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ABSTRACT

The second part of a three-part assessment of community education research needs, this report attempted to formulate research questions and identify research needs related to interagency partnerships in community education. It begins with a glossary and statement of the historical basis for interagency relationships. The types of agencies involved, the types of involvement, and the reasons for alliances are identified. Benefits of and barriers to the development of interagency partnerships are then highlighted. Facilitation of the interagency process is discussed. A review of research describes research studies on interagency patterns that relate to community education. The report concludes with a list of critical questions and research needs for researchers in community education to examine. A seventeen-page list of sources consulted by the authors is included. (Author/JM)

Interagency Relationships

Nancy C. Cook

Research Report 79-102

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Developed at the

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PREFACE

This document is part of a series of research reports prepared during 1978-79 in conjunction with an action plan for community education research in the Mid-Atlantic region. The research plan is one component of the 1978-83 Mid-Atlantic Community Education Consortium's overall effort in community education development.

The shortage of research studies on specific aspects of community education influenced the decision to develop a research agenda. Three research reports (one each on Facilities, Interagency and Citizen Participation) concluded with lists of research questions that are worthy of investigation. The questions were used to develop a prospectus on community education research, one that is expected to generate research proposals.

There is a growing recognition of the importance of research and evaluation among the ranks of community education practitioners as well as college and university faculty. Some researchers are moving toward studies that attempt to answer the difficult aspects of community education. For example, what differences are there in communities or school systems because community education has been implemented? Generating data to address this question requires many modes of inquiry, several of which are time-consuming and costly. Field studies, ethnographies, case studies and policy analysis studies require percise preparation and training.

Moreover, the investigator does not have the convenience of studying a community with a mailed survey instrument.

Most community education research to date has been quantitative; it has also beer doctoral dissertation in format. Agendas for research can guide a variety of investigations, using different methodologies. The agenda serves as a springboard; it raises key questions and suggests avenues to explore.

The results of research studies are often unexplained. The researcher doesn't ordinarily communicate with field practitioners, and sometimes not even with fellow researchers, except through journal articles or papers presented at meetings or conferences.

An active program of research and evaluation is essential if community educators are serious about sustaining and expanding developmental efforts, nationally. Legislators and policy makers are becoming less interested in numbers counting and more interested in the qualitative factors noted earlier. A systematic, national research undertaking can be one useful strategy for gaining supporters and advocates of community education. In addition, research results can be used far more successfully in planning in-service and on-going training activities for professionals and community members.

This series of research reports represents the work of many individuals. Nancy C. Cook, an educational consultant and writer, was the primary contractor. She was assisted by Deborah Spivey, Jack Ogilvie and Rebecca Hutton who

scoured libraries, abstracted materials and helped in numberous phases of the background research. Pat McAndrew advised generously regarding the use of data as did Bill Higgins of the National Institute of Education. The members of the Mid-Atlantic Consortium Research and Evaluation Board (listed in the front) deserve the credit for mapping the plan which produced the three research reports before actually doing a particular study. Teams of reviewers graciously gave of their time and knowledge to react to working drafts of each document. They, too, are listed at the beginning of each report. Ginny Alley of the Mid-Atlantic Center did her customary typing magic on both the working and final drafts. It is impossible to recall every conversation and piece of advice from friends and colleagues. So many people contributed to this enormous, year-long venture. I would like, however, to express special appreciation to two individuals. Professor Gail McCutcheon provided lengthy and penetrating comments on the revised Research Plan developed in conjunction with the Research and Evaluation Board. Professor Terry A. Schwartz also advised at several points along the way. Her advice was particularly helpful in shaping follow-up plans for 1979-80. We all await reaction from the field.

Michael H. Kaplan
Charlottesville Virginia
May 1979

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Report

The intent of this report is to identify and describe the literature and the research, both the historical basis and current status, of interagency relationships as they relate to community education practice, in an attempt to identify and recommend crucial research needs and to raise some critical questions that affect interagency alliances within the community education constructs. This report was not designed to be a comprehensive review of the literature and research on the extensive field of interagency partnerships; it was not intended to be an analysis of research findings. No definitive statements are intended or presumed. This work was proposed for purposes of identifying and describing how interagency partnerships operate with regard to the community education precepts.

The author began this study with no preconceived notions, with no questions or hypotheses posed at the outset, and with no intent of ultimately formulating a definitive statement relative to interagency relationships; rather, the author attempted to sort out, identify, and describe the current state of the art.

The methodology consisted of first compiling an exhaustive bibliography of means of a literature search. With the assistance of Dr. William Higgins of the Educational Reference Center of the National Institute of Education and Mrs. Pat McAndrew of the Science Technology Information Center of the University of Virginia, an extensive computer search was conducted, utilizing thirty-four descriptors relating to interagency relationships in the ERIC-CIJE system. Indices, Dissertation Abstracts and catalogues were searched, materials ordered and reviewed, personal correspondence ensued for purposes of procuring otherwise unavailable materials. Those sources found to be pertinent to this study are included in the "Sources Consulted" section of this paper.

The findings were then broken out into major categories, the first distinction being made between literature and research. In the literature some logical patterns emerged and the review took on its present form:

I. The Introduction, including the purpose of the study, the glossary of pertinent terminology and the historical basis for interagency relationships.

II. Types of Agencies, including the various types of involvement and reasons for alliances.

III. The Rationale, incorporating the benefits of and barriers to the development of interagency partnerships.

IV. Facilitation of the Interagency Process, including management models and descriptive accounts.

V. The Research section is further divided into two sub-sections:

1) Review of research describes the purposes and findings of various studies of interagency patterns as they relate either marginally or specifically to the community education concept.

2) Research needs were derived from various sources. Those research questions identified by the two symposia on Research Needs for Community Education and those adduced by the former Office of Community Education Research were extrapolated and included in this section. The possible research questions that emerged from the literature and research studies were listed, as were those that evolved from the author's intuitive notions based on the community education philosophy. Finally, members of the Review Team who reacted to the various draft forms of this paper contributed a number of significant questions that merit further analysis. This report, then, concludes with a list of critical questions that researchers in community education should examine.

VI. Sources Consulted, including all materials that were reviewed and found relevant to this report.

Glossary of Terminology

In the course of this paper terms relating to interagency activity have emerged, such as communication, cooperation, coordination, and collaboration. It would seem timely to

provide operational definitions or basic quidelines for these concepts in terms of interagency constructs, for purposes of this study.

Communication: The initiation of dialogue between or among agencies; the interchange of thoughts or ideas.

Cooperation: An association for mutual benefit; working together toward a common end or purpose.

Coordination: Harmonious interaction; the sharing of resources toward a universal goal, implying joint planning and training, and a common language (Mott Foundation, 1977).

Collaboration: "More intensive, long-term and planned concerted efforts by community organizations than are usually implied by the terms interagency cooperation or interagency coordination" (Eyster, 1975, p. 24).

Synergy: Combined or correlated action, the total of which is greater than the sum of the individual parts.

Community education: "The process that achieves a balance and a use of all institutional forces in the education of the people--all the people--of the community" (Seay, 1974, p. 11).

Interagency: "Cooperative consolidation or alliance of two or more public functions" (Gores, in Ringers, 1976, p. 13).

Interagency Programs: Those programs that share space, staff, costs, and/or other resources, these cooperative arrangements are designed to:

1. Make better use of existing facilities, staff, equipment, and other resources through sharing;

2. Provide better utilization of any excess capacity;

3. Redistribute tasks and functions so that they may be performed by the agency which is best able to deliver the service;

4. Streamline the administration and delivery of essential services so that they may be reapplied to extend service capability. (Ringers, 1977, p. 7)

It should be stressed that for purposes of this study, these defintions are simply general guidelines, not hard-and-fast rules. They are provided simply to establish some general parameters in which to view the vast area of interagency programs. It should be noted that some writers on the subject transpose the terms; however, some community educators maintain that the developmental process of community education is comprised of building blocks, starting with communication, to cooperation, to collaboration, to synergy, culminating in community education (Eyster, 1975; Winecoff, 1976; Cook, 1977), the latter building off the former. For purposes of this paper, the terms "partnerships" or "alliances" will be used when addressing interagency projects generally, to avoid the obvious problem of semantics. These terms are somewhat more ecumenical and do not infringe on the various authors' intents when dealing specifically with one or the other concept (cooperation, coordination, collaboration, and the like).

The modern concept of community education has emerged from its inauspicious beginnings as perhaps one of the more vital thrusts in contemporary education. From the early days of lighted schoolhouses and expanded recreation programs for children and adults, the concept has culminated in an evolutionary process, the components of which were synthesized by Decker (1976). He saw the components of the process as "building blocks in developing the total concept": Community development and organization, utilizing community in K-12 programs, citizen involvement and participation, interagency coordination, cooperation, and collaboration, lifelong learning and enrichment programs, and expanded use of school facilities (Community schools = community centers) (p. 9). It is the fourth component, interagency coordination, cooperation, and collaboration that will be the subject of this paper.

History of Interagency Relationships

Although the proliferation of specialized agencies is a recent phenonenon, the concept of coordination is not. There is evidence of agricultural associations and societies coordinating with the schools as early as the late 1700's (Scanlon, 1959); yet, it was not until the twentieth century that the concept gathered momentum.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the Playground Movement, an urban-born program, emerged. The thrust of this

program was to effect social adjustments by means of organized social activities. The City of Newark (N.J.) was a pioneer in this movement; the Newark Education Organization, a women's group, sponsored playgrounds from 1899 through 1902, when the work was taken over by the Board of Education (Glueck, 1927). In 1901 the Detroit Council of Women, according to Edwards, (1913), started a campaign to secure school district funding for support of organized recreation activities; funding was secured three years later. Ultimately, by 1906, the National Playground and Recreation Association was established for purposes of promoting recreation through the public schools and playgrounds (Decker, 1972). By 1910 records indicate fifty-five cities having recreation projects using public schools (Glueck, 1927).

