

KAPPA OMICRON NU
HONOR SOCIETY

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Collaboration

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State of the Society

Mary E. Prutchard, 1993 President

This has been a wonderful, exciting, fulfilling, active, and challenging year for Kappa Omicron Nu. The contributions of many members, officers, advisers, and local chapters have resulted in further maturation of the Society. Society leaders have made critical decisions that will positively impact the destiny of KON and prepare us for a commitment to our future. I thank you for providing me with the opportunity to participate in this dynamic process and work with the very capable Board of Directors, Executive Director, and members. As we vision our potential, it is useful to reflect back on the achievements and activities of the past year.

The 1993 Board of Directors began work in Rosemont, Illinois by reviewing the KON mission and "Agenda for the 90's" established by the first Board of Directors in April 1990. Within this framework, the Board established three specific objectives for 1993 and developed an action plan to implement them. The objectives were to maintain and strengthen chapters, assure continued leadership, and analyze the governance system of the society.

Strengthen Chapters

Collegiate and alumni chapters are the lifeblood of the society because they provide leadership opportunities, member benefits, and a direct link between the members and the national organization. The Board agreed that considerable resources should be expended in support of the chapters.

All chapters were asked to update their bylaws to conform with the national Constitution, resulting in an ominous task for the Constitution and Bylaws Committee. I want to thank Carole Makela, Colorado State University, and her loyal committee for their dedication.

The chapter programming report form was revised to encourage goal setting and evaluation based on chapter goals and national priorities. A two-phase reporting system was designed to identify chapters in need of assistance during the first half of the school year.

Chapter delegates received scholarships for participation in the leadership development activities held at Conclave. This award benefited chapters and enhanced the personal and professional growth of

delegates and advisers. Conclave workshops focused on the program thrusts of the Society and encouraged networking with colleagues. A workshop on excellence in chapter operations resulted in refinements to a new publication, "Tips for Successful Chapters."

Future Leaders

In response to recommendations from past presidents of KON, an ad hoc committee was appointed to make recommendations on the length of the Presidential Term. Gladys Gary Vaughn chaired the committee that reported to the Board and Assembly of Delegates at Conclave. A longer presidential term has been suggested.

Discussions of the governance model and officer nomination process identified the need to mentor members to prepare them for service on the Board. As our society develops, it appears that the responsibilities of national officers will expand, in the domain of selecting and articulating the vision of the Society and developing a governance model that supports that vision.

Society Governance

Maturation of our Society has challenged the Board to analyze the governance system to assure that the Society's mission and responsibilities to its members are fulfilled. The Board studied models and theoretical bases for leadership, governance, and visioning for our type of volunteer board that governs a nonprofit organization. Of particular interest was the policy-based governance structure proposed by John Carver.

This process has led the Board to a governance model that channels resources toward desired outcomes and benefits for members.

Conclave

The national biennial meeting of chapter delegates and advisers was held in August in Washington, D.C. The theme of "Leadership for a Culturally Diverse Society" afforded a splendid opportunity for professional development and greater understanding of issues associated with diversity.

Student representatives were elected to the Board of Directors. Angela Higgins, University of Nebraska; Ayodele Jordan, University of Maryland-Eastern Shore; and Susan Poch, Washington State University assumed their responsibilities and will serve through the 1995 Conclave.

A resolution process for chapters and members was developed by the Board and approved by the Assembly of Delegates. This process was designed to empower members to have an active role in Society policy and programming directions.

Recognitions and Awards

Outstanding members and chapters of Kappa Omicron Nu were recognized in several ways:

Chapter Awards of Excellence were given at Conclave: 1991-92: Carson-Newman College; University of Tennessee-Knoxville; Middle Tennessee State; Kent State University; and Kansas State University. 1992-93: Carson-Newman College; University of Tennessee-Knoxville; Baylor University; and Berry College.

Honorary Membership - Dr. Alice Kessler-Harris Professor of History and Director of Women's Studies at Rutgers University was recognized for her scholarship and research in women's labor history and multicultural issues.

Adviser Award of Excellence - 1992: Anna Duggins Roberts, East Tennessee State University; 1993: Mary E. Pritchard, Northern Illinois University.

Scholar Program - chapters can apply for local scholarship grants once each biennium. 1992-93: \$18,300 was awarded to 63 chapters.

Fellowships - awarded to individuals for advanced study and research totaled \$ 11,000 for the 1993-94 academic year:

KOPhi Hettie M. Anthony Fellowship: Renita S. Jenkins, University of Georgia (\$2,000)

KOPhi Marjorie Arch Burns Fellowship: Patricia Anne Kimle, Iowa State University (\$2,000)

KOPhi Dorothy I. Mitstifer Fellowship: Sharon L. Peterson, Penn State University (\$2,000)

ON Research Fellowship: William J. Banz, University of Tennessee-Knoxville (\$2,000)

ON Eileen C. Maddex Fellowship: Krystyna M. Kras, University of Georgia (\$2,000)

ON National Alumni Fellowship: Sharon M. Nickols-Richardson, RD, University of Georgia (\$1,000)

Undergraduate research paper award - from the Coordinating Council of Home Economics Honor Societies was presented at the luncheon at AHEA: Kim Dupree, University of Kentucky.

Conclave undergraduate paper presentations: Kristin Swigart and Lee-cen Hoh, Northwest Missouri State University

Named Fellowships - commemorate Society founders and recognize contributions of members to research, scholarship, or leadership in the profession and awards national recognition to the designated nominee. This year the

Board of Directors honored Omicron Nu founder Maude Gilchrist by establishing named fellowships in recognition of Norma Bobbitt, 1992 President, and Trude Nygren, Professor Emerita, Department of Human Environment and Design at Michigan State University. Campaigns are underway to solicit funds for these awards.

