey procedures serves as an aid in understanding the needs of a survey plan developed for a specific

purpose. The plan developed in this study is identified as a community education attitude assessment of the community toward the philosophy of community education. Five basic phases were included in the plan.

1. Selecting a Population

Erdos described some of the important points to consider when selecting a population list for sample identification:

The researchers...toughest job may be to find the proper list. He must start with a complete, or at least representative list of his universe; it must be an up-to-date list, and it must be available when he needs it at a cost which he can afford (1970: 28, 29).

Erdos went on to identify some of the frequently used types of lists:

1. The most nearly complete listings of the populations of cities and those which yield the best cross sections for samples are contained in city directories published by R. L. Polk & Co. and others. However, recent editions of these directors are available for only a limited number of cities, and old addresses are not very useful, because of the great mobility of the United States population.
2. Telephone directories represent a wider distribution in the geographic sense, but also a significant restriction, because the names they include are limited to people with listed telephone numbers and lack correct information on recent movers.
3. Records published by federal, state, and municipal governments often include lists of the names and addresses of people in various groups.

4. Associations, organizations, and clubs often publish lists which can be acquired by the researcher. These can be of use in samples among professional and other specific, limited, but on occasion, very important groups (p. 29).

Conway agreed with many of the points Erdos made, and added a few more suggestions for consideration:

Each list should be examined carefully to find out how it was compiled, for what purpose and when. Knowing how the list was made will help to judge its completeness and accuracy. Knowing the purpose for which it was assembled will indicate some of the population characteristics included, and knowing when it was made will help determine if it is still usable (p. 90).

A summary of good and poor sources within the community according to Conway is also listed below:

Good Sources

- a. City or area director
- b. Local government agencies
- c. Fire districts
- d. Charitable organizations

Poor Sources

- a. Churches
- b. School records because of confidentiality

The plan identified in this study uses a random sample of the population-at-large rather than (as some studies have done) including only members of the perceived power structure of the community, or restricted to teachers or school administrators. Conway stated the reasoning behind this approach:

Care should be taken drawing conclusions about the views of the community on the basis of information derived from respondents who are purposefully selected. It cannot be assumed that persons and groups selected purposefully reflect the views of others in the community. Purposeful selection restricts the administrator from generalizing survey findings to others in the community or to later issues (1974: 87).

2. Selection of a Test Instrument

Three pre-tested structured, scaled multiple-choice response survey instruments which seek information on peoples' attitude toward the philosophy of education were included in this study.

According to Conway:

Surveys usually include demographic, ...and opinion questions. Demographic questions seek vital statistics that describe the respondent...and opinion questions elicit feelings or attitudes central to an issue (1974: 69).

3. Method of Collecting Data

Research into what others have said are strengths and weaknesses of each of the data collection methods indicates overall consistency of important variables. The following is a review of some of the points which were mentioned most often.

Mailed Questionnaire Method

1. Less expensive in terms of overall costs
2. Difficulty of respondent in interpreting statements, directions, items.
3. Less intensive-clarification and elaboration of answers is lacking. Inability to check responses.

4. Difficult to get high response rate.
5. Less time needed in gathering data and usually less time needed for the study as a whole.
6. More manageable and easier to increase the size of the sample.

Personal Interview Method

1. Most expensive in terms of overall costs
2. Difficulty of interviewer to code open ended comments
3. More intensive--clarification and enhancement is available (two way flow of communication plus personal contact). Ability to check responses.
4. Usually highest response rate.
5. More time needed in gathering data and usually more time needed to complete the study than in either mailed or telephone interviews.
6. Usually too time consuming and unmanageable due to geographic distances to increase the sample size.

Telephone Method

1. The time cost per completed interview is lower than personal interview, but higher than mailed questionnaire.
2. The approach and questions are easy to standardize from one interview to another.
3. Clarification and enhancement is possible, but terminations may result from lengthy interview.
4. Higher response rate than mail. Problem is reaching people at home, or busy signals.
5. More time to complete than mailed because of need to use one on one interview, but less time than personal interview due to absence of need to travel.
6. Interviews may be scattered over wide area within city. More manageable to increase sample size than personal interviews, but less manageable than mailed questionnaire.

4. Population Demographics

...there are many demographic questions which might be included in a survey instrument, but those actually used should be restricted to the information needed. There are several criteria for choosing demographic questions. These include, first they should be relevant; second, they should not interfere with the probable cooperation of respondents; third, demographic questions should not require excessive response time which might reduce the probability that respondents will fully answer opinion and fact questions (Conway, 1974: 66).

5. Treatment of Data (Organization)

Conway (1974) identified three approaches to unstructured data useful to this study. These include the histogram, line graph, and mathematical techniques.

The histogram or bar graph is simply a frequency chart giving a visual picture of the relative strength, degree of occurrence of each category... The purpose of arranging data in this form is to help the viewer to ascertain differences and similarities, not to confuse the analytic process (1974: 149, 150).

The line graph is primarily an aid for assessing a state or condition over time, and from that assessment, making predictions for future times (1974: 151).

All of the mathematical techniques such as mean, median, mode and the range are appropriate for structural data. Each of these techniques helps to describe the data and facilitate examination for the purpose of analysis... The general caution is not to rely on one technique, but to try a number of them when it seems appropriate (1974: 160).

Parten helped clarify the type of analysis which might be most useful to the researcher.

The particular summarizing measure or measures which the surveyor uses will depend upon what he intends to find out about the characteristics being investigated. In general, the counts and percentages are more frequently employed in surveys than averages and other measures of magnitudes (1950: 499).

Summary

In summary, examination shows community education and traditional education have basic differences in philosophy. Community education believes in bringing the community together through involvement of the people in issues affecting the community. Schools are considered an integral part of the community and must, therefore, be considered a vital working force in helping to answer the unique needs of their community.

Traditional education, on the other hand, does not deal with the community as a whole. The basic concern is the children in the classroom. Learning comes from books with the help of certified teachers. There is a minimum attempt to relate the school curriculum to community issues. It is believed that the student will be able to make the transfer on his own from the teachings of the classroom into the outside community.

The community education concept has expanded in recent years to include several basic elements of community involvement. All aspects, however, are grounded in the belief that communities can only be improved if people are willing to work together to solve problems.

Philosophical differences of recognized leaders in the field are only found in the degree to which community based programs are stressed over school based programs. Differences are also found in the importance of process over programs and the importance of community education as an integral part of the regular school program, over an after-hour, add-on type of program.

Community education ultimately necessitates an education system open to the scrutiny and participation of people. Through the process of community involvement people have a better understanding of their community.

For a community to shift from a traditional education system to one that invites the community education philosophy implies a shift in the attitudes of people both in the school system and in the community-at-large. School systems must be willing to share responsibility and community members must be willing to accept responsibility for helping to share in problem solving.

Attitudes are a predisposition toward or away from something. The problem for the researcher is to determine public opinion regarding the basic concepts underlying the philosophy of community education. In order to determine the likelihood of initial success of community education implementation, public opinions, or attitudes held by the public toward the topic must be determined. It is, therefore, necessary to lay preliminary groundwork through research in some

form, to base levels of attitudes or predisposition toward the community education concept. One way to achieve this is through the development and administration of an attitude measure. From this can begin the process of understanding from what point planned change might begin.

Planning for a needed change will direct the change to a favored end. Allowing for inevitable change to occur, with no preconceived idea of future direction, takes away the opportunity for people to realize their potential for group planning and problem solving for the betterment of everyone concerned.

Planned change helps being about an improvement upon an existing situation. Before the implementation of a change process begins, the group most affected needs to be studied to find their level of readiness to accept the proposed change.

The design of the school survey must take its basic purpose into careful consideration. Since each community is unique in its design, the survey must be made to fit the capabilities and needs of the system. An attitude survey provides a channel of information about the feelings and opinions of the people to be affected by a program change.

Study of previous survey research must be coupled with an understanding of the unique needs and resources available in the community. From this an appropriate survey plan can be developed.

Chapter III

PROCEDURES

Introduction

The problem of this study was to develop a plan to assist initiators of community education in their initial assessment of community attitudes toward community education. This plan includes alternative methods for identifying community attitudes toward the six basic tenets of community education.

The alternative methods were tested in the Bozeman School District to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each. Additionally, these tests provided the Bozeman area information about attitudes toward the community education concept.

Chapter III provides a framework for the community assessment plan. A description of the different phases leading to completion of the plan with a tentative listing of alternate ways to accomplish each step has been presented.

A description of the nature of the field tests administered in Bozeman has also been included in Chapter III. The test allowed a primary investigation of the community assessment plan. In addition, the results provided information on Bozeman community attitudes toward the community education concept.

The total study employed both historical and empirical research. Chapter IV includes an analysis of the information gained from these research methods and includes a final development of the community assessment plan. Chapter V presents the results of the Bozeman field test.

Description of the Community Assessment Plan

Primary emphasis of the study was upon the development of a plan of alternative ways for comparing community attitudes toward the basic tenets of community education. The study identified sequential phases leading to completion of the plan. Within each phase are potential alternate methodologies for accomplishing the particular sequence level. Alternatives allow individual communities to follow the established sequence pattern, yet adapt implementation techniques according to their defined needs and available resources.

As stated in Chapter I, two sets of questions have been analyzed within the design of this study. The research questions identified in part one of this study were answered descriptively. These questions include:

1. In assessing the school community, and the community-at-large, what were four different population registries which may be used? What were the strengths and weaknesses of each?

2. What were three different pre-tested questionnaires which would be appropriate for surveying people's attitudes toward the concepts behind community education? Discuss the background, strengths and weaknesses of each.

3. In assessing the school community and the community-at-large, what were the strengths and weaknesses of each of the three different survey methods suggested in the plan?

4. What were the concerns identified from previous research in gathering demographic information for survey research?

5. What were benefits and limitations of statistical analysis of data compared to the benefits and limitations of descriptive analysis of data, for the layman and the statistician?

To answer the questions identified in part one, historical and survey research methods were employed. Difficulties and advantages of each of the alternatives suggested throughout the plan were researched from surveys administered in previous studies. Additional difficulties and advantages encountered in the administration of the community education attitude survey administered were documented to

make the plan specifically designed to the needs of a community education assessment plan.