The Social Center Movement, the use of schools as recreational, social, cultural, educational centers of the community, described in Facility Use Patterns (1979), in this same series also emerged around this time. Edward J. Ward, an ardent disciple of John Dewey and a leading advocate of the Social Center concept summarized in 1917, the two-fold mission of the Social Center: 1) to be the agent for preparing youth for effective membership in society and 2) to be the operative or administrative unit for various services of immediate benefit to the community as a whole. The Social Center Movement attracted other agencies as supporters and/or promoters: The YMCA the settlement houses, civic leagues, the Grange, employment bureaus, libra es, health agencies and art clubs

cooperated in making their services available in the local social center (Ward, 1917).

In 1913 the first book on community resources was published. Joseph K. Hart, in Educational Resources of Village and Rural Communities, viewed the community as an extension of the school:

> Within the community there is work that educates and provides for life, within the community are the roots of the cosmopolitanism that mark the truly educated man; within the community there is room for a noble and dignified culture and leisure for all. Let us become aware of our communities; resources, physical, social, moral . . . . Let us organize our socially supplementary institution--the school--until it shall adequately reinforce the work of education where it is weak and supply it where it is wanting. So, and only so, will the child become really educated, and the community find education genuine, practical, thorough, and vitally moral.

In 1914 the Smith-Lever Act was passed by Congress, establishing the Agricultural Extension Service through the land-grant colleges and providing the prototype for what was to become the role of the County Agent. The modern Cooperative Extension Service is the culmination of early field efforts of agricultural and home economics education for farm families. Efforts toward collaboration of this agency and community education will be discussed later in this paper.

Another piece of legislation bore significantly on the development of community education. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 provided for vocational training for high school youth, out of school youth, and adults. The home training and apprenticeships were now to be superceded by planned and organized vocational educations programs, some of them in

industry, some in public schools, and others through combined, cooperative efforts of public schools and industry.

In 1929 Elsie Clapp began her program at the Ballard School in Jefferson City, Kentucky. In her 1939 work Community Schools in Action, she provides her interpretation of the community concept of education containing a strong agency coordination component:

> From our experiences. . . we learned that education is intrinsically a social process; that it is, as a matter of fact, set in the larger process of educating which includes many elements and agencies and influences, and is tantamount to what we call living. A socially functioning school is a school which assumes as an intrinsic part of its undertaking cooperative working with the people of the community and all its educational agencies on community problems and needs with reference to their effect on the lives of the children and of the adults. (Clapp, 1939, p. 65).

Olsen and Clark (1977) regarded 1939 as the year of integration of school and community education. "The people in the community came to see that all the life processes of a society are in themsleves educative, and they deliberately focused their community enterprises, including local government, in terms of their search for quality education for people of all ages. The school became a true community and the community itself a school" (p. 62).

Historically, one of the more unique examples of agency involvement, coordination, cooperation and collaboration evolved

as a result of the disastrous Depression of the 1930's, and it was from the ashes of the Depression that some of the more exemplary community education programs emerged, largely due to federal recovery programs (particularly the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) from 1933-1935, then the Works Programs Administration (WPA) from 1935).

With the involvement of the FERA, things began to happen in education. This was due largely to the four primary principles underlying the FERA educational policy:

1. Restoration of educational facilities;
2. Supplementation of existing educational agencies;
3. Rehabilitation of white-collar workers;
4. Rehabilitation of the large number of unemployed.

> The initial approach to the relief of persons affected by the depression was both timid and exigent. Only gradually was the magnitude of the disaster appreciated, and accurate information concerning its incidence was not available. Local relief funds were soon exhausted, and supplementary loans made by the Federal Government proved to be inadequate. It soon became obvious that only through concerted effort under Federal auspices, supported by the wealth of the entire Nation, could the problem be faced with any anticipation of successful accomplishment. Obvious, too, was the fact that direct relief was in many cases wasteful of human resources. For the sake of morale alone, it was desirable that the idle be kept busy; it was still more important, however, that the unemployed worker should not be allowed through desuetude to lose his former skills. Work relief and education appeared to offer the most appropriate solution. (Campbell, 1939, p. 6)

One of the first releases of FERA funds went to the states to employ those teachers who were rendered jobless by the Depression. The program was undertaken with individual state supervision. In September, 1933, a member of the U.S. Office of Education staff, an expert on

Adult Education, and a member of Federal Board of Vocational Education staff were appointed to administer the educational programs of FERA. Within the month the program had been expanded to include: 1) vocational training of unemployed adults, 2) vocational rehabilitation of handicapped adults; and 3) general educational training of unemployed adults. Following were workers' educational classes and nursery schools for needy parents. By December the program included resident schools for unemployed women eligible for relief, and aid to small urban schools in trouble; during the summer of 1934 the parent education program was established (Campbell, 1939).

In 1935 FERA was reorganized and became the Works Progress Administration (WPA). The WPA was organized administratively into four divisions, according to function. These divisions included: 1) Division of Education Projects, 2) Division of Recreation Projects, 3) Division of Women's and Professional Projects, and 4) Division of Operations (or Engineering). Following is a tabulation of the Divisions and their areas of responsibility, summarized from Campbell's 1939 study. The projects of the Division of Education of the W.P.A. follow:

1. Literacy education
2. Naturalization education
3. Public affairs education
4. Academic and cultural education

5. Education in avocational and leisure time activities

6. Vocational education (courses for WPA Foremen, training for trades and industry, training for commercial occupations, agriculture education, vocational guidance, training for domestic and personal service, recreational leadership and arts and crafts production)

7. Workers' education

8. Nursery schools

9. Parent education and homemaking education (home nursing, health care, health education)

10. Negro education

11. Teacher education

12. Other educational programs

    a. Safety, first aid, and general health instruction.

    b. Library and curriculum materials service, involving the collection and cataloging of books and other printed materials; the preparation of bibliographies and books and articles; the preparation of courses of study; plans for units of instruction; and the collection of source materials, charts, exhibits, and other instructional aids for use in the emergency education program.

    c. The collection and reporting of statistical information relating to the education program.

    d. Instruction for the deaf and the blind in lip reading, Braille reading, handicrafts, and other useful skills.

    e. Educational tours designed to acquaint citizens with the civic, educational, health, recreational, and welfare agencies and resources of their communities, with local industrial developments, and with various community problems, such as housing, sanitation, and interracial relations.

f. Educational and recreational information service, conducted in collaboration with the Division of Recreation Projects and interested private agencies.

g. The provision of educational facilities to the adult inmates of penitentiaries, prisons, jails, reformatories, and industrial schools.

h. The provision of educational classes for adults employed in work camps conducted by the Works Progress Administration and other Federal agencies.

i. The provision of educational classes for young men and women employed on National Youth Administration work projects.

j. The provision of educational classes for the children of persons employed on Works Progress Administration projects which are not within easy access to public school facilities either by virtue of distance or lack of means of transportation.

k. Planning and evaluating the education program.

The projects of the Division of Recreation are listed below:

1. Physical recreation
2. Social recreation
3. Cultural recreation
4. Therapeutic recreation

The Division of Women's and Professional Projects included four major federal projects, four surveys, and other selected projects, listed below:

1. Four major federal projects
   a. Art project
   b. Writer's Project
   c. Theatre Project
   d. Music Project

2. Four Surveys

   a. Survey of Federal Archives

   b. Survey of Historic Records

   c. Survey of Historic U.S. Buildings

   d. Survey of Historic Documents

3. Selected Projects (including library, bookbinding and repair, museum, nursing and public health, school lunch, household demonstration, and projects for the blind)

The primary projects of the Division of Operations (Engineering) are listed below:

1. Construction and repair of educational and recreational facilities;

2. Courses of training for foremen and supervisors on WPA construction projects.

Because of the administrative structure of the WPA, more overlapping occurred between education and recreation. According to Campbell:

> In its relationship to other operating divisions of the WPA, the Division of Education Projects is most nearly akin to the Division of Recreation Projects. Educators find it difficult, especially in the adult field, to distinquish between the activities conducted by those two divisions, and even in the regulations of the WPA not only is the definition of their respective functions not clear, but the difficulties of differentiation are openly acknowledged. Indeed, in almost one-half of the States the two divisions have been consolidated for administrative purposes. (p. 149)

According to Dowdy (1975), the Flint Model, often considered the prototype of the modern community school, was born of the WPA as were other projects such as those in Kentucky and Tennessee established by Maurice Seay, and those described by Everett (1938) in Washington, Georgia, California, Missouri, and Michigan. Everett also affirmed that during the Depression teachers made use of all educational resources available to them--recreational, religious, health, vocational--which could be obtained at the local level. Everett, an early advocate of interagency cooperation, maintained not only that all life is educative, but also that community school supporters are "helping so to organize their communities that all social agencies are exerting their educational function in cooperating with the schools" (p. 437-8). "The modern community school is clearly concerned with the welfare of each individual student." Because of this concern it becomes not only necessary to cooperate with the home but also with all community agencies which share the development of the community. Health, housing, unemployment, affect, for good or ill, the children of the community just as they affect the adults of the community. A real concern for the welfare of children thus inevitably leads us to a concern for the welfare of the community and on to the community approach to education." (p. 456).

