

UNIVERSITIES' COMMITMENTS TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT GOALS : REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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I. Purpose and Scope of the Study

In the era of development in various parts of the globe with limited natural resources available, policy-makers and planners in industrialized nations as well as in developing countries have searched for better and more efficient alternatives to national progress. One of the efforts has been the creation of colleges and universities outside of the capital cities¹, a change from traditional practice, in an attempt to accelerate the pace of local and national development.

That the university has an obligation for public or community service is no longer in question, especially among Western Scholars. The points at issue are the ways in which it is appropriate for the university to serve the community -- for example, to what extent should a university be involved in community development, how and under what conditions?²

The fact that certain types of community services are being rendered by universities and colleges is obvious. Perhaps the major differences among them are the types, quantities, and qualities of services, and the ways in which those services are introduced into the community. These differences reflect, among other things, universities' commitment to community development goals, especially those who participate in the policy-making process. This suggests that universities' commitment is one of the most important factors contributing to the success of community programs of universities. The question is what does the term "commitment" mean? Is there any correlation between a university's commitment to community development goals and the success of its community project? If so, how are they related?

Despite increasing popularity of the term "commitment," scholars tend to take its meaning for granted and do not attempt to define the term or suggest ways of measuring its. This paper attempts to suggest how "commitment," particularly with regard to community development goals, can be measured. Efforts

are also made to relate such commitment to a university's community program effectiveness. The final section of the paper proposes a general conceptual framework for analysis to encourage further discussion for future testing.

II. Research Method

As the title of the paper suggests, this study is a documentary research. The paper concentrates on reviewing some of the most popular literature on the concept of "commitment," especially with regard to community development goals, and the relation of such a concept to the success of community programs of the university.

III. Review of Literature

Because most studies on the role of colleges and universities in local and national development are fragmentary and implicit, particularly in terms of their commitments to community development goals, some scholars suggest that a **commitment to organizational goals or a sense of mission**— terms which are often used interchangeably — is the most important factor contributing to organizational success or goal attainment in organizations.³ Others employ the term "**value commitments**" and attempt to relate leaders' commitments to local development in certain nations under study.⁴ Such usages of the terms are attitudinal in meaning. Some scholars tend to use the term "commitment" in a behavioral sense which will be further elaborated. They, however, fail either explicitly to define the term, or to offer suggestions as to how to measure it.

Despite such research problems, the term "commitment" employed by scholars seems to include both attitudinal and behavioral connotations. The point is what do we mean by attitudinal and behavioral commitments? **Are these commitments related to degree of success of a university's community development program?** If so, how are they correlated?

With respect to attitudinal commitment, Henderson seems to emphasize the feeling of mission among university leaders, faculty, and students as one of the most important factors, contributing to the success of the University of Wisconsin, Reed College, and Antioch College in providing services to their communities.

In the Reed, Wisconsin, and Antioch cases, the high quality of intellectual efforts by faculty and students has been due in part to the stimulation from the feeling of mission. Although the concepts, of mission was articulated by educational leaders, it has permeated the institutions as a whole. The second point is that the educational leaders who have become historically significant figures are those who have provided fresh vision -- related either to educational innovation or to social advance for their institutions. Those who merely navigate a safe course are doomed to obscurity.⁵

Here we have the feeling of mission or commitments to university goals among university leaders, faculty, and students and commitment to development (social advance), especially commitment to innovation on the part of university leadership, as major factors contributing to the degree of success or goal attainment of universities. A study called *Values and the Active Community* by Jacob and others, suggests that development leaders, particularly in developing nations are highly committed to innovative change and economic development, including economic equality.⁶ In addition, Paige's conceptual framework for the study of political leadership suggests that a leader's values should be treated as a major independent variable assumed to be related to political leadership behavior.⁷

An important question in political leadership studies, but often neglected is who the leaders are and how to identify them. Henderson, for example, neither defines the concept of leadership nor talks about whether the concept refers to a single leader, or a group of leaders, or a combination of the two. He, however, tends to use the words president, dean, and (department) chairman when university leadership is discussed.⁸