Parten gave reasons why a plan designed for a particular survey study in an identified community needs to be carefully considered before actual survey activity takes place:

In order to insure that the survey will yield returns which are meaningful and are secured in the most efficient manner possible, it is essential that the entire plan of the survey be prepared before the collection of data is begun. Each stage of the survey should be planned with all the preceding and succeeding stages in mind. A single unified plan insures that a minimum number of wasted motions and illogical decisions will obstruct the survey (1976: 55).

The following outline for the assessment plan of community attitudes toward the philosophy of community education was developed after researching previous survey studies completed in the past. An identification of a five phase plan and a list of alternative ways each community can select from for their survey design is included below. Research of past studies has been included in Chapter II to help the planners understand the general strengths and weaknesses of the various alternatives.

- I. Selecting a population
 - A. Telephone directory
 - B. Tax rolls
 - C. Voter registration
 - D. City directory (Polk)

II. Selection of a Test Instrument

- A. Community Education Philosophy Instrument
(Modified by Manley)
- B. Virginia Community Education Assessment Instrument
(Decker and Girone)
- C. A Community Assessment of Public School Functions
(Reid)

III. Method of Collecting Data

- A. Mailed questionnaire
- B. Personal interview
- C. Telephone call

IV. Population Demographics

- A. Age - (18-25)(26-35)(36-50)(51 and up)
- B. Sex - male, female
- C. Vested interest - (school community)(community-at-large)
- D. Children - (respondents with children currently enrolled)
(respondents with no children currently enrolled in school)

V. Treatment of Data (Organization)

- A. Statistical analysis.
- B. Descriptive analysis.

In order to determine the different ways of identifying a population registry which described the community-at-large, personnel in charge of the different population lists were interviewed to find the strengths and weaknesses of the registries. A sample population was taken from the available lists identified from the interviews and a mailed questionnaire was sent to each person included in the samples. From this, the number of no-returns, return to sender, and actual returns could be compared among the identified population registries.

In selection of a test instrument, three previously tested instruments were included in the study. Three sample populations were selected using the Lomar County Directory for Bozeman. Each of the instruments was mailed to mutually exclusive samples of the Bozeman community. The number of first returns were then compared among the three instruments to see if there were differences in the number of people willing to respond to any of them.

To check community response in terms of method of collecting data, a sample of the population was tested in their response toward 1) a mailed questionnaire, 2) a structured personal interview, and 3) a telephone interview. Financial and time costs were recorded. Inconvenience and delays in each method were noted. Community reaction, acceptance or rejection of the survey through each of the different methods were included. The percentage of people successfully completing the survey in each of the methods was calculated.

Population demographics can vary according to the goals established by the initiators of the readiness survey. Four areas of interest were identified in the survey implemented in Bozeman to see if there were possible differences in attitudes toward the community education concept in particular segments of the Bozeman population.

Sensitivity to answering demographic questions was checked through any refusals to respond to any of the demographic data requested.

The treatment of the results of the attitude instrument itself was displayed both through a statistical and descriptive review. Analysis of results of the attitude test was included through an analysis of variance in conjunction with the Duncan test for multiple comparisons administered in the field test implemented in Bozeman.

To test the different alternatives suggested in each of the five identified phases, the population of Bozeman was divided into eight mutually exclusive groups by the alphabet. Group 1 consisted of all people with last names beginning with B and J; Group 2 - C, W, and Y; Group 3 - M, E, U, and Q; Group 4 - H, A, I, and Z; Group 5 - D, F, and P; Group 6 - S and N; Group 7 - R, G, and K; and Group 8 - O, L, T, and V.

Description of Instruments Tested

in Bozeman Montana

Three previously developed instruments which have been tested and implemented in other communities in the United States were included in this plan. Community education planners can select one of the pre-tested instruments included here which they feel would best suit the purposes of their community assessment study.

1. Virginia Community Education Assessment Instrument (Decker and Girone)
2. A Community Assessment of Public School Functions (Reid)

3. Community Education Philosophy Instrument
(Modified by Manley)

I. The Virginia Community Education Assessment survey instrument was designed by staff members of the Mid-Atlantic Center for Community Education. It was reviewed and critiqued by faculty members of the Bureau of Educational Research, other departments of the University of Virginia and Dr. Curt VanVoorhees, Office of Community Education Research, University of Michigan. Some of the research questions were adopted from the questionnaire in a dissertation by Robert L. Scott (Arizona State University, 1975). The four populations which have been surveyed from throughout Virginia using this instrument included:

1. Elected members of the Board of County Supervisors
2. Elected members of city councils
3. Appointed school board members
4. PTA local chapter presidents

Questions relating to four basic components of community education were included, these were identified as:

- a. Interagency Cooperation: Numbers 2, 11, 14 and 17
- b. Citizen Involvement and Participation: Numbers 6, 7, 8 and 12
- c. Use of Public School Facilities: Numbers 1, 13, 15, 16, and 20

- d. Broad Based Programming: Numbers 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 18
and 19

A copy of this instrument has been included in the Appendix A.

II. A Community Assessment of Public School Function survey instrument was designed by Thomas Reid Anderson for use on his Doctoral thesis entitled, A Cross Sectional Case Study of the Results of Community Education Implementation and Diffusion in Process City U.S.A. (1975). The instrument was pre-tested by staff members of the Center for Community Education at Eastern Michigan University and by a series of personal interviews with community residents.

The four groups which were surveyed using this instrument included:

1. Significant Others identified as the power structure of the community.
2. Community education program participants
3. Teachers
4. Community educators

Questions relating to six basic components of community education plus two additional variables included:

- a. K-12: Items 2, 17, 20
- b. Use of Facilities: Items 3, 22, 12, 7
- c. Programs, Children and Youth: Items 1, 14, 25, 10

- d. Programs, Adults: Items 2, 7, 19, 29
- e. Delivery of Services: Items 5, 18, 21, 30
- f. Community Development: 4, 9, 13, 16, 23, 27
- g. Improving Home-School Communications: Items 8, 11, 28
- h. Improving School-Public Relations: Items 15, 24, 26

A copy of this instrument has been included in the Appendix B.

The Community Education Philosophy Instrument (modified)

was divided into the six basic components of the philosophy of community education. The components are: 1) traditional day school programs; 2) extended use of facilities; 3) additional programs for school-aged children and youth; 4) programs for adults; 5) delivery and coordination of services; and 6) community involvement. Each component is supported by numerous items which reflect the philosophy for that respective component.

The instrument was originally developed as a part of a doctoral dissertation by Jeffery (1975) to examine teacher acceptance of a community education philosophy. The instrument contained 63 items, each of which fell under one of the six components of community education previously stated. The instrument was modified by Manley (1976) for use in a study of attitudes held by superintendents about a philosophy of community education. The major modification was shortening the instrument from 63 to 30 items.

Content and validity of the original Community Education Philosophy Instrument was determined by gaining feedback from 22 professionals in the field of community education. Reliability was established through a test-retest method using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each of the six components.

The validity of CEPI, as modified by Manley, was determined by gaining feedback from 15 experts in the field of community education. In addition to shortening the instrument, minor word alterations were introduced. According to Manley ...five statements were retained under each of the six components of community education and the wording in several of the statements was changed after consultation with experts. To determine the reliability of the M-CEPI, a test-retest procedure using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed. The results were: (1) Total score, $\bar{r} = .95$, (2) component I, $\bar{r} = .84$; (3) component II, $\bar{r} = .91$; (4) component III, $\bar{r} = .92$; (5) component IV, $\bar{r} = .73$; (6) component V, $\bar{r} = .97$; and (7) component VI, $\bar{r} = .86$ (1976: 68).

The CEPI was further modified for use in this investigation. The instrument was originally designed for use with professionals in the field of education, i.e., teachers and superintendents. It was felt that to better suit the population described for this study, educational jargon not in use by the general public should be eliminated. Word changes were, therefore, made in the instrument to make it more easily understood by the general community being sampled. The

six components making up the community education philosophy remained the same, as did the basic ideas expressed in each of the 30 questions.

To eliminate words unfamiliar to the general public, copies of the original instrument were distributed to five people currently working in the field of education and ten people working in fields unrelated to education. They were asked to identify words they felt were sophisticated education terms and substitute words or phrases which simplified the language, but kept the original meaning intact. Responses were summarized. Words identified by people as unfamiliar were simplified using suggestions of respondents.

Reliability of the instrument used in this investigation was checked by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The questionnaire was given to a group of 22 individuals who responded to each of the items. These same individuals were then asked again to respond to the same items. A correlation coefficient was then determined for the total test as well as each of the six components of community education.

The results were: (1) total score $\bar{r} = 73.4$, (2) component I, $\bar{r} = 76.6$, (3) component II, $\bar{r} = 77.0$, (4) component III, $\bar{r} = 70.8$, (5) component IV, $\bar{r} = 79.6$, (6) component V, $\bar{r} = 75.4$, (7) component VI, $\bar{r} = 72.8$.

Ferguson (1971: 116) indicated that:

A correlation of .7071 is required before we can state that 50 percent of the variance of the one variable is predictable from the variance of the other.

Ary, et al. (1972) identified between .90 and .70 as the acceptable limits for reliability coefficients to fall within.

Table 1 shows that the reliability coefficients obtained for the M-CEPI for the community-at-large are all within acceptable limits.

A copy of the CEPI modified for this study has been included in Appendix A.

Table 1
Reliability Coefficients, M-CEPI,
Community-at-Large

<u>Total Philosophy</u>	73.4
<u>Component</u>	r
I	76.6
II	77.0
III	70.8
IV	79.6
V	75.4
VI	72.8

Each of the three survey questionnaires identified above for possible use in a community education attitude assessment study were mailed to 35 randomly-selected community members in Bozeman, Montana.

Data Analysis

In this study the analysis of variance was the statistical test employed.

According to Ferguson:

The analysis of variance is a method for dividing the variations observed in experimental data into different parts, each part assignable to a known source, cause or factor. We may assess the relative magnitude of varieties resulting from different sources and ascertain whether a particular part of the variations is greater than expectations under the null hypothesis (1966: 208).