Society Publications

Home Economics FORUM led the profession as an outlet for discussion of critical issues. The Spring 1993 issue on Empowerment continued this excellent tradition. We appreciate the fine work that Edna Page Anderson contributed as Chair. The new Chair is Anne MacCleave. Kinsey Bass Green has agreed to serve as guest editor for an issue devoted to "The Place of Home Economics in Higher Education" which will generate new visions for the profession in higher education.

Our membership newsletter, *Dialogue*, was distributed in May and October. The Chapter Newsletter provided communication with chapters and contained contributions from Student Representatives in the March and October issues.

This year we published our first membership directory which was designed to facilitate networking among members.

Contributions of KON Leaders

Terms for National Officers coincide with the calendar year, except Student Representatives who serve from one conclave through the next. Board members whose terms expired in 1993 were—Mary E. Pritchard, President; Kaye Kittle Boyer, Vice President for Finance; Tracy Buckles, Deborah Hix, and Karen Summers, Student Representatives.

The mission of the Society has also been served by our standing committees. Many thanks to the following committee members whose terms expired in 1993 (chairs are

listed first): Awards—Jean Bauer, Sally Hansen-Gandy, Eleanor Schlenker, Margaret J. Weber; Awards - Margaret Briggs, Maxine L. Rowley, Marianna Y. Rasco, Lea L. Ebro; Constitution and Bylaws—Carole J. Makela, Jean Dunn, Susan Poch, Ellen Bolten, Dorothy E. Pomraning, Ruth E. Pestle; Nominating—Donna Beth Downer, Carolyn K. Manning, Phyllis R. Spruiell; Honorary Membership—Mary E. Pritchard, Ruth Deacon, Pauline Schatz, Lillie Glover; Editorial—Ruth Anne Mears.

Our Executive Director, Dorothy Mitstifer, continues to amaze me with her energy, creativity, vision, and effectiveness. We are grateful for her dedication to Kappa Omicron Nu.

Program Themes:

"Leadership for a Culturally Diverse Society," the 1993-95 program theme, was prepared by Frances Andrews, Dorothy Mitstifer, and Gwen Paschall. This project resulted in collaboration with other organizations that work in multicultural and leadership education. After pilot-testing at Conclave, the module was distributed to Chapters this fall and announced to the public through news releases.

"Mentoring: The Human Touch," the national program theme for the 1991-93 biennium, encouraged dialogue within the academic environment and between students and professionals. Our self-directed mentoring project has received a great amount of interest from within and outside the profession and across the nation, including the USDA Scholars Program. This program thrust was furthered through a joint mentoring project with Michigan State University's College of Human Ecology. This effort will refine the process for organizing a mentoring program within an academic unit and result in a tested model that will be made available to KON Chapters.

The Ethics Module continued to receive interest and the Commitment to Writing Module was revised and will soon be released. The modules developed for these program themes were provided to our chapters as a member benefit and sold to other organizations. In the future, we anticipate that they may be a valuable revenue source.

Development Council

Our newly formed Development Council has begun planning to support new initiatives that will be financed through the contributions of members and others. We appreciate the fine leadership provided by Edna Page Anderson on the Development Council.

Collaborative Alliances

We have continued collaborative alliances with other honor societies through the Association of College Honor Societies. Our society should be proud of the leadership provided by Dorothy Mitstifer who serves as Secretary-Treasurer and Manager of its national office.

The Coordinating Council of Home Economics Honor Societies sponsored the Graduate Study Showcase, undergraduate research presentations, and a joint luncheon at AHEA.

The Society promoted the development of the profession and communicated with members and potential through participation in the annual meetings of AHEA, ACCI, ADA, and NCAHE.

Membership

In 1992-93 academic year, over 2,200 students were initiated in the 120 chapters of the society. This brings the grand total to more than 100,000 persons initiated into the parent organizations of Kappa Omicron Phi, Omicron Nu, and Kappa Omicron Nu. We have a broad base of members to serve.

The Society must be proactive regarding the changes in higher education that have caused

universities and colleges to evaluate their programs and establish new priorities. These processes have resulted in reorganization in some units where KON chapters are housed. Many changes have been positive and resulted in new vitality for programs while others have created identity problems for chapters. We plan to work with chapters in helping them adapt to challenges presented by these thrusts in higher education.

In anticipation of changes within the profession and universities, the Board has explored several other membership options. After careful study of the issue, the Board adopted an individual membership option for approved institutions. This is being proposed to several units for their consideration.

Since the profession continues to function within an international environment, the Board examined possibilities of international memberships. At this time we encourage KON members to give Society memberships to qualifying international professionals.

To identify members' needs, perceptions, and preferences, the Board of Directors contracted with a research firm for a membership study. You will be hearing more about this as the results of the study are released and analyzed. We thank you for your cooperation in the survey that is intended to help the Society target program initiatives and member benefits to your needs.