Similarly, Asian scholars suggest that the concept of leadership encompasses a single leader, or a group of leaders, and tend to refer to formal position-holders.⁹ Certainly there are at least three major methods in political leadership studies — reputational method, positional method, and decision method.¹⁰ One of the most widely used methods is positional method and it particularly fits most less-developed countries where administrative positions tend to be more powerful than academicians. Positional method refers to an approach by which an individual in a given office or position of apparently high influence potential¹¹ is a unit of observation. By this definition, a person who holds a formal position in a given office is regarded as a leader. For example, provincial governors and district officers who are agency heads in the provinces and the districts, respectively, are leaders in this sense. Thus, when we apply the positional approach to a university, we have the rector, vice-rectors, deans, and department chairpersons as leaders of different levels in the university's hierarchy. This procedure in political leadership studies will be employed in this study.

Also several questions may be raised when one talks about university goals and some related terms such as goal consensus. What do we mean by "goal" and "consensus"? How do we measure consensus? How is goal consensus related to degree of success of a university's community programs?

In spite of the central importance of "goal" in organizations, it is surprising how little attention has been given to developing a clear definition of "goal."¹² Etzioni defines an organizational goal as "a desired state of affairs which the organization attempts to realize."¹³ This definition raises the question of whose state of affairs it is that is desired. For what appear to be goals from the point of view of administration may not be goals at all from the point of view of those

elsewhere in the organization. Gross, in his extensive survey of university goals, which covers 68 universities in the United States, seems to find a fairly high degree of goal consensus. However, students were excluded from this study and only university administrators and faculty were studied.¹⁴ Henderson suggests that a university is a goalseeking organization, and there needs to be a consensus among administration, faculty, and also students concerning the goals.¹⁵

McClosky defines the term "consensus" as follows :

Consensus will mean a state of agreement concerning the aforementioned values. It has principally to do with shared beliefs—to a measurable state of concurrence around values that can be specified. Consensus exists in a degree and can be expressed in qualitative terms. No one, of course, can say how close one must come to unanimity before consensus is achieved, for the cutting point, as with any continuous variable, is arbitrary. Still the term in ordinary usage has been reserved for fairly substantial measures of correspondence, and we shall take as a minimal requirement for consensus a level of agreement reaching 75 percent.¹⁶

Thus, consensus is briefly defined as an agreement on values reaching 75 percent, or so, of a specified group.

There is no empirical evidence in the field of higher education related to a relationship between goal consensus and success of university involvement in community development. It is, however, often documented that goal consensus is correlated with goal achievement.¹⁷ In addition, studies in organizational psychology have shown productivity and satisfaction are greater when the workers set their own goal.¹⁸ This seems to imply that goal consensus (gained through involving members of organizations in goal-setting) is also related to goal achievement.

In brief, under attitudinal commitments we have commitments to university goals in general and the community development (service) goal in particular, plus commitment to certain developmental values (innovation and economic equality), especially on the part of university leaders. Included in the analysis as units of observations are university leaders (in this case, rectors, vice rectors, deans, and department chairman), faculty members, and students of the universities.

Regarding behavioral commitments, Harlacher suggests that a major indicator of behavioral commitment to community development programs of university leaders is the presence of an organization or a **separate manager** exclusively responsible for the programs. When this occurs, the programs have a better chance of success.¹⁹ This seems to imply that having a separate organization for the programs would likely bind the university leadership to commit themselves to approve and/or request an allotment of a separate budget, with either full-time or part-time staff for the additional unit. These financial and manpower resources are very important and necessary for the execution of development programs.