By using the two-way analysis of variance the researcher was able to examine the difference in perception between each of the four groups identified in the questions to be answered, with regard to the community education philosophy.

Organization of Descriptive Survey Administered in Bozeman, Montana

The secondary purpose of this study included a sample testing of the community assessment plan in Bozeman, Montana. This test elicited information on problem areas which may not have been identified through historical research. Insight was gained in such areas as: 1) selection of a population registry which best represents the total population of the Bozeman School District; 2) costs for collecting information within each alternative; 3) percentage of returns and time involved within each data collection alternative selected; 4) comparison

of sophistication in the treatment of data versus ease of understanding for the average citizen is presented through sample illustration of each phase's alternatives.

Population Description and Sampling Procedure

The population for this survey consisted of the people residing within School District #7, located in Bozeman, Montana, plus the rural districts which make up the Bozeman Junior and Senior High Schools. These included:

1. Andersen
2. Monforton
3. LaMotte
4. Gallatin Gateway
5. Cottonwood
6. Malmberg
7. Ophir

The sample was determined using each of four possible sources of information:

1. City Directory (Polk)
2. County telephone directory
3. Tax rolls
4. Voter registration

Mutually exclusive random samples were identified in each of the alternative sources of information. To gain information related to the first part of this study, the population of Bozeman was divided equally to fit the number of alternatives identified and random samples selected from each.

To fit within the sample size requirements for the attitude assessment survey, in the second part of the study sample size was calculated using a formula developed by Tuckman (1972: 205). This formula established the sample as representative of the population on critical parameters at the 95% level of probability. This confidence level means there will be a 95% chance that the sample is distributed in the same way as the population. The sample size was identified by the Tuckman formula as:

$$N = (Z/e)^2(p)(1-p)$$

N = sample size

Z = Standard score

p = estimated proportion or incidence of cases in population.

The probability (Confidence level = Z) is set at 95% (the .05 level) meaning that there is a 95% chance that the sample is distributed in the same way as the population.

The sampling error (e) = the extent to which the sample means of repeatedly drawn random samples deviate from one another. A .10 sampling error is considered by Tuckman as "tolerable amount of error." The estimated proportion or incidence of cases in the population = p. With the Z established at 1.96 and the e as .10, the sample size was calculated as:

$$N = (Z/e)^2(P)(1-p)$$

$$N = (1.96/0.10)^2$$

$$N = (19.6)^2 \cdot 1$$

$$N = 384$$

The Tuckman formula was used to identify the community-at-large. For the teachers and administrators sample size for the (school community), 100% of the population was used. This sample was used as the sample population for the second part of this study.

Categories of Investigation

Randomly selected community members of Bozeman School District #7 were asked to respond to a demographic data information sheet and attitude instrument. The Community Education Philosophy Instrument (modified) was used to maintain consistency of this variable when testing for rate of return on the four different alternative population registries and the three different methods of collecting data. Each of the three identified instruments was tested in the Bozeman community through a mailout survey to maintain consistency of all variables except the instruments themselves and to check if any one instrument was different in the number of returns received.

Typical demographic categories of response requested can include the respondent's age, sex, vocation, and number and age of children currently enrolled in school (if any). Of those listed above, the study included comparisons in the following area:

1. Age: four different age groups
2. Sex: Men and women
3. Vested Interest: School community and community-at-large
4. Children: Respondents who have children in school and those who do not

The four identified demographic areas included in the Bozeman study are discussed below.

Most often women or mothers are thought of as more involved in the daily school program. They most often volunteer their services for school projects and are the majority members of local school advisory councils. Whereas women show more outward interest in school affairs, the question arises as to whether there is any perceived differences in attitudes toward the basic six elements of a school based community education philosophy by men or women. Perhaps men feel the same concerns as women, but are unable to contribute the same amount of time in the school due to their work schedules. Although there is a difference in time involvement in the schools, there may be no difference in feeling between men and women in their school support toward the basic six components of community education.

Community education involves all age groups; therefore, it was considered necessary to see if people of all ages felt equally the same toward the philosophy of community education. This would help

initiators to know if some age groups need more emphasis at the information awareness stage.

The third question asked whether or not the respondent had any children in school. From this, the study could determine if people who were already receiving services from the school district through their children were more inclined to support the services identified in the six components of community education.

This study attempted to find out if there was a difference in the acceptance level of the components of community education between the school community and the community-at-large. In assessing a community readiness level school district personnel might feel differently about working closely with community education than members of the community-at-large. It is widely recognized that a school-based community education program must first have the support of school district personnel for the program to be a success. From an assessment of school district attitudes, it was hoped that it could be determined if teachers and administrators were ready for the implementation of the changes in the purpose and philosophy of their current system, or if the school community readiness level needs to be enhanced before community education implementation begins throughout the community.

Method of Collecting Data

The instrument used for data collection in determination of a population registry, data collection methods and demographics was a modified version of the Community Education Philosophy Instrument originally designed by Jeffrey (1975) and modified by Manley (1976). Three different methods were used. These included mailed questionnaires, telephone and personal interview.

Each respondent was asked to provide demographic data necessary for completing the hypotheses and descriptive questions to be answered. In addition, respondents were asked to circle the degree of positiveness they felt toward each of the 30 attitude statements found on the questionnaire. A Likert-type scale, using a 1 (low), to 5 (high) was used to indicate degrees of positiveness.

Treatment of Data

The hypotheses were tested by using the analysis of variance statistic in conjunction with the Duncan Test of Multiple Comparisons. The Duncan Test was used to test for significant differences between categories.

Raw data was transferred on Fortran-type flow sheets and keypunched. Data was double checked for accuracy. The computer at the Montana State University Computer Center was utilized as a precaution for accuracy.

Statistical Hypotheses

Four basic hypotheses were being tested. Each of the four has six subparts which deal with the individual components comprising the community education philosophy.

Each of four general questions to be answered have been restated as statistical hypotheses. Each of the four questions has six components. These six components are identified as:

1. the amount of community education identified as the traditional day school programs.
2. the component of community education identified as the extended use of facilities.
3. the component of community education identified as additional programs for school aged children and youth
4. the component of community education identified as programs for adults.
5. the component of community education identified as delivery and coordination of services.
6. the component of community education identified as community involvement.

Hypotheses Set I related to attitude differences among people of the following different age groups: (18-25), (26-35), (35-50), and (51 and up).

Null: There is no difference in attitudes among people of different age groups toward each of the six identified components of community education.

Alternative: There is a difference in attitudes among people of different age groups to each of the six identified components of community education.

Hypotheses Set II relates to attitude differences among men and women.

Null: There is no difference in attitudes between men and women toward each of the six identified components of community education.

Alternative: There is a difference in attitudes between men and women toward each of the six identified components of community education.

Hypothesis Set III relates to attitude differences among the school community and community-at-large.

Null: There is no difference in attitudes among the school community and community-at-large toward each of the six identified components of community education.

Alternative: There is a difference in attitudes between the school community and the community-at-large toward each of the identified components of community education.

Hypotheses Set IV relates to attitude differences between respondents who have children currently enrolled in the Bozeman Public Schools and those who do not.

Null: There is no difference in attitudes between respondents with children enrolled in school and respondents with no children enrolled in school toward each of the six components of community education.

Alternative: There is a difference in attitudes between respondents with children enrolled in school and respondents with no children enrolled in school toward each of the six components of community education.

In addition to the four hypotheses described above, a descriptive table was developed which ranks the six components of community education from most to least favorable according to the mean scores received through the analysis of variance test. This was used to answer the questions:

1. What tenets are viewed most favorably by the school community and community-at-large?
2. What tenets are viewed least favorably by the school community and community-at-large?

Significance Level

The .05 level of significance was used as a basis for rejecting the null of no relationship. A .10 would leave open a large alpha area (possibility of Type I error). Type I error means a statistically significant difference was calculated when in fact no true difference existed. A .01 possesses the inherent possibility of producing a beta (Type II) error. Type II error means no statistically significant difference was calculated when in fact a real difference did exist.

Summary

The procedure detailed in this study described the overall process which was used in developing a community assessment plan designed for use in communities throughout Montana. A framework of the five phases identified for analysis with historical background in this study has been presented. A tentative listing of alternative methods which could be used to accomplish each phase or step has been included.

The total study included both historical and empirical research methods. Part one of the study, the development of a five-phase community assessment plan, answers five general questions. The questions were answered descriptively. Part two of this study was the administration of a community assessment attitude survey in the Bozeman School District. Four general questions were answered.

These four questions were restated as statistical hypotheses. Each of the statistical hypotheses have been restated using the null and alternative format.

Chapter IV presents the analysis of part one of this study.

Chapter IV

RESULTS OF COMMUNITY ASSESSMENT PLAN

Introduction

The objective of the first part of this study was to develop a plan which would identify the readiness level of a community toward the philosophy of community education. A five phase plan was developed which went through the process necessary to complete an attitude assessment study of community attitude toward the overall community education philosophy and to determine community attitudes toward the six primary components of community education.

The data collected for the first phase of this study was descriptive in nature. The results have been described in the following sections.

Selecting a Population

In generating a population registry for the survey, four different sources were identified. These four sources were selected from among the: County telephone directory (Lomar), the Bozeman City Directory (Polk), the Bozeman Daily Chronicle subscription list, County tax rolls, County voter registration, and Montana Power user list.

In order to gain the necessary information, each of the above groups were investigated by personal interview and asked a common series of questions. In each case, there were individual questions that arose, but the basic interview consisted of the following:

1. Who in the community is included in this list?
2. Who is not included?
3. Is the list available to the public?
4. Are there any costs for obtaining this information. If so, what are they?
5. How often is the basic information compiled? Is there a time of year when the list would be more accurate than others?
6. Does the address list include people not residing in Bozeman on a full-time basis? If so, is there a way to tell which people do not reside there full-time? Is there a way of telling how long a person has been a resident of Bozeman?

The results of the interviews were as follows:

1. Telephone Directory

The Mountain Bell Company office manager was interviewed regarding the Telephone Directory.

Advantages:

1. The list is available to the public.
2. It is updated once a year.

3. People listed not residing in Bozeman are easily identified by the telephone prefix number.
4. In 1978, the Lomar Company with permission of the Telephone Company, developed a county phone directory. The same phone listings as the telephone directory were used, with the addition of listing both husbands' and wives' names.