This 1938 work provided models of agency involvement on various fronts. It is in this study that the first separation of agency function (in reference to schools) first emerged. Everett believed that these agencies have an educational function. They provide a living learning laboratory for students to learn about the social, civic, religious, cultural, and educational diversities of their communities. Likewise, agency personnel are regarded as being ready-resource people available to come into the schools and work with the students.

Paul J. Misner, in the Everett study, described the interagency coordination efforts that were underway at the Community Educational Center in Glencoe, Illinois.

> The Parent-Teacher Association is but one of many agencies that must be involved if any vital program of community education is to be achieved. The civic and educational affairs of the community are administered by four elective boards: the Village Board, the Park Board, the Library Board, and the Board of Education. . . . An annual Town Hall meeting at which civic problems are discussed and the fitness of recommended candidates considered is highly reminiscent of our earliest democratic traditions..... An effective program of community education demands that these and related agencies recognize and accept common social purposes and create means whereby these purposes can be achieved.
>
> An addition to the agencies indicated above the following must be included in any plan of community organization: the six churches, the Woman's Library Club, the Chamber of Commerce, the Rotary Club, the Women's Garden Club, the D.A.R., the American Legion, representatives of labor, and also various other professional interest groups. (Misner, in Everett, 1938, p. 68-69)

Paul R.Pierce in describing the Wells High School program in Chicago, asserted that:

> The school should cooperate with community health, recreational, cultural, civic, and religious agencies, with the view of having pupils utilize the services of these agencies to carry out and extend activities initiated in classroom and extraclass pupil affairs. The school should also provide worth-while vacation projects, send out pupil organizations to assist in communities, and develop an effective program of publicity for the school in the community. Finally, the principal should develop cooperative contacts with key officials and social workers in the community. (Pierce, in Everett, 1938, p. 89)

In this article, Pierce described in detail his school's cooperative arrangements with health, social, recreational, religious, and civic agencies. Other interagency projects were described in the Everett study including rural and urban, minority, folk school, and laboratory school models.

In 1936 the Educational Policies Commission (E.P.C.) inaugurated one of the more comprehensive projects dealing with social services and the schools. According to the Introduction of the final report:

> The Educational Policies Commission presents in this document a systematic analaysis of cooperative relationships between public schools and public health, welfare, and recreational agencies and public libraries. Although many controversial questions were encountered, a framework of policy has been developed, which, it is hoped, may prove useful to authorities in charge of the schools and other agencies concerned. (p. iii)

This work deals generally and specifically with the relationships of the social services with the schools. The report charges the schools to initiate cooperative measures;

its first step is to identify the available resources at the local level. The report then describes the implied or mandated roles of each agency (library, recreation, health, and welfare), and the services of each. The EPC also provides models for cooperation and six case studies (EPC, 1939).

Another early attempt at community development through interagency cooperation was examined in the detailed case study of the Greenville (S.C.) County Council for Community Development, described by Brunner in his 1942 work as "helping people to help themselves" (p. 94). The original proposal for a planning grant embraced education from kindergarten through adulthood, library service, public health and social services, economic stability, cultural advantages, interracial understanding, rural-urban cooperation, unified administrative directions, and provided a training ground for students of three or more institutions of higher learning in the actual experience of life in these activities. It represented a type of community experimentation for the purposes of realizing such better understanding and use of available resources as the report of the regional study strongly advocated. (Brunner, 1942, p. 5)

This five-year experiment (from 1936-1941) was one of the first attempts to enlist community members in identifying and solving their own problems, while simultaneously mobilizing social and service agencies for collaborative involvement in the problem solving process. The success of the involvement and collaboration "demonstrated the value, not to say the necessity, of an educational approach to such problems in the effecting

of social change" (p. 12).

In 1945, in their twenty-third yearbook, the American Association of School Administrators came out in support of the utilization of community resources in the schools. "We must more effectively relate the program of the schools to community needs and interests. The community can become for pupils a living laboratory and textbook of social and civic life" (AASA, 1945, p. 248). The group further maintained that "schools should become community centers in and around which teachers, pupils, parents, and social, civic, and recreational agencies develop cultural, recreational, and educational program" (p. 255).

Also in 1945 Edward Olsen identified the purposes of the community school, of which several dealt either directly or indirectly with community agencies and/or resources:

1. Evolve its purposes out of the interests and needs of the people.

2. Utilize a wide variety of community resouces in its program.

3. Practice and promote democracy in all activities of school and democracy.

4. Build the curriculum core around the major processes and problems of human living.

5. Exercise definite leadership for the planned and cooperative improvement of group living in the community and larger areas.

6. Enlist children and adults in cooperative group projects of common interest and mutual concern. (p. 11)

The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration identified sixteen characteristics of the community school in 1945, of which the following relate specifically to the concept of interagency cooperation:

> The community school seeks to operate continuously as an important unit in the family of agencies serving the common purpose of improving community living.
>
> The community school makes full use of all community resources for learning experiences.
>
> The community school shares with other agencies the responsibility for providing opportunities for appropriate learning experiences for all members of the community.
>
> The pupil personnel services of the community are cooperatively developed in relation to community needs.
>
> The community school buildings, equipment, and grounds are so designed, constructed, and used as to make it possible to provide for children, youth, and adults those experiences in community living which are not adequately provided by agencies other than the school. (Olsen, 1949, pp. xiii, xiv)

School-Community Cooperation for Better Living was a Sloan Foundation Project in Applied Economics, the purpose of which was to improve the economic level of living, dealing specifically with food, clothing, and housing. This project contained a component for agency coordination.

> To improve living conditions in the community the principal should encourage his faculty to use all the available community social and health agencies. It is necessary for the school and the community agencies to plan cooperatively a program for improving living. A successful program cannot be planned by either the school or community agencies alone. The schools should take the lead in organizing the representatives of each social and health agency into a council for the improvement of living. (Durrance, 1947, 11)

McCharen's study in 1948 of selected community school programs in the South described twenty-two community school programs in thirteen southern states. Of these he found several actively coordinating with other agencies in an effort to meet local community needs. At Allen White School in Tennessee, in an attempt to secure leadership and resources for program development, cooperation was secured from the state higher education institutions, the State Department of Education, the Southern Rural Life Council; "several philanthropic foundations, state and local health departments, Agricultural Extension Service, and other agencies have cooperated in the planning and development of the program" (p. 21).

The program described by McCharen in Ascension Parish, Louisiana, began as a health and nutrition program sponsored by the school district a coordinating committee consisting of representatives of all parish agencies was established, including the Agricultural Extension Service, Agricultural Administrative Association, Federal Security Administration, Federal Landbank, Welfare Department, Production Credit Association, Parish Health Unit, Red Cross Chapter and Mother's Club. This group is representative of the kinds of coordinating councils that were beginning to emerge during this time. These groups sought to secure cooperation and coordination of all agencies in community betterment, identification of needs, problem solving, and maximum utilization of resources.

Another early coordinating committee or council was described by Robert E. Gibson and Aubrey E. Haan in Olsen's

1949 Casebook. In "The Process of Cooperation" the authors discussed the organization and operation of a coordinating council in a small community near Oakland, California. The council was to have consisted of representatives from the parent-teacher association, the school board, the city planning board, the city council, the American Legion, the recreation committees, the faculty of the elementary school and the Recreation Division of the WPA. Letters were then sent to the fifty-five community organizations seeking representatives to serve on the council. According to the by-laws, the purpose of the council was "to coordinate the various organizations of this community in those activities that are of a community nature and interest" (Gibson and Haan, in Olsen, 1949, p. 442). Four committees were organized to carry on the diverse work of the council in addressing the solving community problems: Child Welfare, social welfare, civic activities and recreation. "Through its free discussions, social surveys, and other forms of cooperative work, the program of the coordinating council . . . should become increasingly effective" (p. 446).

Still other models of interagency cooperation were described by L. O. Todd (in Olsen, 1949), by Cook and Cook (1950) by Clapp (1952), Butterworth (1952), Olsen (1953), Danford (1953), Morphet (1957), and Gabrielson (1958).

Krug, in the 1952 NSSE Yearbook, had this to say about agency coordination:

> Some may wonder whether the school is not taking over functions belonging to another community agency. In actuality, the community-school program implies coordination between the

> school, as such, and other community resources. A community which has a well-developed recreation department might well use that department for many of its adult cultural services, with the school supplementing such service as needed. In any case, school buildings, equipment, and personnel may be used even though a recreation department has specific administrative responsibilities. (Henry, 1952, p. 94).

Thus through the literature on community schools does the trend toward agency cooperation become apparent. In the early days agency involvement generally took two forms, with one goal in mind: The education of young people. 1) The school was the center reaching out, utilizing agencies for the enhancement of the curriculum. 2) The agencies were called upon by the schools to satisfy their <u>educational</u> function, to provide learning experiences for the students. Students went out into the community and agency personnel were used as resource people in the schools; however, with the increasing degree of communication, a new trend was evolving which transcends the simplistic agency involvement in the schools. It is the concept of synergy, which implies the ability to effect a greater impact collectively than through individual effort. Synergy connotes an interdependence, and in this case can mean all agencies and resources coming together to work collectively at solving community problems.