Another indicator of behavioral commitment to community development goals of the university that is often only implicitly discussed by scholars is development of the university's internal resources. This includes both quantities and qualities of resources. Esman and Blaise, for instance, contend that a major responsibility of organizational leaders is to develop resources in their organizations. They suggest that development program decisions may be affected by the ability of an institution to mobilize resources and the sources from which they can be obtained.²⁰

Scholars in the fields of institution-building and development seem to agree that resources are key determinants of an organization's effectiveness and essential ingredients that must be present if the development process is to occur.²¹

Moreover, some scholars use the term "university resources" as a key indicator of university capacities and view it, in addition to university goals or objectives, as a major determinant of the extent of university involvement in community development.²² Resources may be classified into two major categories—physical resources and human resources. The former includes natural resources, financial resources, facilities and equipment resources while the latter covers such resources as manpower resources, information resources, etc.²³ When the concept of resources is applied to a university it includes such elements as faculty members (manpower resources), budget (financial resources), library facilities, and other needed equipment such as laboratories, land for agricultural experimentation, etc. Thus, development of the university's internal resources seems to imply that the more developed the university's internal resources are, the more likely the university is able to provide better services, and have a better chance of success with the programs.

Securing financial and non-financial supports for community development programs seems to be another key indicator of behavioral commitment to community development goals of the university. Though it is more desirable for all members in an organization to take part in mobilizing supports for the programs, scholars tend to suggest that insuring such support is a major responsibility of organizational leaders. Rourke, for example, contends that because the role of leadership in an organization depends, to a large extent, on its interaction with people inside an organization, as well as with outsiders in its environment, it is suggested that certain categories of leadership skills or ability are required for the survival and success of organizations. One major category of such skills is to insure a favorable response to the agency from outside groups and organizations which control resources upon which it depends.²⁴

Easton who analyzes politics in explicit system terms suggests that supports, in addition to demands, are very important and necessary inputs of a political system in order to keep the system running.²⁵ Supports may be subclassified in many ways : (1) material supports, such as the payment of taxes or other levies and the provision of service, such as labor for public works; (2) participatory supports, such as voting, etc.²⁶ For the purpose of this study, supports

are subclassified as financial and non-financial supports. Financial supports for a university's community programs cover such monetary supports as local and national allotment, taxes, fees or other levies, and donations. Included in non-financial supports for community programs are such aids as labor, participation in the program, and other materials.

There are two major possible sources of assistance for a university's community programs : domestic and foreign sources. A domestic source includes supports from the national government and from the community in which the university is located. National supports are very important and necessary, though not sufficient, especially in less-developed nations where most regional universities are created and mainly funded by the central governments²⁷ and there is no formal linkage between the university and the community or province (equivalent to a state in the United States) in which it is located. Community supports include public and private sectors. Supports from public sectors cover aids from local self-government units (such as municipalities, provincial councils, sanitation districts) and from representatives of the central government in the province, especially those who are responsible for community development. Private sectors include business, industry, charitable organizations, and citizens of the province. In addition to national supports, aids from the private sectors are as important as the public ones and necessary if community programs are to succeed. While the role of the private sectors in local and national development in developed nations, such as the "Committee for Economic Development" -- a private national organization in the United States -- is very significant,²⁸ it is surprising to note that the private sector's role in less-developed countries such as Thailand, is less significant and needs to be encouraged if community programs are to develop.

Foreign assistance is another possible source of support for a university's community development programs. Particularly in the past twenty years, the amount of foreign aid given by foreign institutions, private foundations, and international organizations to the university in less-developed nations is significant.²⁹ Despite the importance of foreign aid in developing countries, some scholars seem to warn that the impact of foreign assistance may be negative if the aid is not properly handled. For example, if foreign aid is not seriously intended to help the aid-receiving institutions to be self-reliant, development programs that are basically funded by foreign aid are likely to fail or cease to develop if the aid is discontinued. More importantly, foreign support that is attached by foreign models without adequately adapting the models to fit local setting is likely to fail to solve local problems and tend to create additional problems. In describing the influence of foreign models upon universities, especially in Southeast Asia, Silcock says, "A fundamental feature of university life in Southeast Asia is that it has been imported from abroad, with ready-made value systems, sometimes already crystallized in institutions, techniques, attitudes, etc".³⁰ He contends that "the founders usually have copied the structure

from universities in other countries selected with little regard for local needs".⁸¹ Stauffer also realizes some drawbacks of foreign models and emphasizes the need to domesticate foreign models to fit local settings in a particular nation, especially in a developing country.⁸²