Financial Status

Kappa Omicron Nu continues to maintain a strong financial status. This year thirty percent of budget was spent for fellowships, grants, scholarships, research, and awards and another twenty percent was used for member and chapter services and communications. The Executive Director and Board of Directors are working to maintain our financial integrity while maximizing the benefits achieved from use of our

financial resources. Considerable effort has been made to balance long- and short-term objectives and the Board has stated a commitment to increasing the reserves for the General Fund. The General Fund is used to carry on the general operations of the Society. Restricted Funds have been designated for particular programming thrusts such as fellowships, new initiatives, and research. This year the fund balances reflect greater expenditures associated with Conclave:

Liabilities and Fund Balances

General Fund	
9/30/92	9/30/93
\$73,000	\$50,682
Restricted Funds	
9/30/92	9/30/93
\$346,725	\$322,858

Diamonds

American inventor Thomas Edison stated that a "diamond is a piece of coal that stuck to the job." Kappa Omicron Nu Society needs to stick to the job of furthering excellence within the profession. I believe we are well on our way to becoming a diamond.

The study of board governance undertaken by the 1993 board of Directors will result in profound changes in the manner by which the Board fulfills its responsibilities. Members of the 1993 Board of Directors began a transition to a new way of conceptualizing Society governance. This initiative will assure a strong and secure future, help Kappa Omicron Nu develop to its fullest potential, and serve all the members of the Society. Additionally, this bold new direction will provide leadership to other organizations in our field.

We should be proud of the accomplishments of our Society. However, lest we become complacent, even after we have become diamonds, we will need to be shaped and polished to achieve maximum sparkle!

Editor's Comments

Dorothy I. Müstifer

This issue of *Home Economics FORUM* is replete with the theory and practice of collaboration. It is not new, but the rhetoric is much more extensive than action. No wonder! Collaboration is difficult work, but soooooo satisfying when it is successful.

The subtitle of Gray's book, *Collaborating: Finding Common Ground for Multiparty Problems (1989)* sets the tone for professional practice. All of our human environments, from local to global, reflect the difficulties of dealing with new problems that crop up daily. Before stating the case for collaboration, Gray examines other approaches: the ostrich, take sides, the hands off-let the experts decide, and the public hearing. Her thesis is that collaboration is the only process that helps all parties see beyond their own limited vision to explore their differences and search for solutions. The metaphor that she uses is the kaleidoscope. As different configurations appear, participants have the opportunity to build a common understanding and to choose a collective course of action.

The profession of home economics has used coalitions (collaborations) for public policy; children, youth, and

family issues; future direction; vocational education funding; among others. Indeed, history shows that collaboration was a founding tenet of our profession. The integrative nature of the profession is a collaborative philosophy. As much as any profession, we know the wisdom of effective use of resources. The collaborations described in this issue give us reason for optimism. But given the long list of problems that we care deeply about, we have only just begun.

Collaboration offers a process for inventing a better future by searching for the common ground and constructive solutions. As you read the enclosed papers, I challenge you to consider your role as a leader. Several things are expected of leaders: "a vision of what collaboration can accomplish, sensitivity and the ability to develop relationships with diverse stakeholders, and a sense of optimism and process literacy, that is, knowledge of the process tools, both human and organizational, for designing effective collaborations" (Gray, 1989, p. 279).

Ready your kaleidoscope. Let's get on with it!

Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Recommended Readings on Collaboration

If you would like to learn more about collaboration, the following publications are recommended:

1. *Community collaboration*. (n.d.) Washington, DC: National Assembly of National Voluntary Health and Social Welfare Organizations. (Available from U-M-I Out-of-Print Books on Demand, University Microfilms International, Ann Arbor, Michigan).
2. Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
3. Bresser, R. K., & Harl, J. E. (1986). Collective strategy: Vice or virtue? *Academy of Management Review*, 11(2), 408-427.
4. Davis, P. (ed). (1986). *Public-private partnerships: Improving urban life*. New York: Academy of Political Science.
5. Dluhy, J. M. (1990). *Building coalitions in human services*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
6. Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Marchfield, MA: Pitman.
7. Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
8. Gricar, B. G. (1981). Fostering collaboration among organizations. In Meltzer, H., & Nord, W. R. (eds). *Making organizations human and productive*. New York: Wiley.
9. Himmelman, A. (Nov., 1990). Community-based collaboration: Working together for a change." *Northwest Report*.
10. Hodgkinson, H. L., et. al. (1991). *Beyond the schools: How schools & communities must collaborate to solve the problems facing America's youth*. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators.
11. Kagan, S. L. (1991). *United we stand: Collaboration for child care and early education services*. New York: Teachers College Press.
12. Kagan, S. L., Rivera, A. M., & Parker, F. L. (1990). *Collaboration in practice: Reshaping services for young children and their families*. New Haven: The Bush Center for Child Development and Social Policy, Yale University.
13. Keith, J. (1993). *Building and maintaining community coalitions on behalf of children, youth and families, Research Report 529*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station.
14. Melville, A., & Blank, M. J. (1991). *What it takes: Structuring interagency partnerships to connect children and families with comprehensive services*. Washington, DC: Education and Human Services Consortium.
15. O'Callaghan, J. B. (1993). *School-based collaboration with families: Structuring family-school- agency partnerships that work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
16. Perlmutter, H. V., & Trist, E. (1986). Paradigms for Societal Transition. *Human Relations*, 39(1), 1-27.
17. *Quality Education for Minorities (QEM)*. (1993). Washington, DC: QEM Network.
18. Redford, R. (May-June, 1987). Search for common ground. *Harvard Business Review*, 107-112.
19. Schindler-Rainman, E. et. al. (1976). *The educational community: Building the climate for collaboration*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium.
20. Schrage, M. (1990). *Shared minds: The new technologies of collaboration*. New York: Random House

COLLABORATION: FINDING PATHWAYS FOR CHANGE

Gladys Gary Vaughn

This article presents collaboration as a means for advancing a shared vision and as a keystone of change. Because of its effective use of human and material resources, collaboration is a preferable alternative to traditional independent problem solving. The discussion of definition, dimensions, and rationale for collaboration is intended as preparation for leadership in using collaboration as a pathway for change. This article, too, is a call to action.