Disadvantages

1. It leaves out people who do not have phone service or have unlisted numbers.
2. There is no figure on the number of unlisted phone numbers available.

2. Polk City Directory

An employee of the Chamber of Commerce was interviewed regarding the Polk City Directory. Direct representatives are located in Kansas City, Missouri.

Advantages:

1. The directory lists 95% of the people in Bozeman.
2. Both husband's and wife's names are listed.
3. The list is available to the public. The directory can be purchased for \$55, or a copy located at the Chamber of Commerce can be borrowed.
4. It comes out yearly each March or April.

Disadvantages:

1. It excludes many people, the exact percentage is not known, not residing within the Bozeman city limits.

3. County Tax Rolls

The County Assessor was interviewed for information concerning county tax rolls and voter registration.

Advantages:

1. The list is available on loan from the assessor's office.
2. Information is compiled once a year in January.
3. There is a map form available showing the geographic layout of Bozeman with property owners marked.

Disadvantages:

1. Only property owners are listed.
2. Apartment dwellers are excluded.

4. Voter Registration

Advantages:

1. Copies of Voter Registration are available free to the public.
2. The information is updated every time any election is held from April to August.

Disadvantages:

1. Only people who register to vote are included.

2. Registration booklets for each district are unorganized making it difficult to find desired districts.

5. Bozeman Daily Chronicle

The circulation manager was contacted about the Bozeman Chronicle subscription list. The list of subscribers is not available to the public.

6. Montana Power List

An employee of the business office at the Bozeman, Montana office for Montana Power was contacted about the list of Bozeman users. The list of electrical customers is not available to the public.

7. Computer Compilation of Lists

The possibility of combining lists to build the most complete list of names for a population registry was explored at the computer center at Montana State University.

Developing a subset of any file involves several days of writing a program. The complete list of names from all lists would be entered into a file in the computer. Using 20,000 names as an example, it would cost approximately \$350 to put the names into the computer file. It would require 10,000 cards, which could be typed at about 200 per hour at a rate of \$7 per hour.

If the compiled population registry were only used once this could be considered a time consuming and expensive project compared

to the other available registries. However, if the registry were several times over the year the cost and time would be negligible. A computer registry would then allow the surveyor the most complete listing of community members possible. Such a list would cut down considerably on the possibility of a biased survey.

After consideration of the preceding information, four population registries were selected to test in the Bozeman area. Thirty-five people were selected from each of the registries. This included: 1) telephone directory, 2) tax rolls, 3) voter registration, and 4) city directory.

The tables below summarize the results of using each of the four identified population registries.

Table 2
Sample Population Registries

Registry	Cost	Sample Size	Time to Identify Samples	Comments
Telephone Directory	No cost	N = 35	35 min	alphabetized, easy to read and understand
City Directory	No cost	N = 35	30 min	alphabetized, easy to read and understand
Tax Rolls	No cost	N = 35	1 hour	divided by county district, confusing to locate desired districts
Voter Registration	No cost	N = 35	1 hour	separate book for each district, each book alphabetized, time consuming but clear

Table 3 illustrates the number and percentage of mailed out returns from each of the four identified population registries. The CEPI (mod.) instrument was used for all four registry mailouts.

Table 3

Number of Returns from Each Population Registry

Registry	No. sent	No. returns on 1st & 2nd mailout	Percentage returns	Percentage of return to sender & incorrect add.
Telephone Directory	35	28	80	6
City Directory	35	25	71	14
Tax Rolls	35	27	77	none
Voter Registration	35	18	51	29
			Average = 69.88	

Discussion

All of the population registries were available free to the public. The telephone and city directories were the most readily assessible, and easiest to understand. Tax rolls and voter registration were organized by county districts, making it time-consuming to locate desired districts. The telephone directory and tax rolls received the highest rate of completed returns and the lowest rate of undeliverable addresses. City directory and voter registration received the lowest returns and highest rate of undeliverable addresses.

No one population registry could be considered the overall best list to use. Each list was made for a specific purpose other than as a complete population registry of the community. Combining all lists together to obtain the most complete listing possible would entail considerable time and expense and the services of a computer.

It is suggested here that the surveyor consider the original purpose of each list, from this decide if the population excluded from any of the lists would significantly damage the results of the study. Further narrow the selection process by taking into consideration the possible number of wrong addresses and return rates one might encounter in each of the lists. Then a choice of population registries can be made that reflects the decision making of the initiators in the community under consideration.

Selection of a Test Instrument

Three test instruments were chosen to be included in this study. The instruments chosen were:

1. Virginia Community Education Assessment Instrument (Decker and Gicone)
2. A Community Assessment of Public School Functions (Reid)
3. Community Education Philosophy Assessment (Modified by Manley)

Mutually exclusive sample populations of $N = 35$ were identified for each survey. All three samples were chosen from people residing in the Bozeman School District. The origin and background data on each of the questionnaires has been reviewed in Chapter III. Each questionnaire has been approved by leaders in the field of community education and have been used successfully in attitude studies

in other geographic areas of the United States. Each of the questionnaires were given equal consideration in their preparation and mailout into the community. The number and percentage of people responding to each of the three instruments was identified in Table 4.

Table 4
Number of Returns from Each Attitude Instrument
(one mailout)

Instrument	Number sent	No. Returned (1st mail)	Percentage returned
Virginia Community Education Instrument	35	14	40
Community Assessment of School Functions	35	13	37
Community Education Philosophy (Modified)	35	18	51

Discussion

The results showed the highest number of returns from the Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified). The Virginia survey had the second highest return rate with the Community Assessment instrument receiving the fewest returns.

A strong return rate is one of the keys to a successful survey. All of the instruments have been utilized in other areas and are considered valid, reliable tests. Community education initiators can

study the instruments for similarity in content and for particular questions that may or may not speak to their particular community. From this, consideration of the return rates received in the Bozeman community may help in the final decision to select an appropriate instrument.

Method of Collecting Data

The field test employed three methods of data collection: 1) mailed questionnaire, 2) structured personal interview, and 3) telephone interview. The instrument utilized for all methods was the Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified by Manley). All methods had an identical sample size of 35. To comparatively assess the three methods, this section was developed by discussing their response effectiveness, cost, and time expenditure.

Table 5 presents the response effectiveness data by noting contact and completed response percentages. Additionally, there are data to show the total number of times each interviewer attempted to make a telephone or mailed contact for each method.

Table 5

Response Effectiveness for Three Methods
of Collecting Data

Method	N	Contacted	Usable Returns	Percentage completed from N = 35	Attempts to Contact (Incl. 2nd mail and total phone attempts)
Mailed	35	33	28	80	52
Interview	35	31	24	68.6	108
Telephone	35	32	26	74.3	124

The data of Table 6 present the cost factors for the methodologies. Only direct costs such as gas and postage were considered. Personnel costs, telephone costs and materials and supplies were omitted. Only local calls were made. Rural areas might need to consider costs of long distance calls.

Table 6

Cost for Three Methods of Collecting Data

Method	Postage	Mileage at \$.15/mile	Total	Average cost per completion
Mailed	\$22.36	---	\$22.36	\$.80
Interview	---	\$ 5.40	5.40	.23
Telephone	---	---	---	.00

The time expended for each methodology excludes preparation of the instrument. An average time spent per completed instrument was reported. These data have been presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Time Expended for Three Methods of Collecting Data

Method	Total	Average time per completion
Mailed	2 hrs.	3.5 min.
Interview	16 hours, 30 min.	41.5 min.
Telephone	6 hrs., 45 min.	18 min.

Other data of interest include the various occurrences within each of the three methods which affected respective instrument completion percentages. The mailed instrument method resulted in two instruments being returned as "undeliverable." Thus, of 33 contacts, 28 completed the instrument. In the personal interview methodology the non-completions were categorized as follows:

- 5 - rejections
- 2 - incorrect numbers (number reassigned/person moved)
- 2 - unreachable in 10 telephone attempts
- 1 - telephone disconnected
- 1 - appointment made, then cancelled

Of the 30 successful contacts made for personal interview, 80 percent completed the instrument.

The telephone methodology non-completions were categorized as follows:

- 3 - rejections
- 2 - incorrect numbers
- 2 - unreachable in 20 telephone attempts
- 1 - telephone disconnected
- 1 - previously received instrument by mail (teacher)

Some differences were found between general school survey research done on the topic of data collection methods, and the field test of the Community Education Attitude Assessment survey completed in Bozeman, Montana.

Previous survey research indicated that the surveyor could expect the mailed survey to take the least amount of time, cost the least and get the smallest return. The telephone survey could be expected to cost more than mailed, but less than personal interviews, take more time than mailed but less than personal, and get more returns than the mailed, but less than personal interviews.

In the field test administered in Bozeman, it was found that the mailed survey took the least amount of time, cost the most, and received the highest number of returns. The telephone method was the least expensive of the three methods, costing neither postage nor

mileage. It took more time than the mailed survey and less time than the interview method. It received a medium number of returns (more than personal interview and less than mailed). The personal interview method cost less than mailing. The basic cost came from the transportation to and from the interview. This method took the most time, including time for the interviewer to get to the interviewee's home and actual interview time, but received the fewest number of returns. The biggest difference in comparing previous research and the field test research was in the cost of telephone and personal interviews. In Bozeman, all personal interviewers and telephone interviewers were volunteers. These volunteers went through a training session at Montana State University. If these people were paid even a minimum wage for all of the time spent on their personal interviews and on their telephone interviews, then these two methods would become, in fact, the most expensive in terms of both time and cost.

In terms of the number of completed surveys, it appeared that the biggest problems for the personal interview and the telephone interview was in actually being able to reach the selected sample. If the sample were not a specific person gained through a carefully organized random sample selection of the community, but rather anyone that could be reached in the telephone book, then a high number of returns could be accounted for. The low number of returns was due more to the problem of incorrect numbers or unreachable or

disconnected telephones, than to anything else. There were also outright rejections given to surveyors in both the personal interview and telephone interview categories. Outright rejections in the mailed category would be considered those which were not mailed back after the second mailout.