TYPES OF AGENCIES

According to Hicks (1967) agencies have five characteristics in common. They involve people; the people interact; interactions are to some degree ordered and prescribed; each individual sees the organization as in some way helping him; the interactions help

to achieve some joint objectives that are related to individual goals. From these characteristics, ten generic types of agencies are evident: 1) educational, 2) social, 3) civic, 4) health, 5) governmental, 6) recreational, 7) cultural, 8) religious, 9) business and industrial, 10) service. The proliferation of agencies, both public and private, could be loosely grouped into the forementioned categories.

To list every agency in every community would be an insurmountable task; however, following is a selected list of agencies that might be found in any community, whether rural or urban, without regard to regional or ethnic orientations:

1. Educational

Cooperative Extension Service
Adult Education
Colleges and Universities
Teacher Corps
Head Start
Parent-Teacher Organization
Public Schools
Local Education Association
Private Schools
Vocational Education
Community/technical Colleges

2. Social

Department of Social Service (Welfare)
Social Security
Employment Security Commission
Commission on Aging
Job Corps
Neighborhood Youth Corps
Commission for the Blind
Family Court
Vocational Rehabilitation
Community Action Agency

3. Civic

Law Enforcement
Chamber of Commerce
Local Government (City or County Council)
Fire Department

4. Health

County Medical Association
Health Department
Mental Health Department
Alcohol and Drug Abuse
Hospitals

5. Governmental

Veterans' Administration
Housing and Urban Development
VISTA
Department of Agriculture
Department of Marine Resources
Wildlife Commission

6. Recreational

Local and State Recreation Departments
Parks Administration

7. Cultural

Public Libraries
Arts Commission
Humanities Commission
Historical Commission and Archives

8. Religious

Churches
Ministerial Association
Church Women United

9. Business and Industrial

Local Business and Industry
Professional Organizations
Unions and Guilds

10. Service

Red Cross
YM and YMCA
Jaycees
Service Clubs (Kiwanis, Optimist, etc.)
Big Brothers and Big Sisters
Action
Boy and Girl Scouts
Women's Clubs
Social Clubs
Civil Air Patrol
County Bar Association
League of Women Voters

Reasons for Alliances

It becomes readily apparent through the literature and research that with this vast number of agencies, each with its own organizational structure, goals, target population, facilities, personnel, and mandates, that conflict, duplication, and fragmentation of efforts are bound to occur. Publicly-financed agencies have been "shotgunned" into communities; individual bureaucracies have become entrenched, and attempts at delivering human services are meager. Many community educators addressed specifically the situation of duplication of effort and fragmentation of services. Moon (1969), Shoop (1976), Kerensky and Melby (1975) are concerned themselves with possible solutions to this problem, calling for cooperative

alliances in meeting community needs. Hunicutt asserted in 1953 that:

> Within each community, the problem of translating potentiality into reality calls for a wisdom that can be released only through entensive teamwork among the peoples and agencies concerned. Only through careful co-ordination can we reinforce each other and avoid wasteful duplication of effort. (Hunicutt, in Henry, 1953, p. 184)

Decker (1974) also addressed this concern:

> To avoid duplication of programs and facilities, many local community groups cooperate with the school administrators and city staff in the coordination of programs and services. Pooling strengths in interagency coordination and cooperation results in programs and services designed to meet the wide variety of needs and wants that exist in a community. (p. 8)

Minzey (1974) made some observations as to why this duplication exists and why it is even fostered:

> In the past, we have tended to operate on a symptoms approach to problem solving and community development. As a specific problem manifests itself, we create an agency to deal with it and pump in enough money to build facilities, open offices, and provide staff. Each new problem begets a new agency, and often times, the agency or institution is duplicated and reduplicated as federal, state, and local governments create similar groups to attempt to find solutions. The result is a complicated, confusing bureaucracy of agencies, groups, and services with poorly defined goals and roles, necessitating the development of directories and other agencies in order to be aware of what exists and what each does. (p. 37)

Dubois and Drake, in their 1975 study, identified cost as a major incentive for cooperative designs, but also discovered

four other reasons, including the avoidance of duplication of effort, the mutual concern for quality of life in a local community, the community as a learning - living resource, and coordination to enable agencies to jointly approach foundations and other funding sources. Seay (1974) had held basically the same point of view, but stated that the most important reason for "cooperation and coordination is not so much the avoidance of waste, but the assurance of improved . . . programs" (p. 193). Interagency partnerships could result in "solution of an identifed need which has a breadth too great for either organization alone" (Moon, 1969, p. 60).

There are other factors to encourage interagency partnerships, among which are those identified by Eyster: 1) emerging community education concepts, 2) lifelong learning concepts, 3) adult performance level concepts, 4) information agency concepts, 5) diminishing resources forcing greater efficiency, 6) full-time specialists, and 6) interest in professional associations (Eyster, 1975, p. 33).

The pooling of resources is another factor in developing alliances. "Community resources, such as facilities, money, knowledge, and personal talent, must be pooled if every citizen is to have equal opportunity" (Decker, 1974, p. 39). Kenney (1973) also explored the combining of resources in human services delivery and outlined its cost effectiveness in meeting community needs. "The process of developing interagency collaboration and

cooperative planning in the delivery of human services is a challenge that must be met. Community educators can facilitate neighborhood as well as interagency communication so that there is increased awareness of what is available in the way of services equipment, personnel, and financial resources" (Decker, 1975, p. 12).

RATIONALE

The need for interagency partnerships is perceived as critical to the successful development of community education. Basic to the community education philosophy is the "assumption that within every community lies the untapped resources that are needed to identify and solve its problems. Many agencies . . . have become so large and centralized that the people can no longer identify with them" (Shoop, 1976, p. 11). Shoop, in his urge for simplification identified nine other assumptions that underlie the acceptance of the need for alliances between and among all agencies in a community:

1. Economically it is often unsound to duplicate existing facilities in a community.
2. Cooperation is preferable to competition.
3. It is more logical to serve one specific need well, than to partially serve many needs.
4. There is more need for service in any community than there are services available.
5. Needs change within a community.
6. Needs within a given community differ from person to person.

7. There are many services that have logical relatedness.

8. The people for whom the service is designed should be provided with the opportunity to participate in the decisions affecting the delivery system.

9. Services should be provided at a location that is convenient to the people. (p. 10)

Minzey (1974) maintained that there are certain premises relevant to the delivery of human services which should be identified. These include:

1. Services to the community should be delivered at the neighborhood rather than the community-wide level. Services can be better provided on this basis because the neighborhood is less threatening and problems related to time and transportation are fewer.

2. Agencies and institutions have a responsibility to "reach out" and encourage clients to take advantage of their services rather than wait for clients to come to them.

3. Services to the community should be based on the needs of the community.

4. Existing facilities, programs, and resources should be used before creating new ones.

5. Conditions in the total community are improved as conditions in each of its neighborhoods are improved. (p. 37)

Since "schools and their habitats are in the public domain, and . . . their services and places are held in common to help all people to increase the common wealth" (Gores, in Ringers, 1976, p. 21), it appears logical that the schools might serve as the catalyst or focal point for community human services delivery.

The role of public schools in fostering and facilitating interagency partnerships has been expounded upon by many community educators:

> Since a major function of the school is the release of intelligence and since the potential contribution of education is so great, our schools should be key members among the agencies and institutions making up the community team. (Hunicutt, in Henry, 1953, p. 184)

> This facility (the community school) has a unique combination of qualities that makes it appropriate for this responsibility. 1) It is a facility surrounded by a neighborhood of a workable size. 2) The school is a trusted institution, tax supported, comparatively free of politics, and 3) it lies idle a great deal of the time. 4) it also has natural entree into families through children. These characteristics tend to make the school, and particularly the elementary school, an ideal center for the development of a neighborhood delivery system.
>
> This community school works to coordinate, facilitate, and in some cases, initiate programs and resources for the community. (Minzey, 1974, p. 37)

> The modern community school shares its resources with other client-centered agencies and actively seeks the cooperation of all other governmental agencies dedicated toward improving educational, economic, cultural, recreational, and social life in the community. (Kerensky and Melby, 1975, p. 179)

> The function of the community school is to serve as a base for coordination and cooperation between agencies which will aid in eliminating gaps in and overlap and duplication of community services. (Decker, 1975, p. 12)

Longstreth and Porter (1975) also supported the community school leadership role in the coordination of delivery of community services, as did Totten (1970), as evident in his diagram:

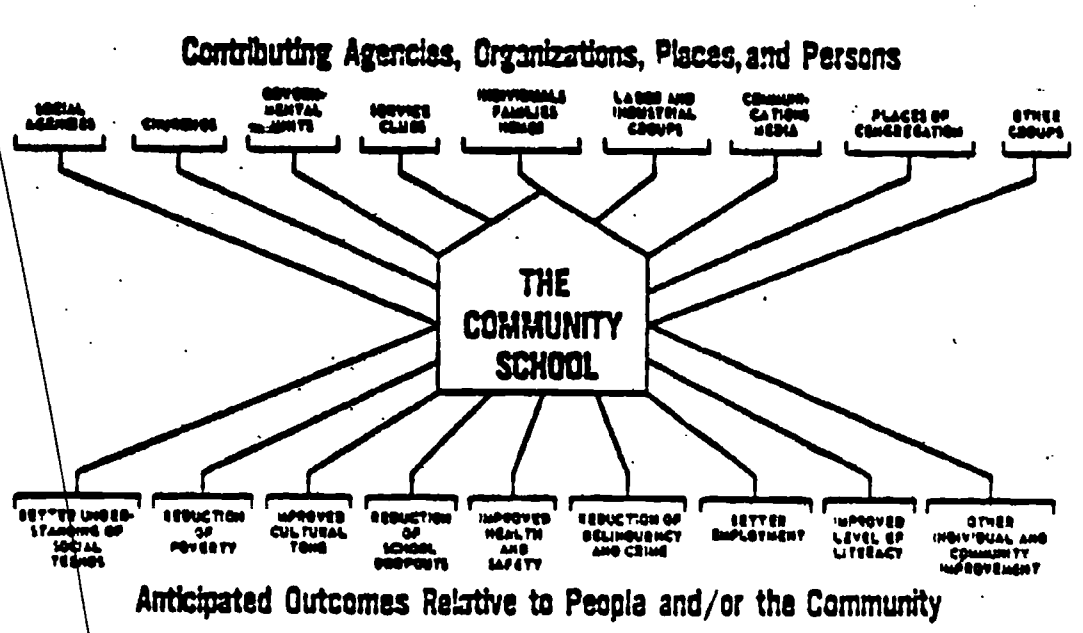

Figure 1. THE SCHOOL—A CATALYTIC AGENT

Cooperative efforts were further reinforced by Hunicutt (in Henry, 1953), when he said "in no case is the school goal to use up the power or functions of other agencies but to work cooperatively to accomplish the task at hand" (p. 189). Kenney (1973) advocated decentralization of the functions of visitations providing human services and the recentralization at the community level.

Therefore, interagency partnerships might provide a logical alternative for delivery of human service. The rationale from the community perspective is the saving of tax monies and the meeting of changing and/or urgent needs. From the agency standpoint the concept might be a viable alternative in times when money is tight and a shortage exists in labor and clients (Ringers, 1977).

Regarding multi-agency partnerships, Kaplan (1977) contended that:

> a comprehensive delivery system of educational, social, and community services available to all community residents can be implemented by coordinating multi-institutional efforts and by maximizing the available human and physical resources in American communities.
> . . . This service system must explore new and expanded ways to reach people and
> a. Provide expanded use of existing school and community physical facilities;
> b. Establish a leadership process which will provide for the more effective and better coordinated exchange and dissemination of human services information;
> c. Provide local sites and trained individuals who can coordinate the cooperative efforts of local and state agencies;
> d. Be a receptive and sensitive indication of local needs and provide for expanded community involvement and participation by local residents;
> e. Have the capacity to serve as a local referral agent for comprehensive program development;
> f. Promote the effective and efficient delivery of human services to meet present and future community needs. (Kaplan, in Burbach and Decker, 1977, p. 46)

Benefits and Potential of Interagency Partnerships

The literature indicates that in a partnership arrangement between and among agencies, everybody might win. Agencies are able to utilize their resources more expeditiously, funding opportunities increase, more facilities become available, more clients can be served, more programs can be offered, costs of services go down, visibility of agencies goes up, and quantity and quality of services increases. "The integration of social services--'physically' or geographically, but especially organizationally--is seen as having great potential. Since an individual's needs are interrelated, it

makes a certain amount of sense that services aimed at meeting these needs also be interrelated in some comprehensive way" (Baillie, 1972, p. 2).

Eyster (1975), approaching interagency partnerships from an adult education orientation, confirmed the need for collaboration. He contended that "studies of the benefits and the problems of interagency collaboration have convinced the Appalachian Adult Education Center that there are enormous needs to expand education services in the U.S. and that expansion can be most effectively and efficiently accomplished through interagency collaboration" (P. 33). He was also the advocate of a "middleman" or catalyst in a coordinating role to facilitate the process. Ringers (1976) concurred yet added another dimension. He submitted that the inauguration of interagency programs "could directly benefit sizable segments of our population which compete annually for a share of these expenditures." (p. 15)

Problems of Interagency Alliances

Some studies have been conducted that indicate a negative effect of interagency alliances. Warren (1974) reported in his study of nine communities and six agencies that not only does a community sometimes not benefit from alliances, but rather services are decreased, competition ensues, and problems are increased. Therefore, situations can occur in which problems are created rather than solved by interagency partnerships.

Barriers to Interagency Partnerships

One of the more difficult aspects in effecting interagency alliances is the identification of barriers to enable circumvention and/or alleviation. Those agencies whose purposes and goals are in accord with the community education philosophy may be the very groups to oppose it in practice. Some see community education in competition with them in local-level programming. Others may see competition for funding, and the like.

A number of community educators have addressed the identification of roadblocks or potential conflict areas. Following is a synthesis of their findings.

Some institutions are resistant to change (bureaucratic immobility);
Some agencies are building empires;
Many agencies have a high level of autonomy and are not willing to make concessions;
Many are competing for funds from the same fiscal agencies;
Many agencies suffer from the "bigger is better" syndrome;
Many agencies are not clear on their relationships with related organizations;
Some agencies are steeped in tradition ("we've alway- done it this way" syndrome);
There is often a lack of understanding of the role of related agencies;
Some agencies fear more entrenchment through further centralization of power;
Within some agencies personality conflicts may exist between and among agency personnel;
Some agencies may suffer real or imaginal loss of credibility in providing services (passive resistance from community);
There are no specific procedures for resovling interagency disputes;
There are few (if any) working agreements between agencies;
Some agencies practice alliances on paper only;

There is a general lack of leadership at all levels to foster partnerships;
Many agencies fear loss of identity;
Some agencies are skeptical of enthusiasm on the part of others;
Pressures of daily work can create barriers;
Vested interests of various groups can inhibit communication;
Differences in the organizational structures;
Some agencies do not desire citizen participation in planning;
Some agencies have anti-outreach orientations;
Some agencies have minimally trained staff;
Some have varying degrees of commitment to services;
Some are entrenched in politics;
Some agencies lack awareness of problems and resources of the community.
Some agency personnel think only "they" know what is best for the community--professionalization.
(Baillie, et al., 1972; Eyster, 1975; Minzey, 1974; NJCSC, 1977; Shoop, 1976; Seay, 1974)

This, to be sure, is a formidable listing. To counter these forces requires a strong dedication to improving community services, and powerful human relations skills. Ringers (1973) admonished agencies to beware of power seeking and empire building. "Breaking down the walls of bureaucracy and overlapping jurisdiction requires the cooperation of operating personnel" (p. 35).

Cognizant of these recurring problems, a group of community educators and recreators organized "Super Seminar '74"as a means to vent, if not resolve, the growing concerns of community education and leisure service professionals about each other. The outcome was the formation of the National Joint Continuing Steering Committee, a national organization representing a commitment of the American Association for Leisure and Recreation, the National Community Education Association, the Adult Education Association of the USA,

the National Recreation and Park Association, the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Educa. ›n, and the American Association for Community and Junior Colleges to work together to effect alliances at the state and local levels. In a joint position statement issued in 1977, they proclaimed:

> One overall goal shared by these organizations is: to mobilize total available community resources to provide services that offer opportunities for education, recreation, and social services to citizens of all ages, in order to cultivate and enhance the human and environmental potential of our society.
>
> We recognize the urgency of jointly developing, improving, and expanding effective interagency cooperation and working relationships if common goals are to be attained; and it is further recognized that if the total community is to be served in the most efficient manner, these interagency efforts must be successful.
>
> We jointly recommend that all communities and states engaged in, or preparing to be engaged in community school programs, establish a strong formal system of interagency communication, coordination, and cooperation between and among the school systems, existing recreation and park agencies, and other community service agencies. This would provide for the joint planning, development, and operation of all programs, facilities, and services, and would aid in preventing duplication. (NJCSC, 1977, p. 1)

Perhaps the most fundamental element in the establishment of interagency alliances is the fostering of trust. This trust is manifested in the belief of commonality of purpose—the working together to achieve goals that will solve community problems. No agency should usurp the power; this would cause a breach of trust. Decker (1974) expressed that "the success of community education in today's society in helping to heal and reduce fragmentation is its focus on cooperative relationships.

Working together to provide opportunities for all requires an atmosphere in which understanding, concern, and trust are integral parts" (p. 7).

Facilitation of the Interagency Process

Interagency partnerships do not occur spontaneously; they are attained only through continuing and careful planning and effort. As is true of community education, these relationships are not static; they are organic and require nurturing to keep them alive and thriving (Cook, 1977).

Several models for establishing and maintaining interagency linkages have been devised. Although there can be no universal "cookbook", these models provide general guidelines for development. Moon (1969) provided some helpful suggestions: that agencies have access to and be accessible to other agencies, that there should be congruence between an agency's self-perception and how it is perceived by others; that communication be fostered as a cornerstone of cooperation; that in the process individual agency identity should be maintained; that organizational hierarchy be stressed less in favor of group process. Moon also provided seven guidelines for development of interagency partnerships:

1) Cooperation or interaction between agencies is vital to community education;

2) Communication is the heart of cooperation;

3) Organizations need adequate self perceptions. Continuous evaluation must occur to be certain the self perception is congruent with other perceptions;

4) If possible, common concerns and similarities between power and authority basis should be identified;

5) Each organization should emerge enhanced from a cooperative endeavor. Assurance must be given that pre-empting will not occur;

6) The community school is the logical common vehicle. It may provide facilities, coordinate, facilitate, or initiate action;

7) The community school coordinator and the teacher must be involved in the cooperation process. (p. 63-64)

Ringers (1976) contends that there are five ingredients for success in interagency partnerships, consisting of top level commitment, written goals and objectives, two-way communication, positive attitude toward providing service, and periodic reassessment. He emphasized that one successful endeavor begets another.