Amid promise and peril, we are reminded of the new reality: change is inevitable, constant, profound, and swift; for some, it may even be radical, dramatic, and revolutionary. To be sure, it is interconnected, global, transformative, and empowering. However, not all change results in social progress. But if we ascribe to the view that a primary indicator of social progress is the condition of a nation's families and communities, then our strategies for facing the new reality must be conceptualized in that light. The writer proposes that effective collaboration can be an instrument to direct change so that it becomes transformative and empowering. A further proposition is that the fundamentals for achieving social progress include conflict resolution, the discovery of shared values, an altering of organizations and institutions, and the development of new paradigms.

The foregoing assumes that society is undergoing transformative change; that such a metamorphose is desirable in both the short and long-term. It also assumes that collaboration is a keystone of change. If indeed collaboration fosters the combining and sharing of expertise and brings that collective expertise to bear on critical issues, then through collaboration (a) the search for common ground can be facilitated, (b) shared values can be identified, (c) innovative solutions to critical problems can be derived, and

(d) ways to manage interdependence can be found.

This view of collaboration is framed upon the following beliefs:

1. Collaborative effort which serves prevention and capacity building purposes results in environments through which individuals, families, and communities assume greater influence over their own destinies.

2. The sheer numbers of societal challenges (economical, educational, cultural), juxtaposed with their spiraling complexity, have created a new interdependence; these challenges can be more effectively addressed and resolved when organized groups act together.

3. Collaborative initiatives that *infuse education into solutions to critical societal issues*—health care, child abuse, disposal of environmental waste, racial tensions, illiteracy, etc.—are those most needed, most likely to eliminate inaction, and most likely to be effective.

4. A human ecological perspective demands that the interconnections between individuals and their environments frame our actions, whether research, education, service delivery, marketing, program design, advocacy, or policy formation.

All too often the goals and resources of individual organizations are planned and implemented without adequate awareness of the successes and failures of the efforts of others. However, as the need for education and service grows exponentially, our collective intent must be to collaborate with others to marshal existing resources to

improve the common good. James Renier, Chief Executive Officer of the Honeywell Corporation, puts forth this empowering thesis in a plain and simple message:

We have reached the point where trying to cure social problems is no longer affordable. We must prevent them before they occur. Prevention is the only strategy we can afford.... Prevention is the key to social solutions—and collaboration is the key to prevention (1993, p.17).

A continuing criticism of our professional practice has been that we have not been effective competitors in a world where competition governs individual and organizational behavior. Perhaps the philosophical underpinnings of the profession, and the subsequent nature of our training, renders us more effective collaborators than competitors. What may be a radical new approach to others should not be to us. Thus, we should be prepared to be active participants in the new reality that will subordinate competition to collaboration.

The intent of this paper is (a) to present a discussion of collaboration as a viable alternative to current modes of problem solving and (b) to suggest that the inheritors of a profession that grew out of earlier conceptualizations of collaborative processes should become leaders in this current movement. In brief, collaboration on a sufficient scale and at an efficient pace is needed to see us through to any desirable future (Trist, 1989).

Dr. Vaughn is Director of Development, American Home Economics Association Foundation, Alexandria, VA.

Definition: A Point of Departure

Collaboration is derived from the word collaborate, which comes from the Latin meaning, to labor together. Its use in the English language can be traced back at least to 1871. Of its three reported definitions, the first and third are germane to our purposes: "to work jointly with others or together especially in an intellectual endeavor," and "to cooperate with an agency or instrumentality with which one is not immediately connected" (Merriam-Webster, 1993). Embedded in these two meanings are the operative concepts: joint endeavor, connections, labor, and cooperation.

This refrain appears again in other definitions of collaboration:

1. "...is the process by which several agencies, organizations, or individuals make a formal commitment to work together on one or more identified problems or needs" (Community, n.d., p.v).

2. "...[is broadly defined] as an effort that unites and empowers individuals and organizations to accomplish collectively what they could not accomplish independently (Kagan and Rivera, 1991, p. 52).

3. "...is a mutually beneficial and well-defined relationship entered into by two or more organizations to achieve common goals. The relationship includes a commitment to: a definition of mutual relationships and goals; a jointly developed structure and shared responsibility; mutual authority and accountability for success; and sharing of resources and rewards" (Mattessich and Monsey, 1992, p.7).

4. "...a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible.... The objective...is to create a richer, more comprehensive appreciation of the problem among the stakeholders

than any one of them could construct alone" (Gray, 1989, p. 5).

5. "...an ecological approach to problem solving" (Keith, 1993, p.12).

Central to the foregoing is the notion of joint problem solving—working together toward a common end. Over time, many concepts have been proffered that embody this idea. Among those most frequently used are alliance, association, coalesce, coalition, collaboration, consortium, cooperate, confederation, league, networks, and partnerships. Some writers view collaboration as a dimension of these concepts, particularly partnership and coalition (see for example, Habana-Hafner, 1989; Schrage, 1990; and Keith, 1993). Others view collaboration as one of several stages (Swan & Morgan, 1993). Others suggest that collaboration is part of a continuum (see for example, Astroth, 1991).