With these differences in mind, it is evident that the surveyor in each community planning to do a community education attitude survey would have to look carefully at whether or not they were able to provide trained volunteers to conduct personal and telephone surveys, and to take a look at the type of survey they planned to send out. The previous research referred to surveys in general not a survey specifically for community education. It appeared that once a community person received an instrument and was able to see the community education survey they were largely favorable toward answering it. In an interview and telephone method, the respondent did have a chance to look over the instrument before making the decision to either accept or reject it. Perhaps the nature and content of the survey on community education was a considering factor in persuading people to want to answer. Respondents were able to contribute their feelings toward an area that could have a future effect on themselves in the overall process of community change.

Table 8

Success of Data Collecting Methods Identified
from Other School Survey Research and
the Community Education Field Test

	Mailed	Telephone	Personal Interview
<u>Cost</u>			
School Survey Other Research	Least	Medium	Most
Community Ed Survey Bozeman Field Test	Most	Least	Medium
<u>Time</u>			
School Survey Other Research	Least	Medium	Most
Community Ed Survey Bozeman Field Test	Least	Medium	Most
<u>Returns</u>			
School Survey Other Research	Least	Medium	Most
Community Ed Survey Bozeman Field Test	Most	Medium	Least

Three data collecting methods have been described in this study. However, other methods are also possible. Initiators could also consider such methods as the public meeting, or dropping off an

instrument at the respondent's door and pick it up after the respondent has had time to complete it.

Population Demographics

The demographics selected for consideration in this study reflected the data needs of the Bozeman Public School District.

The demographic questions included in this study were designed to recognize possible attitude differences among different populations of the community toward a school based community education philosophy.

The first question considered was whether there was a difference in the attitude between men and women toward the philosophy of community education.

The second question considered in the Bozeman study was concerned with the possible differences of attitude people of different ages might hold toward the concept of community education.

The third question asked whether or not the respondent had any children in school. From this, the study could determine if people who were already receiving services from the school district through their children were more inclined to support the services identified in the six components of community education.

The fourth question attempted to find out if there was a difference in the acceptance level of the components of community education between the school community and the community-at-large.

None of the respondents refused to answer any of the demographic questions, or indicated any sensitivity to the content of the questions.

Treatment of Data

Chapter V provides a statistical analysis of the results of the field test administered in Bozeman, Montana. Analysis of variance was chosen to analyze the data. This statistical tool allows the researcher to examine the difference in perception among each problem group with regard to the community education philosophy.

According to Tuckman "Analysis of variance can be used for almost any number of independent variables but is typically used for two, three, or four." In the community education attitude design there were four sets of independent variables (1972: 236).

Age

Independent variable	25 & under
	26 - 35
	36 - 50
	51 & over

Sex

Independent variable	men
	women

Children

Independent variable	Children enrolled in school
	No children enrolled in school

Community

Independent variable Community-at-large
 School community
 (teachers & administrators)

The moderator variable in all cases was the six different community education components.

The dependent variable being studied was attitude.

Thus a two-factor analysis of variance was used in this study to indicate the effect of the independent variable (age, sex, children, community), the effect of the moderator variable (six components) and the effect of both variables in interaction.

The F-test was applied to determine whether a significant difference occurred between the means.

An F-test, if significant, simply says that a relation exists. The relational fact is inferred from the significant differences between two, three or more means. A statistical test like F says in a relatively indirect way that there is or is not a relation between the independent variable (or variables) and the dependent variable (Kerlinger, 1964: 200).

To determine between what specific groups the difference occurred, the Duncan test for multiple comparisons was employed.

Statistical tables were developed which allow quick overview of results. From these tables attitude assessments which describe the readiness level of each of the four identifying population groups can be summarized.

Summary

A plan to assess the attitudes of a community toward the philosophy of community education was developed in this study. A combined process was employed which reviewed previous research on survey design and implementation with a field test of the five phases identified in this study. Selected alternative methods were tested in Bozeman, Montana.

The following methods were included for consideration:

1. Selecting a Population--All population registries were made for a specific purpose other than as a complete list of the people residing in Bozeman, Montana. As the compilation of all lists to build the most complete registry possible was time consuming and expensive, it was suggested that one list from the four be selected. Strengths and weaknesses of the chosen list was considered for the limitations they put on the survey. The County telephone directory and County tax rolls received the highest percentage of returns.

2. Selection of a Test Instrument--Among the three instruments identified in the study, the one receiving the most returns was entitled Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified)

3. Method of Collecting Data--Previous research agrees that mailed questionnaires are the least expensive and least effective method of data gathering, with the telephone next and the personal interview being the most expensive and most effective. The Bozeman

study showed the community education mailed survey to be the most expensive and most effective method of data gathering, with the personal interviews being medium in expense and obtaining the fewest returns.

4. Population Demographics--Demographics selected in this study reflected the perceived differences in attitude that might have been evident in Bozeman. No questionnaires were returned with harsh remarks directed toward the demographic questions asked. Final selection of questions to include were based on the demographic make up of the community under study.

5. Treatment of Data--The statistic employed in the analysis of data in this study was the two-way analysis of variance. The F-test was used to identify significance. The Duncan test was employed to find when the significant difference occurred.

How the results of the study are finally presented will depend upon the audience it was designed for. If community members, school board members and others not grounded in statistical research are the primary receivers of the information, then a descriptive analysis of results needs to be prepared which describes in easy to understand terms the results of the study. For those who are interested in the statistical significance of the study, a statistical analysis should be presented. The Bozeman test presented both a statistical and brief description analysis for the readers' review. Final decisions for the

best method of data treatment will depend upon the needs of the community under study.

The methods identified in this study allows initiators of community education to design an appropriate survey for their community. The basic steps involved have been presented so initiators can select a design to fit their community needs and resources. Research from many sources, including a field test of the plan has been completed which synthesizes applicable material into an usable guide specific to the topic of community education.

Chapter V
RESULTS OF BOZEMAN FIELD TEST

Introduction

The objective of the second part of this study was to compare the attitudes of survey respondents to the philosophy of community education to see if there were differences in attitude between:

1. Different Age Groups
2. Men and Women
3. School Community and Community-at-large
4. Respondents who have children in school and those who do not

Comparisons were made between each of the above identified groups residing in the Bozeman, Montana Public School District.

These comparisons were in terms of:

1. Differences between the identified source group and the total philosophy of community education--Example--(Differences between men and women toward the total philosophy of community education).

2. The combined identified source group and their differences in attitude toward each of the six components of community education --Example--(Combined population of both men and women toward each of the six community education components).

3. Differences between the identified source group and each of their attitudes toward each of the six componets--Example--(Differences between men and women toward each of the six community education components).

To collect the data required for this study a random sample of the population of the Bozeman community was divided into eight different groups. Each group consisted of 35 community members. Two of the eight groups were sent alternative survey instruments used only in the results of the first part of this study. This left six groups of 35 receiving the Community Education Philosophy Instrument.

Four of these groups received the instrument through the mail, one group was interviewed by telephone and one group through personal interviews. This made an N of $6 \times 35 = 210$. To increase the total population necessary to administer a valid attitude study on the Bozeman community, the N was then increased to match the suggested sample size calculated through the Tuckman (1972) formula. The total sample size receiving the Community Education Philosophy Instrument in the Bozeman community was 384. The goal set for returns from the community-at-large was 70%. For the school community consisting of 207 teachers plus 20 administrators, the goal for return was also set at 70%.

The following table illustrates the percentage of returns:

Table 9

Percentage of Returns

	Number in Sample	Number of Returns	Percentage of Returns
Community-at-large (first & second sample group)	384	275	71
School Community			
Teachers	207	145	69
Administrators	20	27	85

To measure attitudes of the four different populations described above, the Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified) was used. This instrument contains a series of 30 statements related to a philosophy of community education. Each statement fits under one of the six components of a community education program. Each component had five statements which spoke to it. The six components in this study were identified by Minzey (1974) as: 1) the traditional day school program; 2) extended use of school facilities; 3) additional programs for school age children and youth; 4) programs for adults; 5) delivery and coordination of community services; and, 6) community involvement.

The Community Education Philosophy Instrument (Modified) required that the respondent indicate on a 5-point Likert-type scale the amount of agreement or disagreement with the statement. The scale used was: strongly agree = 5; agree = 4; neutral = 3;

disagree = 2; and strongly disagree = 1. Through the analysis of variance, the least squares mean was calculated that took into account the possibility of a respondent leaving some questions unanswered.

Results are illustrated in table form and summarized for each hypothesis.

Analysis

The responses to the questionnaires were recorded on a Fortran Coding Form and readied for transfer to keypunch cards. The use of the computer facilities and equipment at Montana State University were solicited.

Hypothesis Number One

There is no difference in attitudes among people of different age groups identified as (25 & under), (26 - 35), (36 - 50), and (51 and over), toward the six components of community education. These include: 1) K-12 traditional day school programs ; 2) extended use of facilities; 3) additional programs for school-aged children and youth; 5) delivery and coordination of services; 6) community involvement.

Since the computed F-value of 28.6 was higher than the critical value 3.84, the null hypothesis of no difference in attitude among different age groups was rejected (refer to Table 10).

Table 10

Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance among Four
Different Age Groups toward the Community
Education Philosophy

Source	N	1 K-12	2 Fac	3 Youth	4 Adult	5 Services	6 Involve	Total
Under 25	19	4.22	3.86	3.68	3.80	3.81	4.12	3.91
26-35	52	4.06	3.55	3.47	3.45	3.31	3.81	3.61
36-50	111	4.11	3.78	3.39	3.56	3.51	3.91	3.71
51-over	93	3.79	3.37	3.17	3.30	3.22	3.73	3.43
Total	275	4.04	3.64	3.43	3.53	3.46	3.89	

Source	Degrees of Freedom	F-Test	Significance Level	.05
Age	3	28.6*	2.60	
Sub	5	26.3*	2.21	
Age x Sub	15	.639		
Remainder	1616			

* = Significant difference at .05 level.

The Duncan test for multiple comparisons was computed to find which age groups had statistically significant different attitudes toward community education (refer to Table 11).