Thus, under securing financial and non-financial supports for community development programs, we have national supports, community supports, and foreign supports. In brief, supports provide the resources which enable a political system to carry out its goals.⁸³ When the concept of supports is applied to a university, a general proposition may be that the more supports a university has, the more likely that the university will achieve its goals.

Another key indicator of behavioral commitment to community development goals of the university is faculty and students' direct involvement in community development programs. Such an involvement includes not only information about who is involved in what programs, but also how many programs they actively take part in. In summary, extensive participation in community development by faculty and students implies the ability of the university to mobilize brains or expertise to do something beneficial for the community.

How do we measure degree of success of community development programs? Scholars in organizational theory tend to use effectiveness and efficiency in measuring the success of an organization.⁸⁴ The actual effectiveness of a specific organization is determined by the degree to which it realizes its goals. The efficiency of an organization is measured by the amount of resources used to produce a unit of output.⁸⁵ However, measuring effectiveness and efficiency tends to produce several thorny problems, especially in organizations whose goals are unlimited and are not concrete.⁸⁶ For example, in churches and governmental organizations whose motives are public service and not profit-making, statements about effectiveness and efficiency are difficult to validate. Scholars in organizational psychology attempt to minimize such problems by suggesting some psychological variables in measuring organizational success.⁸⁷

Nevertheless, using merely psychological factors is inadequate, particularly when one attempts to measure a degree of success of university involvement in community development, where the goal is community services and not profit-earning. This study attempts to offer another way of measuring the degree of success in a university's community development program by not relying too much upon the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency or employing psychological variables alone.

In order to cope with the above-mentioned problems, university leaders, faculty members, and students are asked to evaluate the success of community programs that are introduced into the villages and to identify the criteria of success employed by them. The rationale is that persons who know best about community programs in a university are those who are members of the university.

In addition, the impact of development programs is also examined. There may be several ways of categorizing the impact, but a useful way of looking at the problem and one which is used in this study is to subclassify it in terms of material and non-material impact.³⁸ Most studies that concentrate on material impact attempt to estimate economic impact of a development program upon the community by using cost-benefit analysis.³⁹ That is, they attempt to calculate the return to service-recipients in the form of monetary income from investment in a development program and compare it with the cost of that program. If the return is greater than the cost, the program is considered successful. How successful a program is depends merely on the amount of difference between the return and the cost.

Such an approach to measure material impact is, however, inadequate, especially when one attempts to evaluate the effect of certain kinds of university community programs if the motives are public service and not profit-earning. In such a case, measuring non-material impact of the program, particularly with respect to general attitudes of service-recipients toward the quality of the program seems to be more appropriate.

In summary, this study attempts to offer multiple ways of measuring success of a university's community development programs. First, by requesting university leaders, faculty, and students to assess the degree of success and to describe the criteria which are used by them. Second, by measuring both the material impact upon the community and the non-material effect, particularly regarding general attitudes of service-recipients toward the quality of the programs.