Shoop (1976) developed a sixteen point planning model for agency cooperation, dealing with specific aspects of agency involvement. Other planning models have been developed by Parson (1977), Denton (1975) Seay (1974), and training models by NJCSC (1976) and the Mott Foundation (1975).

Management Models

For purposes of this study, seven management models are identified as relating specifically to interagency alliances as a component of community education. These models, descriptions, and examples follow:

1) Shared space/site model, in which space allocations in a school building are leased by provided to other agencies. Examples include a) Jordan Junior High School, North Minneapolis. Space is leased to YMCA, the Park Board, and the Red Cross;

b) Harry A. Conte School in New Haven, Connecticut, and c) Martin Luther King, Jr. Middle School in Atlanta, in which various agencies are housed in school facilities providing services to the people of those surrounding communities.

2) Shared Construction Model, in which the schools and one or more agencies share construction costs for new facility to be used cooperatively. Examples: Thomas Jefferson Junior High/Community Center, a cooperative endeavor of the Arlington, Virginia School Board and the County Recreation Commission.

3) Human Resource Center Model, in which a variety of human services are available, including a school, under one roof ("one-stop shopping"). Examples: a) The John F. Kennedy Junior High School and Community Center, Atlanta, Georgia opened in 1971, is the result of a joint funding venture and operates as a generative stimulus for the low-income community surrounding it; b) Dana P. Whitmer Human Resource Center, Pontiac, Michigan, is a multi-agency, multi-use facility; c) Human Resource Development Center, Hamilton County, Tennessee, is a multi-use facility incorporating more than forty public and private agencies; d) Washington Highlands Community School Complex in Washington, DC, contains an elementary School, a health and recreation agency, a welfare center, and a cultural center.

4) "No Extra Bucks - No Extra Bodies" Model (Parson, 1977) in which community education is implemented without specific additional funding or staffing. This model relies

extensively on agency partnerships to keep it operational. It connotes a maximum utilization of community resources to keep the program operational. Example: Kershaw County, South Carolina, where the program receives no funding specifically earmarked for community education, and is supported by adult and vocational education and an advisory council consisting of representatives from the school district, recreation department, Chamber of Commerce, YMCA, the County library, the fine arts center and Cooperative Extension.

5) Cooperative Extension Model, in which community education is jointly planned, implemented, and monitored by the school district and the local Extension Service. Partnerships have been established on the state level in Virginia, California, and Montana. On the local level, Durham County, North Carolina, has an extension agent working exclusively with community schools in the district, indicative of a four-way partnership (the state land-grant college, the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the county or municipal government (all of whom finance and plan Extension operations) and the schools.

6) Community College Model, in which a community college assumes a central or a supporting role in the community education process, in either case a cooperative venture. The benefits of such an arrangement would include a decrease in duplication, promotional dollars spent more expeditiously, access of citizens to a large range of program offerings, stronger advocacy for community education, and better articulation between public schools and community colleges. Examples: Lake Michigan College in Benton Harbor, Michigan,

in which the community services component has established linkages with the community schools to effect better service delivery; Clakamas Community College in Oregon, where a cooperative plan of community-based education was established; Wilkes Community College in Wilkesboro, North Carolina, where programs are jointly planned, financed, and implemented. Weiss, in a 1972 Study, reported fifteen formal programs of community colleges cooperating with community schools (1975, p. 17-21; 56). In addition, a national model of agency alliances was established when the American Association for Junior and Community Colleges became a part of the National Joint Continuing Steering Committee in 1976.

7) Recreation/School Models, in which recreation departments link with community schools to jointly implement and operate community education programs to the benefit of both agencies and the community. Examples include Charleston, South Carolina, where the community school directors positions are jointly funded, with the recreation department paying three-fifthes of the director's salary and the school district paying two-fifths and providing the school facility; Tulsa, Oklahoma, where joint funding, staffing, and facilities have been in effect since 1973.

Descriptive Accounts

The literature on community education is replete with examples, models, and descriptions of interagency parnterships, cooperation, coordination, and collaboration in an attempt

to identify and address the problems of a community. Following is a sampling of some of the agencies which have been involved in the community education effort:

Adult Education: (Eyster, 1975; Beder and Smith, 1977; Cagle, 1977; Griffith, 1975)

Libraries: (Shirk, 1976; Fleming, 1977)

Special populations: (Fairchild and Neal, 1975; Henderson, 1974)

Parks and recreation: (Artz, 1970; McAlister, 1974; Gabrielson and Miles, 1958; Gores, 1974; Rosendin, 1973; Danford, 1953)

Child Abuse: (Lovens and Rako, 1975; Phillips, 1978)

Community Colleges (Nelson, 1975; Weiss, 1974, 1975, 1977)

Cooperative Extension: (Moss, 1974; Parson, 1975, 1976, 1977); Paige, 1970; Carroll, 1977; Raudabaugh and Munson 1975)

Museums: (Riznick, 1975)

Aging: (Sole and Wilkins, 1976; Birr, 1976; Guizetti, 1973)

On August 21, 1974, as one of his first official acts as President, Gerald Ford signed into law Public Law 93-380, the Education Amendments of 1974; one of the seven Special Projects authorized by Title IV of this Act was the Community Schools Act, "in which a public building. . . is used as a community center operated in conjunction with other

groups in the community, community organizations and local governmental agencies to provide educational, recreational, cultural, and other related community services" (Community Schools Act, 1974)

In 1978 the results of a year-long evaluation of those projects, funded as a result of the legislation, were published. The federal evaluation indicates that community education is positively impacting interagency cooperation. The study showed that:

A) 81% of the respondents reported that their agency had been assisted by project staff, at least with respect to promoting or publicizing their services or jointly sponsoring community events;

B) 78% reported that project staff had facilitated an interagency network of services;

C) 56% described positive changes in interagency coordination and cooperation which were directly attributable primarily or entirely to the project.

D) Overall, 58% of the staff of these community agencies reported having positive or very positive attitudes toward community education (Community Education Advisory Committee, 1978).

". . . just as a flock of birds, when threatened, fly closer together, the various agencies of public purpose, including schools, are disposed to come together in times of adversity." (Gores, in Ringers, 1976, p. 13).

RESEARCH

> There is currently little research that either supports or denies the effectiveness of community education. Proponents have begun to gather information about its purposes and effects but, by and large, what we have so far are reports of increased attendence, touching stories about individual success, and opinion--lots of opinion. Several decades after its birth as an educational movement, community education is still supported not by facts but by the logic of the process. (Van Voorhees, 1972, p. 203)

Review of Research

Since Van Voorhees statement, however, more research is being conducted on the various components of community education; yet, the dearth of research persists. Indeed, a way few investigators have studied the extent of interagency partnerships generally: Tasse (1972), Sumrall (1974), Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (1976), Cook (1977), and Voland (1978). Other studies were either dealing with public school alliances with one other agency (adult education, recreation, community colleges, and health), or were case studies detailing accounts of partnerships in a selected community or school setting.

Multi-Agency Partnerships

The purpose of Tassee's study was to identify the key elements of agency-school cooperation and their relationships to community education. In this study it was discovered that 1) there is a significant difference between the "ideal" and the "real" perceptions of agency-school cooperation; 2) significant differences exist between the "ideal" and "real" perceptions

of six identified elements of agency-school cooperation; 3) significant differences occured in the perceptions of the four groups (community school directors, principals, agency personnel and parents); 4) there were significant differences in the perceptions of four groups on four elements of agency-school cooperation (community involvement, feasibility analysis, community school director and implementation); 5) significant interaction occurred among the four groups on the community involvement element; 6) community involvement is a vital element of agency-school cooperation; 7) the community school director occupies a central role in agency-school cooperation; 8) evaluation is a key element in agency-school cooperation primarily on the basis that community education has a built-in evaluation instrument (participants); 9) three other key elements were identified (implementation, feasibility analysis and structure); 10) community-based action projects which enlist community participation are important to agency-school cooperation; 11) agency-school cooperation improves services, provides services not ordinarily provided by the school, makes the public more aware of the services provided by non-school agencies, and makes services more accessible to residents; 12) community education is a viable vehicle for agency-school cooperation (Tasse, 1972).

Sumrall in developing a holistic model interface, studied the extent to which agencies formed partnerships to

effect better service delivery, by interfacing the elements of the community school, the educational park, and neighborhood service centers. The model that was developed provided a methodology for coordination of approach and method, decentralization of governance and administration, and citizen participation in decision-making (Sumrall, 1974).

A study was undertaken in South Carolina to determine the state of the art of community education development in that state. A significant finding in that study was that the school districts work in coordination with only 38% of the available agencies in South Carolina (Cook, 1977).

School/Adult Education Alliances

Beder's work (1972) described and analyzed community linkage relationships exhibited by urban public school adult basic education in six cities, particularly in view of cosponsorship of classes and use of community liaison personnel. There were some significant findings relating to interagency partnerships. It was found that Adult Basic Education programs purposefully establish linkages because doing so enables the programs to satisfy organizational requirements for enrolling and retaining students. Linkages also helped ABE programs to satisfy organizational needs for program visibility, prestige, and information feedback. Organizations that linked with ABE programs did so for similar reasons; thus, symbiotic relationships emerged, in that both linking

partners derived net benefit from the association. It was also found that the ABE director played a critical role in the linkage process. This person established many linkages through his interactions with groups outside the ABE milieu.