Table 11
Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons between
Different Age Groups

Source Group	Mean	Significant Difference Between Groups
(25 & under)	3.91	A
(26-35)	3.71	B
(36-50)	3.61	C
(51 - over)	3.43	D

Significant difference at .05 level; significant differences between components are indicated by dissimilar letters.

The matrix of significant differences between components illustrates the following:

1. Each of the four age groups responded differently from each other toward the total philosophy of community education.
2. The youngest identified age group (25 & under) responded with higher agreement toward the total philosophy of community education than any of the other identified age groups.
3. The oldest identified age group (51 & over) responded the least positive toward the total philosophy of community education.
4. Though the youngest age group was more positive than the oldest age group, all of the four identified age groups had means in the positive range, 3.91 being the highest and 3.43 the lowest. The means would have had to rank below 2.5 to be considered negative.

The computed F-value of 26.3 for each of the subgroups in the total scores of all age groups was greater than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, differences were found in the total population attitude toward the six different components (refer to Table 10).

The Duncan test for multiple comparisons was computed to find which components were considered significantly different statistically by the identified age groups.

Table 12
Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on
Six Components by Age

Components		Least Squares Means	Significant Differences between Components
K-12 program	1	4.05	A
Comm. Involve.	6	3.89	B
Extend. Fac. Use	2	3.64	C
Adult Programs	4	3.53	D
Coord. Services	5	3.46	D
Youth Enrich.	3	3.43	D

Significant difference at .05 level; significant differences between components are indicated by dissimilar letters.

The matrix of significant differences between components illustrates the following:

1. The highest ranked component of community education was identified as involvement in the regular K-12 school program.

2. The second most highly accepted component of community education was the ability to be involved and to participate in the school decision making process.

3. Extended use of facilities received the third most positive mean score from among the six identified components.

4. There were no attitude differences among the lowest ranked components (4, 5 and 3) identified as additional programs for school-aged children and youth, delivery and coordination of services, and programs for adults.

The computed F-value of .639 for interaction between the four identified age groups toward the six identified community education components was less than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no significant difference in the attitude between the four age groups toward each of the six components was not rejected (refer to Table 10).

Hypothesis Number Two There is no difference in attitudes between men and women toward the six components of community education.

Table 13

Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance for
Men and Women toward the Community
Education Philosophy

Source	N	1 K-12	2 Fac.	3 Youth	4 Adults	5 Services	6 Involve.	Total
Men	112	3.91	3.56	3.29	3.39	3.38	3.82	3.56
Women	170	4.03	3.59	3.36	3.49	3.38	3.84	3.62
Total	282	3.97	3.58	3.32	3.44	3.38	3.83	

Source	Degrees of Freedom	F-test	Significance level	.05
Sex	1	2.767	3.84	
Sub	5	40.168*	2.21	
Sex x Sub	5	.320	2.21	
Remainder	2680			

*Significant at .05 level.

Since the computed F-value of 2.767 was less than the critical value of 3.84, the null hypothesis of no difference in attitudes between men and women toward the six components of community education was not rejected (refer to Table 13).

However, the computed F-value of 40.167 for each of the subgroups in the total scores of both men and women was greater than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, differences were found in the total population's attitude toward the different components.

The Duncan test for multiple comparisons was computed to find which components were responded to differently by the total population of men and women (refer to Table 14).

Table 14
Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on
Six Components by Sex

Components		Least Squares Means	Significant Differences between Components
K-12 Prog.	1	3.97	A
Comm. Involv.	6	3.83	B
Extend. Fac. Use	2	3.58	C
Adult Prog.	4	3.44	D
Coord. Services	5	3.38	D
Youth Enrich.	3	3.33	D

Significant difference at .05 level; significant differences between components are indicated by dissimilar letters.

The matrix of differences between components illustrates the following:

1. Community education involvement in the regular K-12 program received the most positive mean score from among the six components identified in the Community Education Philosophy Instrument.
2. Community participation and involvement in the decision-making process of the schools received the second most positive mean score from among the six identified components.

3. Extended use of facilities received the third most positive mean score from among the six identified components.

4. Both men and women rated all six components positively. However, component one (regular day program), received a higher rating than all others, while component 3 (additional programs for school-aged children and youth), component 5 (delivery and coordination of services), and component 4 (programs for adults), received the lowest ratings.

The computed F-value of .320 for interaction between the attitudes of men and women toward the six identified community education components was less than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference in the attitude between men and women toward each of the six components was not rejected (refer to Table 13).

Hypothesis Number Three There is no difference in attitudes between the community-at-large and the school community identified as teachers and administrators (refer to Table 15).

Table 15

Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance between the
Community-at-Large and the School Community
(Teachers and Administrators)

Source	N	1 K-12	2 Fac.	3 Youth	4 Adults	5 Services	6 Involve.	Total
Community- at-Large	271	3.99	3.59	3.34	3.46	3.38	3.83	3.60
Admini- strators	17	3.93	3.52	3.27	3.40	3.48	3.83	3.66
Teachers	145	4.07	3.63	3.33	3.55	3.40	3.65	3.61
Total	433	4.00	3.58	3.28	3.47	3.42	3.77	

Source	Degrees of Freedom	F-test.	Significance level	.05
Pop	2	.245	3.00	
Sub	5	17.665*	2.21	
Pop x Sub	10	1.122		
Remainder	2580			

*Significant at .05 level.

Since the computed F-value of .245 was less than the critical value of 3.00, the null hypothesis of no difference in attitude between the community-at-large and the school community was not rejected (refer to Table 15).

The computed F-value of 17.665 for each of the subgroups in the total scores among population groups was greater than the critical

value of 2.21. Therefore, the hypothesis of no differences in the total populations attitude toward the different components was rejected (refer to Table 15).

The Duncan test for Multiple Comparisons was computed to find which components were considered differently by the identified community groups.

Table 16
Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on
Population Groups toward the
Six Components

Components		Least Squares Means	Significant differences between Components
K-12 Program	1	4.00	A
Comm. Involve.	6	3.77	B
Extend. Fac. Use	2	3.58	C
Adult Prog.	4	3.47	D
Coord. Serv.	5	3.42	D
Youth Enrich.	3	3.28	E

Significant difference at .05 level; significant differences between components are indicated by dissimilar letters.

The matrix of differences between components illustrates the following:

1. The highest ranked component of community education was identified as involvement in the regular K-12 school program.

2. The second most highly accepted component of community education was the involvement and participation in the school decision making process.

3. Extended use of facilities received the third most positive mean score from among the six identified components.

4. The component identified as additional programs for children and youth received a statistically significant lower acceptance level from the other five components.

The computed F-value of 1.122 on interaction between the community-at-large and the school community toward the six identified community education components was less than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no difference in attitude between the community-at-large and the school community toward each of the six components was not rejected (refer to Table 17).

Hypothesis Number Four--There is no difference in attitudes between respondents with children in school and respondents with no children enrolled in school toward the six components of community education.

Table 17

Least-Squares Means and Analysis of Variance between
 Respondents with Children Enrolled in School
 and Respondents with No Children
 Enrolled in School

Source	N	1 K-12	2 Fac	3 Youth	4 Adults	5 Services	6 Involve.	Total
Resp. with Children	133	4.12	3.72	3.42	3.50	3.44	3.86	3.67
Resp. without Children	142	3.89	3.50	3.29	3.44	3.36	3.83	3.55
Total	275	4.00	3.61	3.36	3.47	3.40	3.84	

Source	Degrees of Freedom	F-test	Significance Level	.05
Resp. with and without children	1	14.678*	3.84	
Sub	5	43.651*	2.21	
Children x Sub	5	1.135	2.21	
Remainder	<u>1638</u>			

*=Significant at .05 level.

Since the computed F-value of 14.678 was higher than the critical value 3.84, the null hypothesis of no difference in attitudes between respondents with children in school and respondents without children in school was rejected (refer to Table 17).

As there were only two groups it was not necessary to compute the Duncan test for Multiple comparisons.

The two groups (respondents with children currently enrolled in school and respondents with no children currently enrolled in school) responded differently from each other toward the philosophy of community education. The respondents with children currently enrolled in school were more positive toward the philosophy of community education than respondents with no children in school.

A negative mean would have required a mean of less than 2.5. The lowest mean received from this population was 3.55.

The computed F-value of 43.651 for each of the subgroups in the total scores of both respondents with and without children currently enrolled in school was greater than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore, differences were found in the total group attitude toward the six different components of community education (refer to Table 17).

The Duncan test for Multiple Comparisons was computed to find where these differences were (refer to Table 18).

Table 18
Duncan Test for Multiple Comparisons on Respondents
With and Without Children Enrolled in
School Toward Six Components of
Community Education

Component		Least Squares Means	Significant Difference between Components
K-12 Prog.	1	4.00	A
Comm. Involve.	6	3.84	B
Extend. Fac. Use	2	3.61	C
Adult Prog.	4	3.47	D
Coord. Services	5	3.40	D
Youth Enrich.	3	3.36	D

Significant difference at .05 level; significant differences between components are indicated by dissimilar letters.

The matrix of differences between components illustrated the following:

1. The highest response toward the six components of community education was involvement in the regular K-12 school program.
2. The second highest response referred to the component of community education identified as involvement and participation in the school decision making process.
3. Extended use of facilities received the third highest mean score from among the six identified components.
4. There was no difference in response toward items 4, 5, and 3--the three lowest ranked components. Components 4, 5 and 3 are

identified as additional programs for school-aged children and youth, delivery and coordination of services, and programs for adults.

The computed F-value of 1.135 for interaction between respondents with children enrolled in school and respondents with no children enrolled in school toward the six identified community education components was less than the critical value of 2.21. Therefore the null hypothesis of no difference in the attitude between the four age groups toward each of the six components was not rejected.

Discussion of Total Philosophy

From the statistical differences calculated in the analysis of variance test it appears that a person's age, and whether or not a person has children enrolled in school affects the way he or she responds to the total philosophy of community education. The person 25 years or younger and the person with children currently enrolled in school appears to have a higher acceptance level toward a school district sponsored community education program.

Statistical evidence showed that men and women equally favored the community education philosophy. Both means were positive, but not statistically significantly different from one another. The community-at-large and the school community also showed no difference in response toward the total philosophy of community education. Both means were positive but were considered statistically equal to one another.