Collaboration can be an effective tool of short-term pragmatism, as well as long-term visionary effort, for which the purpose and other dimensions are well defined and agreed upon by all partners. It can also be an effective tool in conflict resolution. Although noting that the opportunities for collaborating are many and varied, ranging from local disputes to problems of international dimensions, Gray (1989) classifies such opportunities into two categories: resolving conflict and advancing shared vision. This paper addresses the shared-vision dimension, particularly as it relates to human resource issues.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in collaborative initiatives that result in improved and sustained outcomes. This is true with regard to a wide range of socially, politically, and scientifically complex problems, including those that have an impact on children, families, and communities. As reported in recent literature, this *resurgence* appears to cut across all sectors—private, public,

government, business, religious, education, labor, etc. (Gray, 1989; Schuster, 1985). The growth in the numbers of such collaborative partnerships, the active participation of the partners, and the phenomenal growth in their impact are at once (a) testament to the potential of collaborations to deal with the growing challenges facing the nation and (b) increased recognition of the interconnections among organizations. Perhaps, too, such renewed interest and growth represents the evolutionary process at work. For sure it is an indication of shifting paradigms as scholars, practitioners, and policy makers struggle to fashion solutions to increasingly difficult problems.

Collaboration is an effective means for (a) linking several groups with shared concerns, and bringing to bear collective energy and resources on more and more identified problems or needs; (b) eliminating organizational dry rot (Gardner, n.d.); and (c) increasing the quality—and even the variety—of outcomes. The five-stage continuum (Figure 1) portrays collaboration as an emergent process that evolves from informal communication between individuals' and organizations' long-term commitment and the establishment of a new identity for a shared vision. The schema recognizes that collaboration occurs in varying degrees, that meaningful patterns exist at many levels, and may be voluntary, involuntary, formal, informal, direct, or indirect. All such efforts begin with communication.

Stage I - Communication. As depicted above, *communication* is characterized by casual and irregular contact between individuals—individual networking.

Stage II - Cooperation. *Cooperation* includes communication and increased attempts to establish connections with institutions sharing similar missions/goals as organizations

Figure 1. Working Together: A Suggested Continuum

<i>Informal</i>				<i>Formal</i>
				<i>Collaboration</i>
	<i>Cooperation</i>	<i>Coordination</i>	<i>Coalition</i>	
<i>Communication</i>				
Individuals are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Functioning independently ◆ Networking ◆ Sharing information ◆ Establishing contacts ◆ Making irregular contacts 	Individuals function on behalf of an organization by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Networking ◆ Making irregular contacts ◆ Identifying discussion areas of common concern ◆ Sharing facilities ◆ Working together on extant programs, services, policies 	Organizations function independently by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Complimentary constructive action on predetermined issues ◆ Creating specific communication channels ◆ Implementing planned effort 	Organizations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Plan Jointly ◆ Take action on a time-certain issue or agenda ◆ Share programs, policies, direction ◆ Share goals and strategies 	Organizations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Sustain commitment ◆ Set common goals ◆ Identify focused mission ◆ Share vision, risks, resources, control/leadership, accomplishments ◆ Develop new organizational identity/structure ◆ Conduct joint comprehensive planning ◆ Combine expertise from broad array of community sectors

become aware of each other's existence. Informal relationships have begun to gel around certain issues. Information-sharing occurs more frequently, most often on an "as needed" basis. Organizations function separately, connecting and disconnecting as each deems necessary. Although a shared vision has not begun to emerge, a basis for collaboration has begun to take hold through identification and discussion of areas of common concern.

Stage III - Coordination. At the *coordination* stage, the complementarity of each partner's mission and purpose comes into play, and a shared vision is in its embryonic stage. Cooperation is at a high level, usually, on a mutually agreed-upon goal or task. Structure begins to evolve as the role of facilitator/catalyst is established.

Stage IV - Coalition. As progress toward collaboration continues, a sense of shared interdependence develops as joint planning on a specific issue or an agenda of issues.

Consistency in action from organization to organization occurs as turf issues are less germane to deliberations. The shared vision is evident through shared goals and strategies.

Stage V - Collaboration. At this juncture, *collaboration* as process and structure exists with partners working together, in mutual trust, to achieve agreed-upon ends via agreed-upon means and shared resources. There exists an understanding of expectations by all involved partners. Collaboration may occur in several fronts and represent a broad range of possibilities, e.g., providers and users, rural/urban, problem-solving/promotion of ideas, etc. The new entity is vibrant, diligent, and frequently a leader in the socio-political context in which it operates. At this stage, the six dimensions described in Figures 3 & 4 have been mastered. (In this profession, we have termed the collaborative stage *integration*.)

Gray (1989, p. 21) lists twelve benefits of collaboration:

- ◆ Broad comprehensive analysis of the problem domain improves the quality of solutions.
- ◆ Response capability is more diversified.
- ◆ It is useful for reopening deadlocked negotiations.
- ◆ The risk of impasse is minimized.
- ◆ The process ensures that each stakeholder's interests are considered in any agreement.
- ◆ Parties retain ownership of the solution.
- ◆ Parties most familiar with the problem, not their agents, invent the solutions.
- ◆ Participation enhances acceptance of solution and willingness to implement it.
- ◆ The potential to discover novel, innovative solutions is enhanced.
- ◆ Relations between stakeholders improve.
- ◆ Costs associated with other methods are avoided.
- ◆ Mechanisms for coordinating future actions among the stakeholders can be established.