School/Recreation Partnerships

Several studies were identified that dealt specifically with school partnerships with recreation agencies in providing comprehensive recreation programs.

The National Recreation Association in 1960 surveyed twenty-two cities having year-round programs to determine the extent of cooperation between recreation agencies and school districts in the joint use of facilities. It was found that 1) a large majority of the cities had good relationships between school and recreation programs; 2) there was an increasing readiness among school authorities to make their facilities available for recreation purposes; 3) joint use of facilities through cooperative projects had been worked out in most cities (often recreation facilities were developed and located adjacent to school facilities); 4) both agencies seemed to agree more on the joint planning of outdoor facilities than indoor facilities. This study also identified some of the advantages of cooperative endeavors: 1) they permit development of mutual cooperation and understanding; 2) it is more economical in terms of tax dollars because there is more efficient use of public lands as well as multiple use of existing facilities; 3) often teachers can be used as

leaders; 4) it enhances the appearances of the area being utilized; 5) more adequate facilities are made possible (National Recreation Association, 1960).

Hafen, in his 1968 study, proposed to develop guidelines which could assist school districts in Utah in formulating sets of written policies which would bring about more extensive and cooperative use of public school facilities. He found that, although problems occur when attempting dual use of school facilities, through cooperative planning most of the difficulties can be eliminated. He also discovered that public needs should be the primary concern of all governmental agencies in the social service field; therefore, all appropriate agencies should be linked in a creative effort to provide the highest level of recreation at the lowest possible cost (Hafen, 1968).

In another study conducted in Utah, Thorstenson (1969) proposed to determine the availability and extent of use of school facilities for community recreation. Regarding interagency linkages, he found that school, community and recreation leaders were weak in cooperation in areas of planning, organizing, and conducting recreation programs for the citizenry.

Likewise, in three similar studies in other states, Lucenko (1972), Otto (1972), and Koller (1973) reported minimal cooperation between schools and related agencies in providing for comprehensive recreation programs. These studies demonstrate the natural competitive orientation of the agencies and a staff

reluctance to change. Many of the municipal recreation superintendents surveyed in these studies indicated a reluctance to cooperate with school districts.

Lucenko's study in New Jersey reported that leadership for community recreation was provided by the public recreation agency in the majority of the districts; however, other groups and agencies, including the schools, also provided leadership. It was also discovered that there appeared to be very little consultation or planning of facilities for wider community use, and that the joint use of school and recreation facilities appeared to be the most common cooperative relationships. In reference to the establishment of linkages, a majority of the district superintendents provided recommendations for the improvement of relationships between the board of education and public recreation agencies (Lucenko, 1972).

Likewise, in Wisconsin, Otto found very few cooperative arrangements. Thirty-six percent of the total sample cooperated in the joint use of school and recreation department properties. Only 8.4 percent of the districts indicated shared responsibility between the school board and recreation department (Otto, 1972).

Koller's findings in Alabama included that, although 92% of the school districts made their facilities available to the public recreation department, very few cooperative efforts existed between school boards and public recreation departments. In 13% of the cases were consultation and joint

planning indicated as taking place between school districts and recreation departments (Koller, 1973).

Further investigations of relationships between boards of education and recreation departments were conducted by Trepanese in Jersey City, Stichter in Los Angeles, Ridinger in New York, Olsen in the North Central region of the country, Micklich in Flint, Michigan, and the South Carolina Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism.

On the basis of the findings of the study in Jersey City, Trepanese concluded that the board of education should become more involved in providing recreational experiences for the community and should formulate definite policies which will guide it in dealing with community agencies. He recommended that the school board should 1) compliment those programs offered by other agencies, 2) assist in creating favorable opinion about other agency programs, 3) open all in-service programs to community leaders, 4) play an active role in future community planning, and 5) assume leadership in supplying services to meet the needs of youth and plan with other agencies (Trepanese, 1961).

Stichter (1961) found, in Los Angeles, increased cooperative efforts among governmental agencies, including the schools, concerning their support for community recreation. He also discovered that the responsibility for meeting community recreational needs did not rest with the school district, but with another governmental agency

and that written contracts should reflect all agreements between school districts and other agencies.

A survey by Ridinger of the school districts of New York state in 1963 yielded some interesting findings: 1) school-sponsored recreation of all descriptions in New York is in a period of transition; 2) considerable dissention exists between school districts and recreation departments in reference to philosophy, methodology, and administration; 3) school superintendents do not usually acknowledge many of the problems considered important by recreation directors; 4) school recreation administrators generally do not possess sufficient status within the school system necessary to fully meet their responsibilities and to satisfactorily discharge the duties of their job (Ridinger, p. 588).

Olsen, in his study to determine how well key leaders in education and recreation accepted public-school sponsorship and co-sponsorship of community recreation programs, found that most education and recreation leaders believed that a "combination of agencies" was more popular than other forms of sponsorship. He also determined, not surprisingly, that all groups except municipal recreation administrators recommended most frequently that a combination of agencies should sponsor the recreation program for the total community. Almost 85% of the respondents recommended that schools should cooperate jointly with other community agencies in sponsoring community recreation programs (Olsen, 1970).

Miklich in his research on the need for cooperation, examined the perceived conflict and cooperation existing among the four recreational agencies in Flint, in a follow-up to the Tasse Study of 1972. He found that much more perceived conflict existed among the four agencies than was originally hypothesized, the greatest amount being expressed toward the community schools, followed by (in order) the Parks and Recreation Department, the YWCA, and the YMCA. Discrepancies were found in the perceptions of Park and Recreation personnel and YWCA personnel regarding the extent to which their agencies cooperated with one another in interagency program planning, facility sharing, personnel sharing, and the like. The overall level of cooperation expressed by the four agencies was quite low, with the community schools perceived as the most cooperative and the YWCA as the least. It was concluded that better communication was needed between agencies 1) to effect better planning and 2) to effect a greater degree of cooperation (1975).

A 1976 study by the S.C. Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism was undertaken "to help stimulate cooperative action between public agencies, primarily sponsoring on public schools and public recreation agencies "in South Carolina (p. 1). The results of this research reported the extent to which multiple and joint-use of facilities were being accomplished, and the degree of cooperation that resulted from the partnerships. Eight programs were studied: one urban,

two suburban, and five rural. Copies of formal agreements and contracts postscript most the case studies. All cases but two involve successful alliances of school districts and recreation departments. One represents a partnership formed among a manufacturing firm, a higher education institution, and local, state, and federal governmental agencies. The other represents a cooperative arrangement between the school board and a civic organization.

School/Community College Alliances

In recent years an emergence of research on coordination between community colleges and community schools is evidenced. "Super Seminar 74" and the resulting National Joint Continuing Steering Committee reflected a trend toward common unity and an alliance of six national associations - - the National Community Education Association, the American Association for Leisure and Recreation, the National Recreation and Park Association, the Adult Education Association of America, the National Association ofr Public, Continuing and Adult Education, and the American Association for community and Junior Colleges. Since the formation of this alliance some research has been generated in the area of community schools/community colleges articulation.

Hansen, in his study of avenues of co-operation between state agencies responsible for post-secondary education, surveyed adult and continuing education agencies, vocational and technical education agencies, and community and junior

colleges. He found that to effect cooperation regular joint agency meetings were considered most effective. He also discovered that the emerging pluralistic, democratic model of organization appeared to accentuate positive decision-making processes by agency staffs at all levels, with the stress on leadership, rather than command, by administrators. He furthermore found that an area of some sets of guidelines from the federal and state levels concerning administrative, fiscal, and program procedures, in the form of educational directives, mandates, and legislative action (Hansen, 1974).

Weiss (1974) undertook a study to determine the extent of cooperation and coordination that currently existed in selected community colleges which had community school programs in their college districts. He selected five states for his study (Oregon, Washington, California, Michigan, and Florida). He concluded that 1) there is an urgent need for cooperation and coordination between community colleges and community schools in college districts; 2) considerable disagreement exists between community colleges and community schools with regard to whether or not the community college should pay part of the community school director's salary; 3) competition for tax dollars is not the reason for the lack of cooperation between the institutions in the states surveyed; 4) community college and community school personnel should come to an agreement regarding responsibility for coordinating community education in a community college district; 5) much disagreement was found between community

schools and community colleges in the areas of instruction and finance; 6) a need exists for a model for cooperation and coordination between community colleges and community schools. On the basis of these findings, Weiss made some recommendations. He suggested that 1) the community college develop a training program for community school paraprofessionals, directors/coordinators, and other related personnel; 2) formal guidelines should be developed for cooperation and coordination between community schools and community colleges; 3) the role and function of the multiplicity of agencies providing for community education be further delineated.

Also in 1974 appeared the first study sponsored by the American Association of Junior and Community Colleges, the purpose of which was to assess the extent of community college/community school cooperation accross the nation. Eighty-four percent of the colleges surveyed reported that they do cooperate with the local public school system in coordinating community service programs. To effect program planning, 46% of the colleges cooperated with school districts in conducting needs assessments. In coordinating staff needs, 46% of the responding colleges reported positively. Eighty-four percent indicated utilization of K-12 facilities for "off campus" programs. Other areas of coordinated efforts reported included programs for senior citizens, staff development for both community college and school district personnel, cooperation in offering vocational

and technical training, joint enrollment opportunities in school system and community college, manpower programs, tutoring, and high school completion (DuBois and Drake, 1975).