The readiness level of each of the four groups toward the implementation of a community education program appeared to be on the positive side.

The highest mean for all groups (age, sex, community, and children) was from the age group of 25 and under (3.91). The lowest mean for all groups was from the age group of 51 and over (3.43).

Agreement by the four population groups in their response to each of the six components has been summarized below.

Least Squares mean Ranking of the Six Components

<u>Component</u>		<u>Rank</u>
Traditional K-12 program	1	1st
Community Involvement	6	2nd
Extended Use of Facilities	.2	3rd
Programs for Adults	4	4th
Coordination of Services	5	
Add. program for children	3	

and Youth

All four populations sex, age, community and children, ranked the six components in the same order of importance. The population of age considered number 3 to be statistically lower rated than all

others. The other population groups rated tenets 4, 5 and 3 as not statistically different from one another.

Discussion of the Six Components

The six components identified in the Community Education Philosophy Instrument (modified) were compared to the four independent groups described in the study.

Each of the four independent groups gave the same rank in order to each of the six components. The traditional day time program received the highest positive mean by all independent groups. This component is described by Minzey as the regular school program offered by all school districts. It is also known as the K-12 or day school program. It is an integral part of a community education program. Through community education the regular school program emphasizes community involvement and the use of the community to enhance classroom teaching. The overall high acceptance level of community education in the regular school program by all four groups, sex, age, community and children indicates the strongest readiness level for community education is through this component.

Community involvement was also ranked high in overall agreement by each of the four independent groups. Survey participants showed a positive response to questionnaire items proposing community

participation in the identification and solving of school problems. All four groups gave this component second high ranking out of six components.

Extended use of facilities was agreed upon by all groups as the third highest ranked component out of the six identified components.

All independent groups were in agreement as to which components were ranked in the top one-half of the six component scale. No matter how the populations were distributed, whether by sex, age, children or vested interest, the same components were ranked in the same way from most to least favorable. Such universal agreement helps the community education initiator set his or her priorities in the development of a community education plan.

No statistically significant differences were found in comparisons between the independent groups and each of the six components. From this it appears that men feel no differently toward any of the six components than do women.

None of the four age groups responded differently from each other toward any of the six components. Both the school-community and the community-at-large are disposed in the same way toward each of the six components. Respondents with children and without children in school responded in the same manner toward each of the six community education components.

All independent groups responded favorably toward each of the components. From the analysis of statistics it appears that the sample population is largely in agreement over which components of a community education program are viewed as most and least positive. Such agreement allows community education initiators to build a program that would be largely in agreement with the responses of all groups surveyed in this study.

Summary

Agreement of each of the four identified groups toward the total philosophy of community education is summarized below:

The youngest age group identified as 25 and under was higher in agreement with the overall philosophy of community education than any of the other age groups.

There was no difference in attitude response toward the overall philosophy of community education between men and women.

There was no difference in attitude response toward the overall philosophy of community education between the Community-at-large and the school community.

The group identified as respondents with children in school was higher in agreement with the overall philosophy of community education than the group without children enrolled in school.

All independent groups responded favorably toward each of the components. From the analysis of statistics it appeared that the sample population was largely in agreement over which components of a community education program were viewed as most and least positive. Such agreement allows community education initiators to build a program that would be largely in agreement with the response of all groups surveyed in this study.

Chapter VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the results of the development of an attitude assessment plan for community education. This plan was designed to assess a community's attitudes toward the implementation of a community education program. Secondly, this chapter discussed the results of a field test of the attitude assessment survey administered in Bozeman, Montana. The chapter was organized as follows: First a review of the research problem and a summary of the procedures leading to the completion of the study were discussed; second, conclusions drawn from both the development of the plan and from the Bozeman field test were elaborated upon; third, recommendations for community educators interested in the initial stages of community education implementation were presented.

Summary

The problem of this study was to develop a plan to assist initiators of community education in their initial assessment of community attitudes toward community education. This plan included alternative methods for identifying community attitudes toward the six

basic tenets of community education. The alternative methods were tested in the Bozeman School District. In addition, the results of the attitude assessment survey administered in the Bozeman school district were analyzed.

Community Education is a process oriented program that has been defined by Minzey to include the following six basic tenets: 1) Traditional day school programs; 2) extended use of facilities; 3) additional programs for school-aged children and youth; 4) programs for adults; 5) coordination of services; 6) community involvement.

Community education believes that local resources can be used to help solve community problems. With the schools being one of the largest available facilities in every community they should be central to community-wide improvement efforts.

Adopting a community education philosophy implies a shift in the attitudes of those with leadership responsibilities within a given school district. Community education emphasizes the importance of an involved community membership in educational decision making. Whereas, traditional education has been referred to as a system where there is very little direct effort to join forces with the home and the community.

Planning a community education program implies by its very title an effect on the whole community membership. Planning proce-

dures need to be carefully considered to bring changes of maximum acceptance by the community for the benefit of the community.

School surveys provide a channel of information necessary to develop or improve programs. School surveys provide the school district with information about the people to be affected by a school related concern. In this study a survey plan was developed for a specific purpose. This survey plan was designed as a community education attitude assessment of the community toward the philosophy of community education. Five basic phases were included in the plan.

Selecting a Population

Alternative population registries were identified through a process of studying previous research in the area of population selection, interviewing people in charge of different population registries, and administering a mailout survey using four different population registries.

Individual communities can select from among four different population registries which were identified in this study. They include: 1) telephone directory; 2) tax rolls; 3) voter registration; 4) city directory (Polk). No one registry carried a complete listing of everyone residing in the community and its close surrounding area. Each directory has its own particular strengths and weaknesses. Attempts to combine all registries through the computer center would be time consuming, however if successive surveys were to be mailed

it would be least expensive and most accurate. Individual communities might best be aware of the strengths and weakness of each of the registries and pick the one which covers the most needs for their identified purpose.

Selection of a Test Instrument

Three test instruments were identified as alternative choices for community initiators to select from. These included: 1) Community Education Philosophy Instrument (modified by Manley); 2) Virginia Community Education Assessment Instrument (Decker & Gicone); 3) A Community Assessment of Public School Functions (Reid).

Each of these instruments have been employed in other geographic areas outside of Montana. In addition each was sent to a selected sample population residing in Bozeman, Montana. Community initiators can select the instrument they feel would best fit their needs by studying the content of the instruments themselves and considering the return rate received in the Bozeman Study.

Data Collection Methods

Three data collection methods considered in this study included: 1) mailed questionnaire, 2) personal interview, 3) telephone interview.

Previous survey studies indicated that mailed questionnaires were least expensive, least time-consuming and least effective. The attitude assessment of community education in Bozeman, Montana found the mailed survey to be most expensive, least time consuming,

and most effective from among the three methods employed. Costs for personnel, telephone rates, materials and supplies were not included in direct costs.

Population Demographics

Demographics should be selected according to the perceived needs of the community initiators and their possible sensitivity to the respondents. Population demographics used in the Bozeman study included: age (four age groups), sex (men and women), vested interest (school community and community-at-large), children (children enrolled in school and not enrolled in school). No respondent indicated a negative feeling over answering the above demographic questions. Each question was identified as necessary in understanding the readiness level of the Bozeman community toward community education.

Treatment of Data

How results of the survey are presented is dependent upon the type of audience reviewing them.

Simple discussion methods and clearly developed tables offer the person not grounded in statistical research an easily understood report which would probably benefit the average reader more than sophisticated statistical analysis. However, carefully designed procedures which include valid, reliable statistical tests are necessary to attain accurate information on which to base conclusions.

Analysis of Data

Analysis of variance allows the researcher to study the attitude of the community divided into 1, 2, 3 or 4 independent groups toward the total philosophy of education, each of the groups' interaction with each of the six components, and the attitude of the total group toward each of the six components of community education. The results of this statistical analysis can be presented to show statistical significance and nonsignificance in addition to a descriptive discussion which summarizes in easily understood terms the overall results of the study.

The second part of this study included the administration of the community education attitude assessment survey in Bozeman, Montana. The procedures identified in the five phase plan were employed. Through this study an assessment of the attitudes of the people of the Bozeman community toward the basic components of community education were identified.

Four hypotheses were tested using the analysis of variance statistic. The results indicated that there were significant differences at the .05 level between several of the independent groups and the six identified components.

In regard to the different age groups, it was found that the youngest group identified as 25 and under seem to be more in agreement with the total philosophy of community education than the other

three age groups identified as (26-35), (36-50), and (51 and over). The total of the four age groups responded in the following order of agreement toward the three most favored of the six community education components: 1) K-12 traditional day program; 2) community involvement; 3) extended use of facilities.

The second hypothesis concerned possible differences between men and women toward community education. No statistical differences were found between men and women in their overall agreement toward the total philosophy of community education. However, considering both men and women as a total group, differences were found in their response toward each of the six components. The top three community education components were identified in the following order: 1) K-12 traditional day program; 2) community involvement; and 3) extended use of facilities.

No statistical differences were found between men and women in their interaction with each of the six components.

The third hypothesis concerned possible differences between the community-at-large and the school community toward the philosophy of community education. No statistically significant differences were found between the community-at-large and the school community in their response toward the total philosophy of community education.

However, considering both the community-at-large and the school community as a total group, differences were found in their

response toward each of the six components. The top three community education components were identified in the following order: 1) K-12 traditional day programs, 2) community involvement, and 3) extended use of facilities.

No statistically significant differences were found between the community-at-large and the school community in their interaction with each of the six components.

The fourth hypothesis concerned possible differences between respondents with children currently enrolled in school and respondents with no children currently enrolled in school. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences found between respondents with children currently enrolled in school and respondents with no children currently enrolled in school toward the total philosophy of community education. The respondents with children currently enrolled in school were more positive toward the philosophy of community education than were respondents with no children in school.

Differences were also found between the total of the two independent groups in their attitude toward the six different components. The total of the two independent groups responded in the following order of agreement toward the three most favored components: 1) K-12 traditional day programs, 2) community involvement, and 3) extended use of facilities.

No statistically significant differences were found between respondents with children currently enrolled in school and respondents with no children currently enrolled in school in their interaction with each of the six components.