IV. A Proposed Framework for Analysis

Variables Affecting A University's Community Development Program Effectiveness

Independent Variables

Dependent Variable

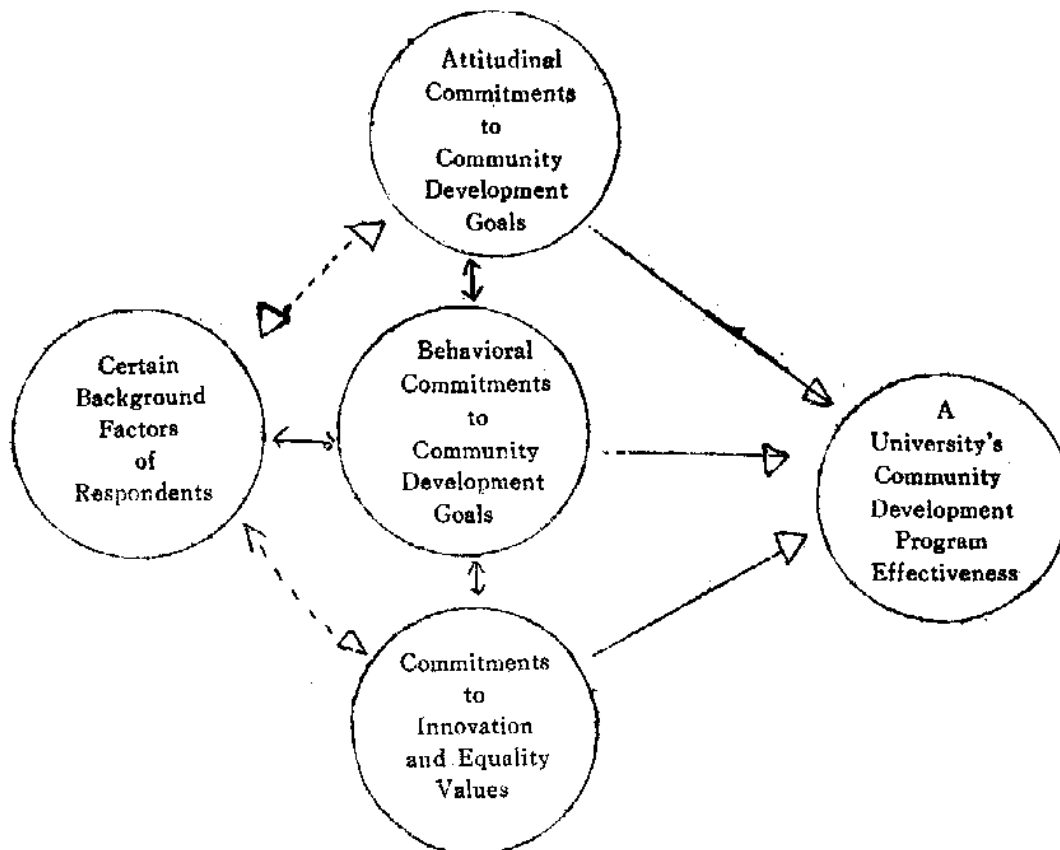


Figure 1. A General Framework for Analysis

This diagram results from a review of literature on the role of a university as an agent of change, particularly with regard to its commitments to community development goals. It is developed and primarily intended to encourage further discussion for future testing.

In brief, the main focus of this paper is commitments by universities to community development goals. As such, the analysis is centered on the relation among the four major independent variables : background factors of respondents; attitudinal commitments to community development goals; behavioral commitments

to community development goals; and commitments to innovation and equality values. In addition, an analysis could be made to relate the independent variables, particularly the attitudinal and behavioral commitments, to a dependent variable—a university's community development program effectiveness. The background factors of informants may include such variables as sex; age; marital status; region of birth; work experience or class status (in the case of students); monthly income, and so on.