Valdes also studied the scope of cooperation and coordination between community colleges and community schools. He found that in the state of Florida 1) cooperation and coordination between community colleges and community schools is needed: (2) cooperative efforts would save tax dollars: (3) cooperative programs should be identified to serve as case studies: (4) gaps exist in meeting community educational needs: (5) community schools should be as flexible as possible: (6) community colleges should offer a variety of credit and non-credit courses: and (7) the level of community needs is high enough that little or no duplication of educational services exists (Valdes, 1975).

In 1976 the AACJC conducted its second nationwide study on community education, this time researching six different areas -- community education offerings, community education administration, characteristics, types of cooperation and funding and policy in community education. Apropos to interagency cooperation, it was found that the majority of the respondents oppose open competition between their college and other agencies offering community education programs. An overwhelming majority did not believe that the colleges would lose supervision of community education programs if they coordinated with other agencies; rather,

over two-thirds of the respondents felt that cooperation with other agencies was essential for the survival of community education in the two-year colleges. Again, two-thirds of the respondents contended that utilization of tax monies should not inhibit cooperation between community colleges and community schools. More than half declared that community colleges should provide personnel and financial support so that community schools could initiate community education. Nearly half of the respondents reported having completed formal agreements with other community agencies. (of these colleges, cooperative agreements were reported with community schools, business and industry, senior citizens programs, parks and recreation programs, public health agencies, public libraries, civic and fraternal organizations, and religious institutions. It was also suggested that the presence of a community school in the district might stimulate cooperative agreements. Over three-fourths of the colleges responding disagreed with the statement that community colleges were taking on two many functions that should be performed by other agencies (Fletcher, Rue, and Young, 1977; NJCSC, 1977). Yet, Fletcher, et al. (1977) observed that there is some doubt as to the seriousness of community colleges' desire to cooperate with other local agencies.

School/Health Agency Partnerships

Recent studies have been undertaken which demonstrate the degree of coordination between local school districts and health agencies. Cannon, whose 1974 study was undertaken to determine the interaction of eleven public school districts and a county mental health agency, concluded that 1) school districts and the mental health agency were not working together to aid handicapped children; 2) the worst relationship existed in the epidemiology analysis area, while the best was in the treatment services section/ 3) school classification made no difference in the kind of relationship; 4) potential needs of the under-20 age population dictated a different staffing pattern for the mental health center; 5) neither group has acted to improve relations in the areas investigated. Cannon also recommends that an improvement in the relationships may be brought about by parent and parent-group interest and involvement.

Again in 1974 Gay attempted to develop a school health model, stressing interagency involvement. Recommendations, policies, and procedures of professional, volunteer, and official agencies between 1947 and 1974 (with respect to a school health program) were considered, and, according to gay .66% of the researched materials were incorporated in his model. He concluded that 1) a school health coordinator should guide allied health personnel working

in the schools; 2) each school should have a full- or part-time school health administrator, 3) systematic fostering and development of community involvement in school health is essential; 4) community health resources must be effectively integrated into the school health program and not considered a separate entity.

Case Studies

Several studies consisted of detailed inquiries into interagency partnerships and alliances in a particular, community, school district, or school. Keith, in his development of a model for combatting juvenile delinquency in Tulsa, contended that because existing agencies work independently, the many programs for alleviating juvenile delinquency are lost in territorial hassles and an obstinance to share expertise and information. He further emphasized that because 40% of the delinquents possess physical and/or mentally handicapping conditions, there exists a crucial need for cooperation and coordination of pertinent agencies. Keith's recommended program consists of a coordinating team and an educational team, with the overall administration of a coordinating director. The staff should include administrative assistants, psychologists, counselors, and representatives from the public schools, juvenile or family courts, welfare, and vocational rehabilitation. Coordinating counselors should be appointed and have three areas of responsibility: 1) to act as liaison between theirs and

other agencies; 2) to refer juveniles identified as problems to the total program; 3) to supervise and counsel the juveniles accepted into the program. The educational team, working in conjunction with the coordinating team would establish an educational program for the juveniles.

Baillie, Dewitt, and O'Leary's investigation in 1972 on the "potential role of the school as a site for integrating social services" provided in-depth case studies of ten schools in which were located social service delivery agencies, in an attempt to determine the efficiency and effectiveness of the delivery of social services. As a result of their research, they concluded that "while physical integration of social services and schools does not automatically improve delivery of services, locating them under one roof constitutes a viable approach to achieving their functional integration" (a more comprehensive approach to needy people than improved referral and outreach) (p. 55).

In 1975 Blumenkrantz undertook an organizational analysis of coordinated services in a community, between a school district and selected social agencies. His findings included: 1) shared organizational goals are essential in coordinating service; 2) schools tended to secure more services from outside agencies than they rendered in return; 3) the other agencies believed that the schools should provide more of the services requested of them; 4) school system complexity

made the decision-making process unclear to outsiders;
5) better communication is a key to more effective coordination.

Research Needs

As a reaction to the lack of existing research in community education, a symposium on research needs was held in April, 1971. This represented the first comprehensive attempt to identify needed research in community education with respect to the state of the art, models and future development (analytical, theoretical, and operational, respectively).

Additionally, a subsequent symposium took place in 1974. The Research Committee of the National Community Education Association has also been involved in identifying needed research. Also, the former Office of Community Education Research at the University of Michigan identified, in its Research Monographs, pertinent areas of needed study. The following is a synthesis of the identified research questions and/or needs that were deemed crucial to community education development in the area of interagency cooperation/ coordination or interagency partnerships (in no particular order):

1. Identify patterns of coordination between community school and existing agencies;

2. Determine a process for introducing community education into the community agency system;

3. Identify effective agencies for initiating the community education process;

4. Explore the relationships between community education and other agencies;

5. Determine a process for accomplishing interagency coordination;

6. Explore the potential for reciprocal or cooperative relationships between schools and other agencies;

7. How is agency duplication identified?

8. What components of compatability could exist between schools and other federal (Teacher Corps, Model Cities, for example), state, and local programs?

9. What are the theoretical and/or philosophical ties between community education and other agencies?

10. What agencies are involved in the community education process?

11. Is there an identifiable role between community education and existing agencies?

12. Should community colleges be community education centers?

13. What are the financial advantages in inter-agency partnerships?

14. What is the nature and extent of coordination between community schools and vocational centers?

15. What differences exist between cooperation of community schools with other agencies and cooperation of traditional schools with other agencies?

16. What is the role of the community school director with respect to promotion of interagency coordination?

17. Identify methods of reducing interagency conflict at national, state, and local levels;

18. Methods of fostering coordination in planning new facilities;

19. Methods to increase cooperation to foster joint attacks on community problems.

20. What is the feasibility of joint development of proposals for seeking new monies?

21. What is the feasibility of hiring administrative personnel on a joint-funding basis?

22. What should be the criteria for evaluating interagency partnerships?

23. Who should evaluate interagency programs?

A review of the literature and research generated the following research needs:

1. Are interagency alliances perceived as a threat to agency autonomy?

2. Is the concept of interagency partnerships fiscally sound?

3. Does the success of interagency alliances depend upon the personalities of the agency directors?

4. Is the role of the community education director crucial to the development of interagency alliances?

5. What agency relationships exist to provide comprehensive social services (recreational, health, educational, and so forth) for the handicapped and other persons with special needs?

6. What is the extent of agency commitment to the community education concept?

7. To what degree are educational agencies or programs, (K-12, Head Start, early childhood programs, vocational and technical education, adult education, parent education, colleges, universities, and so forth) coordinating their efforts, personnel, programs, funding, etc.?

8. What is the nature and extent of local linkages between community education and cooperative extension?

The following research questions or needs were suggested by the Review Team:

1. What interagency organizational structures have developed as a result of initiating community education?

2. What impact do residential schools have as a generating element in the community education process?

3. An analysis of common elements that exist with regard to agreements of cooperation.

4. What are client/participant perceptions of cooperation in the "ideal" and in the perceived reality.

5. What differences exist between private and public agencies with regard to realities of and attitudes toward cooperation?

6. What are the actual benefits and problems inherent in interagency partnerships?

7. An analysis of barriers to interagency alliances.

8. What is the cost-effectiveness/analysis of interagency programming?

9. What is the status of self-serving, self-perpetrating agencies that exist for their own benefit.

10. What modes of overcoming obstacles and/or resolving differences have been found effective and why?

11. An analysis of the current status of publicly-financial agencies (Have they been "shotgunned" into communities? Have they become entrenched bureaucracies? Are attempts to deliver human services meager?).

12. Are all interagencies good? What criteria exist for determining interagency partnership effectiveness?

13. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the various interagency partnership models?

14. What is the extent of acceptance by the public of the need for interagency relationships?

15. To what extent can we learn from previous mistakes/problems?

16. To what extent do different relationships work in different/similar situations?

17. What is the degree of transferability of research findings into actual operational principles or practices?

18. What is the relationship of interagency alliances to non-school-based.community education models?

19. To what degree are interfacing agents or personnel recognized as important?

20. What is the extent of correlation between the community education process and interagency partnerships?

21. What is the relationship of interagency actions with other "components" of community education?

22. What are the extent and conditions by which interagency relationships are a determinent to community problem-solving and development?

23. What is the extent and form of vertical/ horizontal relationships?

24. What are the potential/actual problems involved with interagency partnerships?

25. Case studies on the impact of community education projects on the delivery of human services.

26. What is the extent of "people problems" in developing interagency projects ("people coordinate, not agencies")--the effectiveness of human relations in establishing interagency partnerships.

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