Based upon the above discussion, this writer posits that collaboration can lead to the improved outcomes shown in Figure 2. Perhaps the reader is conversant with the "it takes at least ten years to become an overnight success" theory that is popularly associated with the performing arts. In some respects a similar theory operates for collaboration. Months and even years of hard labor likely are required before a successful collaboration emerges. The obvious practicality of pooling expertise and resources across jurisdictional boundaries is generally not very evident, especially given the nation's proclivity for competition over collaboration. The object is better use of available resources to ensure improved outcomes.

Successful outcomes greatly depend upon the foundation that is established for the collaborative process. The next section discusses structural factors and dimensions.

Dimensions of Collaboration

Working together to achieve a shared vision suggests that resources can be maximized when critical systems collaborate to address separate, but complementary, societal needs. However, unless the foundation on which joint efforts are launched is firm, partners likely will find it difficult to cooperate and impossible to collaborate (Melaville and Blank, 1991).

Several works have reported characteristics of successful collaboration. For example, a monograph by Melaville and Blank (1991) identifies five factors of successful collaborative efforts: climate, processes, people, politics, and resources. Similar factors were reported by Mattessich and Monsey (1992) who, in an extensive review of research related to collaboration, identified six categories: environment, membership, process/structure, communications, purpose, and resources.

Keith (1993) collected information on 45 community-based coalitions in Michigan as a part of a state-wide study to determine the extent to which communities employed collaborative service delivery models to address the needs of children, youth, and families. The study revealed *common and unique elements* that mirrored those identified by others. Among the

seven *common* elements were leadership, unity, communication, participation by citizens and informal organizations, accomplishments, locality, and traits and characteristics of coalition members. The three *unique* elements were autonomy-funding relationship, use of local media, and community problem definition.

The National Assembly of National Voluntary Health and Social Welfare Organizations delineated the characteristics of collaboration as: legitimacy; established structure; a wide range of partners; mutually defined and accepted goals, objectives, action plans, procedures; established linkages; and plans for fiscal support.

The National Juvenile Justice Program Collaboration's manual on community collaborations for voluntary sector organizations depicts the development of collaborations as a three-phase process: (a) exploration and testing, (b) developing the collaborative framework, and (c) inventing the future (Community, n.d.). Each of these phases is defined by a series of developmental tasks and related activities that move the process from exploration to establishment of collaboration.

This writer proposes that collaboration is best understood when viewed through the six dimensions by which it is most affected: human, purpose, environment, process, communication, and resource (see Figure 3). Associated with each of these dimensions is a set of factors,

briefly described below, which collectively form the framework for collaboration.

1. **Human.** This is the people dimension, and central to it are seven factors: roles, participation, diversity, understanding, respect, trust, and leadership. Each partner or point of view in a collaborative venture is represented by one or more individuals. The commitment and skills of these individuals, in relation to the roles assigned each, foster development and success of the collaboration. The human dimension is perhaps the one aspect on which all other dimensions turn.

2. **Purpose.** The vision shared among the partners becomes the purpose of the collaboration. A solid foundation emerges from a vision that is jointly derived and clearly articulated. From the purpose, the goals, objectives, and anticipated outcomes are developed. It should be understood that for differing times and situations, the purpose or the perspective may vary.

3. **Environment.** This dimension refers to the geographic location and the political and social context within which a collaborative group exists (Mattessich and Monsey, 1993; Melaville and Blank, 1991). It refers to the climate in which the collaboration will occur—which can range from non-existent to challenging to supportive—as well as the timing for same. The climate is also the context within which collaborative strategies are determined. Opportunities for change must become evident for successful collaboration to arise.

Figure 2. Collaboration: Improved Outcomes

IMPROVED OUTCOMES				
◆ Accountability	◆ Advocacy	◆ Capacity building	◆ Resource acquisition and management	◆ Policy development
◆ Access to programs, services, policy-making	◆ Approaches to problems of families and communities	◆ Leadership	◆ Program planning, design, implementation, and administration	◆ Service delivery

Figure 3: Dimensions of Collaboration

DIMENSIONS OF COLLABORATION		
HUMAN	PURPOSE	ENVIRONMENT
Roles Participation Diversity Understanding Respect, Trust Leadership	Vision Goals Objectives Outcomes	Climate Context Geography
PROCESS	COMMUNICATION	RESOURCE
Structure, Governance Decision-Making Problem Solving Working Relationships	Frequency Accuracy Formal Informal Symbolism	Funding Personnel Networks Commitment Facilities

Developed from information reported in *What It Takes: Structuring Interagency Partnerships to Connect Children and Families with Comprehensive Services*, 1991. Washington, DC: Education and Human Services Consortium; and *Collaboration: What Makes it Work*, by Paul W. Mattieson and Barbara R. Monsey, 1992. St. Paul, MN: Amherst H. Wilde Foundation.

4. Process. This fourth aspect addresses the working relationships that emerge from the establishment of operating procedures. It includes decision making, administrative and managerial oversight, conflict resolution, levels of responsibility, structure, planning, evaluating, and the like. The process dimension is closely related to the communication dimension, and the degree to which the participants take ownership of its results is a major factor in determining success of the collaboration.

5. Communication. Effective collaboration depends on regular transmittal and exchange of information among the collaborating partners. Thus, diverse channels of communication, both formal and informal, are required if there is to develop a sense of progress toward collaboration.

6. Resources. This final dimension refers to the extent that there exists human, financial, and material resources adequate to

maintain and sustain the collaboration. There must exist, for example, a commitment on the part of each partner to carry the appropriate share of the burden, especially personnel/expertise, funds, facilities, and organizational access to relevant material and networks. This includes a willingness and commitment to search for and secure funding or to establish a funding mechanism that allows the collaboration to become self-sufficient. "The commitment of resources is the acid test of any joint effort's determination to make a difference and a prime factor in determining whether partnership goals are likely to be institutionalized, replicated, and expanded" (Melville & Blank, 1991, p. 32).