Footnotes

1. Oliver Popenoe, "The Importance of Education in National Development," *International Development Review*, Vol. 8, No. 4 (December, 1966), 8.
2. T.R. Connell, "Colleges and Universities as Agents of Social Change: An Introduction," in W. John Miater and Lan M. Thompson (ed.), *Colleges and Universities as Agents of Social Change* (Berkeley, California: Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California, 1968), p. 1.
3. Algo D. Henderson, *The Innovative Spirit: Change in Higher Education* (San Francisco: Jossey Bass, Inc., 1970), pp. 44.
4. For example, Jacob and others, in their studies on "Values and the Active Community," investigate local leaders' commitments to certain developmental values and attempt to relate such commitments to local development in India, Poland, the United States, and Yugoslavia. Philip E. Jacob, et al., *Values and the Active Community: A Cross-National Study of Influence of Local Leadership* (New York: The Free Press, 1971).
5. Henderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-45.
6. Jacob and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-79.
7. Glenn D. Paige, "A Conceptual Framework," in Glenn D. Paige (ed.), *Political Leadership: Readings for an Emerging Field* (New York: The Free Press, 1972), pp. 71, 76-79.
8. Henderson, *op. cit.*, p. 281.
9. Hahn-Been Lee, "Innovation and Experimentation," in Chou-Ming Lee (ed.), *A New Man for a New Society: Universities and Colleges as Agents of Change* (Hong Kong: Too Hoong Printing Co., 1969), pp. 82-84; Frank Bonilla and J. A. Sylva-Michelena, *Politics of Change in Venezuela, Volume I: Strategy of Research on Social Policy* (Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1967); Robert Agger, et al., *The Rulers and the Ruled* (New York: Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964).
10. Charles Kaduskin, "Power, Influence, and Social Circles: A New Methodology for Studying Opinion Makers," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 33, No. 5 (October 1968), 693-694.
11. Kenneth F. Janda, "Towards the Explication of the Concept of Leadership in Terms of the Concept of Power," in Paige, *op. cit.*, pp. 50-51.
12. Herbert Simon, "On the Concept of Organization Goals," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 9, No. 1 (June 1964), 1-12.

13. Amitai Etzioni, *Modern Organization* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey : Prentice-Hall 1964), p. 6.
14. Edward Gross, "Universities as Organizations : A Research Approach," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 33, No. 4 (August 1968), 527-532.
15. Algo D. Henderson (ed.), *Higher Education in Tomorrow's World* (Ann Arbor, Michigan : The University of Michigan, 1968), p. 68.
16. Herbert McClosky, "Consensus and Ideology in American Politics," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 58, No. 2 (June 1964), 363.
17. Henderson, for example, in his discussion of the four models of leadership concludes, "Of all the models, the problem-solving one, involving appropriate group participation seems clearly to make the best fit. This seems the best way for the skilled president, dean, or chairman to gain optimum consensus in defining goals. When the goals of the individuals or subgroups harmonize with and advance the overall goals, optimum productivity is obtained." See Henderson, *the Innovative Spirit*, *op. cit.*, p. 231.
18. Organizational psychology provides another source of evidence for the importance of conscious goal-setting for goal-achievement. One excellent field study of performance appraisal interviews by Myer, Kay, and French gives empirical support to the hypothesis that conscious goal-setting leads to goal achievement. For further information, see Herbert H. Myer, Emanuel Kay, and Hohn R.P. French, Jr., "Split Roles in Performance Appraisal," in L.L. Cummings and W.E. Scott, Jr., (eds.), *Readings in Organization and Behavior* (Homewood, Illinois : Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969), pp. 714-721; Rensis Likert, *The Human Organization : Its Management and Values* (New York : McGraw-Hill, 1967); and Douglas McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York : McGraw-Hill, 1960).
19. Ervin L. Harlacher, "Community and Junior Colleges : Community Services," in Lee G. Deighton (ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Education, Volume 2* (New York : The MacMillan Co., 1971), p. 328.
20. Milton Esman and Hans C. Blaise, *Institution-Building Research : The Guiding Concepts* (mimeo), a paper presented at the Seminar on Innovative Leadership and Institution Building, TDI, East-West Center, April 3-6, 1972, pp. 11-12.
21. *Ibid.*, p. 11; Milton Esman, *Institution-Building as a Guide of Action* (mimeo.), December 4, 1970, p. 15; Maurice Albertson, *Role of Educational and Research Institutions* (mimeo.), a paper presented at the Seminar on Innovative Leadership and Institution Building, TDI, East-West Center, April 3-6, 1972, p. 2.
22. Association of American Colleges suggests, "The extent of (university) involvement must be determined by each institution in light of its objectives and resources; and in recognition of the fact that the university cannot be all things to all men, it must emphasize those activities it is uniquely fitted to conduct." Association of American Colleges, "Autonomy, Authority, and Accountability," *Liberal Education*, Vol. 59, No. 1 (March 1973), 57-58; also Rayson L. Huang (ed.), *Proceedings : Second Workshop on Higher Education : The University and the Community* (Singapore : McGraw-Hill Far Eastern Publishers, Ltd., 1971), p. 103.