All of the independent groups responded favorably to all of the community education components. As reviewed above, there were differences in the degree of their positiveness toward the total philosophy and each of the six components. Each of the four independent groups were in overall agreement as to which components were considered most favorably.

Conclusions

The results of this study suggest the following conclusions.

From the interviews of people associated with various population registries, none of the registries available to the public has a complete listing of community residents' names and addresses.

According to the results of the procedure used in this first part of this study would indicate that a high return rate would be indicated from either the County telephone directory or the County tax rolls.

According to the results of the procedures used in the first part of this study to maximize results and save time a mailed questionnaire would be used. Although this was the best data col-

lecting method it was more expensive in terms of direct costs when considering stamps and gasoline.

Consideration should be given to the use of volunteers to conduct personal or telephone interviews. Volunteers considerably reduce the direct costs incurred in a survey study. However, volunteer interviewers in this study received a lower percentage of completed interviews than the literature suggested would occur.

The responses to the demographic questions directed toward age, sex, vested interests and children suggested that community groups did have differences in attitude toward the total philosophy of community education. Age created the largest spread of different responses to the philosophy of community education. Thus communities should seriously consider including the age factor as one of their demographic variables.

The majority of the respondents in the Bozeman study indicated overall agreement toward the philosophy of community education. On this basis it seems appropriate to move ahead on a plan for community education in Bozeman.

Recommendations

1. Since the findings of this study did not always agree with previous research findings on school surveys, further research is suggested in selecting procedures for a community education survey.

Matched or split half samples could be employed to allow for statistical treatment of the data.

2. It was found that none of the population registries identified in this study could be considered complete listings of community residents. However, other communities' population registries may be more complete, or available to the public. Each situation must be considered unique, therefore further study is suggested on other population registries to find the most complete, available listing possible within each community.

3. Further study is recommended to find out if use of volunteer rather than paid interviewers affects the number of completed personal or telephone interviews conducted in a survey study on community education.

4. In some instances it may be desirable to conduct an attitude study on other community groups than those identified in this study. Groups which could be considered include advisory councils, the community power structure or different socio-economic levels.

5. Other instruments, or methods, and other research designs could be considered in another design or plan for the assessment of attitudes toward community education. Such research would look for other successful examples than those identified in this study.

Recommendations from the Bozeman study include the following five points:

1. It is recommended that Bozeman begin a community education program which includes the three most positively agreed upon tenets. These include 1) K-12 regular day school program; 2) community involvement; 3) extended use of school facilities.

2. Due to the lower rate of acceptance toward community education given by the oldest age group (51 and over) it is suggested that Bozeman give special attention in involving senior citizens in the benefits of a community education program for their age group.

3. With the school community and community-at-large responding in an equally positive manner, it is suggested that implementation plans begin in Bozeman at the same time, for both groups.

4. As respondents with no children currently enrolled in school responded less positively than those with children currently enrolled in school, it is suggested that an awareness of benefits to adults without children enrolled in school be emphasized as a part of a Bozeman community education program.

5. As men and women responded equally positively toward a community education program, it is recommended that both groups be given equal emphasis in a community education implementation plan.

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LITERATURE CITED

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COMMUNITY EDUCATION PHILOSOPHY INSTRUMENT (MODIFIED)

Directions

Please read each statement on the following pages. Circle the number which most accurately indicates the extent to which each statement reflects your personal educational philosophy. Your responses will be held in strictest confidence.

- 5 - Strongly Agree
- 4 - Agree
- 3 - Neutral
- 2 - Disagree
- 1 - Strongly Disagree

- | | | |
|----|--|-----------|
| 1. | Research studies indicate that students learn from their total environment; thus, the entire community is a vital part of their learning experience. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 2. | Public school facilities belong to all the taxpayers in the community and their use should be extended beyond the regular school day. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 3. | There is an increasing need for additional educational experience and opportunities for youngsters. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 4. | Public schools should provide opportunities for adults to complete high school (earn a diploma). | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 5. | Public schools, with other agencies, should assume the leadership for identifying community resources to help solve community problems. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 6. | Administrators, other school personnel, and community leaders should work together to develop educational goals to make learning opportunities available to individuals of all ages. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 7. | Educational practices should reflect the interests, needs, desires, and problems of all students for whom they are planned. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 8. | Public school facilities which are entirely restricted to use by school-age students represent a wasted community resource. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 9. | Recreational activities for school age children not provided by another community agency in sufficient quantity, should be provided by the community education department of the public school system. | 5 4 3 2 1 |

5 - Strongly Agree
 4 - Agree
 3 - Neutral
 2 - Disagree
 1 - Strongly Disagree

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 10. | Other community agencies, working together with the public schools should be responsible for adult vocational training and job improvement programs. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 11. | Public schools should share their facilities and resources with local governmental and social agencies to provide increased and improved services. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 12. | Citizens' advisory councils are needed to assist educators in uncovering the community's educational needs, desires and expectations. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 13. | Educational programs can be made more meaningful by bringing "the community into the classroom" and taking "the classroom into the community." | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 14. | School administrators should be expected to meet the increasing needs of elementary through secondary students while attempting to provide services for all citizens in the community through the schools. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 15. | Other agencies, in cooperation with public schools, should be responsible for providing pre-school activities for 3 and 4 year old children. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 16. | Taxpayers should be expected to finance their share of the so-called "frills" included in education; such as enrichment, hobby, recreational or evening programs. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 17. | The public school has an obligation to work toward the improvement of the community; including its physical, social, economic and psychological environment through cooperative efforts with other agencies. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 18. | School personnel should be aware that people in every community provide a wealth of untapped skills, talents, and services which should be used by the school district. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 19. | Public school buildings should remain open as many hours as necessary to satisfy the total educational needs of community members. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 20. | School administrators should have or develop a procedure to insure that school facilities are made available for use by interested community groups or agencies. | 5 4 3 2 1 |

5 - Strongly Agree
 4 - Agree
 3 - Neutral
 2 - Disagree
 1 - Strongly Disagree

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 21. The school should provide supplemental learning opportunities for students who need such programs. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 22. Learning is a life long process; therefore, a balanced program of educational experiences, including those for adults, should be offered by the public schools. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 23. The public school should be considered a human resource center through which some other agencies may offer their services into the community. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 24. Community members without children in school should have as much a voice in educational affairs as those whose children are presently enrolled. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 25. Helping the student develop a positive self-image is as important as helping the student learn "subject matter." | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 26. School administrators should plan the construction of new school facilities with the total learning needs of the community as a high priority. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 27. Hobby and enrichment (interest areas) programs for youngsters should be the shared responsibility of appropriate city/county agencies and the public schools. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 28. Recreational, cultural and hobby activities for adults should be a shared responsibility of public schools and other community agencies. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 29. Community agencies and the public schools should cooperate in bringing together local resources to solve community problems. | 5 4 3 2 1 |
| 30. Authority for educational planning should not rest solely in the hands of educators. | 5 4 3 2 1 |

Section Two

The questions in this section are designed to provide information about the population being surveyed. Please circle the correct response.

1. My sex is: a) male b) female
2. My age is: a) 25 or younger
 b) 26-35
 c) 36-50
 d) 50 or older
3. I currently have: a) children enrolled in school
 b) no children enrolled in school

Thank you very much for your help!!

APPENDIX B

A Community Assessment of
Public School Function

Answer the questions as accurately as you are able. However, be aware of the difference between this instrument and a test--there are no correct answers which we expect. This instrument asks only for your feelings and perceptions.

Instructions

1. Do not identify yourself.
2. Be frank and honest in responding, as there are no right or wrong answers.
3. All questions need only a circle to show your response.
4. Most people find these questions interesting. We hope that is also your impression. Thank you for being part of this important research.

Read each statement carefully. Then indicate whether you: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, are Neutral, Agree, or Strongly Agree with that item.

If you: Strongly Disagree, circle SD SD D N A SA
 Disagree, circle D SD D N A SA
 are Neutral, circle N SD D N A SA
 Agree, circle A SD D N A SA
 Strongly Agree, circle SA SD D N A SA

1. Public schools should be responsible for the education of both children and adults SD D N A SA
2. Student learning will be enriched if schools involve a variety of community members in school functions . . SD D N A SA
3. In planning the construction of a new school facility, the total learning needs of people of all ages should be given consideration SD D N A SA
4. The public schools should provide opportunity for increased involvement by citizens in community activities SD D N A SA
5. Public school officials should assist the community in holding a resource agency responsible for undelivered services SD D N A SA
6. School gymnasiums should be used by adults for recreation purposes SD D N A SA
7. School officials should provide the opportunity for adults to gain their high school diploma SD D N A SA

If you: Strongly Disagree, circle SD SD D N A SA
 Disagree, circle D SD D N A SA
 are Neutral, circle N SD D N A SA
 Agree, circle A SD D N A SA
 Strongly Agree, circle SA SD D N A SA

8. Schools should communicate regularly with older citizens in their neighborhood SD D N A SA
9. The ultimate value of public education lies in its ability to bring about change and subsequently resolve community problems SD D N A SA
10. Social and recreational activities for teen-agers should not be provided by the school during evening hours . . SD D N A SA
11. Regularly scheduled home visitations by school staff members are not beneficial to the educative process . . SD D N A SA
12. School buildings should be thought of as community centers which are sometimes used for the education of children SD D N A SA
13. School personnel should be responsible for organizing the community on a local level (area representatives) in order to develop community power and work toward developing the community into the best it is capable of becoming SD D N A SA
14. The school should provide increased opportunity for elementary aged children to participate in high interest activities following the regular day of instruction SD D N A SA
15. Improved public opinion of schools will result from increased involvement by citizens of all ages in community life SD D N A SA
16. School councils should represent only those who have children attending that school SD D N A SA
17. School curriculum improvement will result as one direct consequence of the involvement of parents as volunteers in elementary schools SD D N A SA
18. Public school personnel should assist the community in developing an appropriate agency for delivery of human services if unavailable SD D N A SA
19. The board of education need not be concerned with the needs of older citizens when planning school programs . SD D N A SA
20. If schools attempt to expand their role to better meet the needs of all age groups, the regular instructional program will become less effective SD D N A SA