Each of the dimensions is inextricably intertwined with the other. In order for a joint effort to achieve collaborative identity, (see Figure 4) balanced attention must be given to each. Failure to attend to any one undermines the

collaboration: each is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for success.

Collaboration is a mutually beneficial and clearly defined relationship among two or more organizations to achieve certain shared goals. It is both an emergent process and a structure. Further, collaboration is characterized by:

- ◆ Commitment over time.
- ◆ Shared vision.
- ◆ Shared mission that is different from the mission of the separate member organizations.
- ◆ Jointly-developed organizational processes and structure.
- ◆ Frequent communication.
- ◆ Shared responsibility.
- ◆ Mutual authority and accountability for success.
- ◆ Shared resources.
- ◆ Members represented by individuals with relevant expertise.
- ◆ Heart and soul.

The beauty of collaboration for our professional community is its voluntary, interdependent, and shared vision aspects. These are the vital components from which a synergy emerges and collaboration builds and which ultimately lead to a sense of community. Just as there is beauty in collaboration, there are difficulties. Among the difficulties of collaborative effort is the fact that it is hard work. Because many organizations are involved in a shared mission and vision, conflict cannot be avoided. A *healing process* is often required in collaborations: a lack of shared vision, a lack of consensus on definition or scope, and a lack of mutual respect, trust, and understanding can derail a best effort.

Rationale

About what pressing and critical matters is there a need for more of us

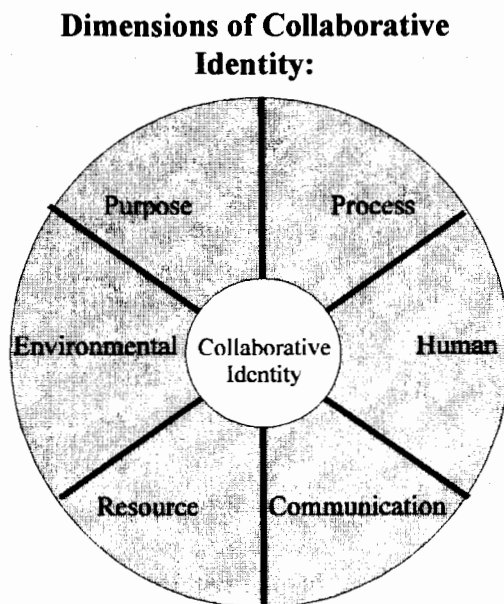
to work jointly on shared visions?
What matters? To be blunt:

- ◆ Health matters (AIDS, substance abuse, nutrition)
- ◆ Race matters (hate crimes, job discrimination, etc.)
- ◆ Population matters (demographic shifts, immigration, adolescent pregnancy)
- ◆ Environment matters (household waste, toxic waste, water quality/availability)
- ◆ Education matters (equal access, educational achievement or the lack thereof)
- ◆ Social justice matters (inequities in sentencing law/structure, gender, application of laws)
- ◆ Freedom matters (rights of individual vs. public good)

As can be quickly discerned, all of the foregoing have an impact, directly or tangentially, on the well-being of families and communities. Through collaborative effort, we can ensure that there is increased awareness among the citizenry of the plight of far too many of the nation's families and children. Further, we can help to direct public sentiment to action for effective solutions to the persistent and emerging problems that beset them and us. Also, we can use creatively the special combination of knowledge, skills, values, and commitment available to us through our own professional preparation, and through collaboration we can see to it that, through education, more of the nation's families have access to opportunities that empower.

Largely because its root word is power, empowerment is a concept that at once conveys weakness and strength—movement from a condition of disadvantage to one of advantage, even influence. This author takes the view that empowerment enables, making it possible for individuals and organizations to start the arduous trek toward fulfilling potential.

Figure 4: Building Collaborations



Empowerment fosters the development and effective use of human and organizational potential, and it frees the spirit. It helps to dispel feelings of isolation and to eliminate acts of desperation. In this context, collaboration fosters empowerment and builds the capacity of individuals and organizations. (For an excellent discourse on empowerment, see Volume 6, No. 2, *Home Economics FORUM*, 1993).

The condition of the nation's families and children needs to be one of the core issues on our domestic agenda, and home economists need to lead the collaborative efforts that will make this happen. Children count for the nation, as they are the parents of tomorrow, as well as the workers, investors, soldiers, and community leaders (*Kids Count Data Book*, 1993).

Perhaps *Beyond Rhetoric. A New American Agenda for Children and Families*, the final report of the National Commission on Children, Senator Jay Rockefeller IV (D-WV), the Chairman of the Commission, best summarizes the scope/depth of the issue:

American's enormous strengths and distressing weaknesses are nowhere more evident than in the lives of its children and families. Although many children grow up healthy and happy in strong, stable families, the problem is far too many do not. They are children who grow up without the material support and personal involvement of their mothers and fathers. They are children who are poor, whose families cannot adequately feed and clothe them and provide safe, secure homes. They are children who are victims of abuse and neglect at the hands of adults they love and trust, as well as those they do not even know. They are children who are born too early and too small, who face a lifetime of chronic illness and disability. They are children who lack hope for what their lives can become, who believe they have little to lose by dropping out of school, by having a baby as an unmarried teenager, by committing violent crimes, or by taking their own lives (1991, p. 17).