23. Albertson, *op. cit.*, pp. 2-3.
24. Francis E. Rourke, *Bureaucracy, Politics, and Public Policy* (Boston : Little, Brown and Company, Inc., 1969), p. 78.
25. David Easton, "An Approach to Analysis of Political System," *World Politics*, Vol. 9, No. 3 (April 1957), 383-408.
26. Gabriel A. Almond and G. Bingham Powell, Jr., "A Developmental Approach to Political Systems : An Overview," in Jason L. Finkle and Richard W. Gable (eds.), *Political Development and Social Change* (New York : John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1971), p. 57.
27. George J. Jurkowich and Philo C. Wasburn, "Student Political Orientations and Government-To-University Linkages," *Sociological Symposium : Youth and Politics*, No. 10 (Fall 1973), 105-106.
28. Geegory B. Wolfe, "Education, Economic Development, and the Private Sectors," *Journal of American Studies*, Vol. 8, No. 2 (April 1966), 260 and 263.
29. Manilo Rossi Doria, "Present and Future Problems of Food and Poverty : What Higher Education Can Contribute to Their Solution," in Henderson (ed.), *Higher Education in Tomorrow's World*, *op. cit.*, pp. 98-99.
30. Thomas H. Silcock, *Southeast Asian University : A Comparative Account of Some Development Problems* (Durham, North Carolina : Duke University Press, 1964), p. 3.
31. *Ibid.*, p. 8.
32. Robert B. Stauffer, "The Need to Domesticcate Foreign Models," *Solidarity*, Vol. 7, No. 4 (April 1972), 53-63.
33. Almond and Powell, *op. cit.*, p. 57.
34. James L. Price. *Handbook of Organization Management* (Lexington, Massachusetts : Heath, 1972); James D. Thompson and William McEvan, "Organization Goal and Environment : Goal-Setting as an Interaction Process," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 23, No. 1 (February 1958), 23-50; Allen H. Barton, *Organizational Measurement* (New York : College Entrance Examination Board, 1961 a); Basil S. Georgopoulos and Arnold S. Tannenbaum, "A Study of Organizational Effectiveness," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 22, No. 5 (October 1957), 534-540; and Alwin W. Gouldner, "Organizational Analysis," in Robert K. Merton, et al., *Sociology Today* (New York : Basic Books, 1959), Chapter 18.
35. Etzioni, *op. cit.*, p. 8, Aaron Wildavsky, "The Political Economy of Efficiency : Cost-Benefit Analysis, System Analysis, and Program Budgeting," in Austin Ranney (ed.), *Political Science and Public Policy* (Chicago : Markham Publishing, Co., 1968), p. 58, and Joseph S. Berliner, "Bureaucratic Conservatism and Creativity in the Soviet Economy," in Fred W. Riggs (ed.), *Frontiers of Development Administration* (Durham, North Carolina : Duke University Press, 1970), p. 585.

36. Etzioni, *op. cit.*, p. 9.
37. See Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, *The Social Psychology of Organization* (New York : John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966).
38. Some scholars such as La Piere employ the term "change" instead of "impact." He suggests two kinds of changes—quantitative and qualitative—that can be measured in the community under investigation. Richard T. La Piere, *Social Change* (New York : McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 53–59.
39. A.R. Prest and R. Turvey, "Cost-Benefit Analysis : A Survey," *The Economic Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 300 (December 1965), 683–731.