Enough said! But if you want further documentation of the urgent need, see *The Convention on the Rights of the Child* (UN, 1989) and the *Kids Count Data Book* (1992).

Conclusion

Persons in policy-making and leadership positions increasingly recognize this reality: no sector of our society is exempt from the growing iceberg of complex and interrelational issues that (a) are having a telling effect on all of us now and (b) will direct the conduct of our lives well into the future. There are many roles we can assume in the growing and challenging movement using collaborative effort

to improve the lives of children and families and to build better communities. We must continue our time-honored work of initiating and leading collaborative partnerships on issues about which we are committed and have the relevant expertise, and we must encourage others to join us.

We know it costs more to incarcerate than to educate, yet we spend more to build prisons than schools, more on pseudo-attempts to reform than genuine attempts to inform.

We know it costs more to adjudicate than to advocate, yet we spend far more on criminal justice than on effort to promote preschool education.

We know it costs more to subjugate than to sublimate, yet as a nation, we urge control over enlightenment.

And, we know it costs less to explicate than to expatiate, yet we heed not our own warnings.

Lizabeth Shorr, in her watershed treatise, "Within Our Reach" (1988), writes that although we know all we need to know about models, successes, cooperation, coalitions, and collaboration as a nation, we lack the political will to end the problems of poverty, disadvantage, and disenfranchisement.

What price will the future exact of us for the current condition of our children, families, and communities? Our children "are poorly equipped to reap the benefits or meet the responsibilities of parenthood, citizenship, and employment. The consequences of their problems and limitations reach far beyond their personal lives" (Beyond Rhetoric, 1991, p. xvi).

For the clear and present dangers before us, there is a compelling need for collective and shared action by our best minds. As professionals trained in a preventive, collaborative mode, we must assert that societal gains for children and families will likely be maximized if more of the systems serving their needs were to

collaborate. Let us aggressively approach research and program/service delivery through appropriate collaborative efforts which are complementary to and facilitated by an ecological perspective.

The nation has always pulled together in times of crisis. We need to recognize that our children and families are in a crisis state and pull together to solve the problems before us. In the final analysis, that's what collaboration is all about.

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Incorporating Collaborative Behaviors Into Home Economics Programs

Betty Arnold Woodell

This article calls for home economists to address complex problems through collaboration. By recognizing the values and benefits of collaboration, acquiring the necessary skills, and incorporating them into their practice, professionals can respond to the critical needs of society.

Home economists are continually challenged to address complex issues that affect individuals and families. Malnutrition, inadequate child care, homelessness, adolescent pregnancy, aging, and a myriad of other social concerns may seem like mountains to some professionals as they chip away separately with dreams of someday solving the problems.

Current demands for professional excellence include a mandate for a greater and more immediate responsiveness to the changing needs of society. Collaborative effort can make responsiveness more attainable (Hemmings, 1984). In addition, the complexity of social and technical problems has created an immense need to blend interdisciplinary knowledge (Lippit & Van Til, 1981). For example, Hart (1991) reported that the permanent eradication of hunger will require a collaborative effort by politicians, health care professionals, scientists, agriculturists, sociologists, educators, economists, and the citizenry. Increasingly important are interdisciplinary approaches that forge innovative responses to complex problems.

The profession has at its disposal an impressive array of individuals and resources that can be used in the development of collaborative links. Because of its interdisciplinary nature, collaboration as structure and process should be less difficult for home economics. But, inasmuch as it has become a profession of

specialists, we will need to make concerted efforts to rediscover the links among the specialty areas. The ability to form collaborative relationships then becomes an additional professional resource.

In addition to the collaborations among home economics specialties, novel and innovative collaborative efforts have included work with medicine, social welfare, and business/industry. For example, a joint effort between an extension service and a university school of medicine produced an important community-based research and educational program on the issues of stress, depression, and suicide prevention (Walker, 1988). Dietitians, nurses, wound specialists, ancillary personnel, and doctors worked together on treatment plans for patients and implemented care plans (Pifer, 1993). A team approach also was used by corporate leaders in public and private sectors in Virginia to successfully reverse many of the adverse consequences of early childbearing among adolescents (Kelly, 1988). Further, collaborative frameworks have been applied in home economics endeavors through a) a university working with business and industry in preparing students for the work place (Shanley & Kincade, 1991), b) a university cooperating with industry in a research partnership (De Long, LaBat, & Bye, 1991), and c) an extension service developing a program to support and promote home-based business (Burns & Biers, 1991).

Indeed, home economists are participating in collaborative efforts. However, almost any analysis of

current social problems concludes that much more involvement is needed.

The purpose of this article is to examine theoretical perspectives and strategies for incorporating collaborative activities into professional programs.

Theoretical Perspectives

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NREL, 1980, p. 23) cites Crandall's definition of collaboration:

[a] process of working together to solve problems and act on the solution under circumstances where all parties believe that a mutually agreeable solution is possible and that the quality of its implementation, as well as the level of satisfaction they will experience, will be improved by virtue of engaging in the process.

For successful collaboration, all participants must believe that it is advantageous. Collaboration does not just happen; it must be nurtured. Hickey (1986) found that collaborative processes need to develop and mature if they are to produce desired program outcomes.

Among the elements contributing to the success of collaboration are the following (as shown in figure 1):

Before any sense of unity can be developed, the group must be clear about its primary reason for existence (Terry, 1990). This **common purpose** is the basis from which the group's specific goals are established.

An exemplary collaborative effort, Project Home Safe, focuses on the

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common mission of addressing the problem of children in self-care. This unique partnership between home economists and the private sector was a six-year national initiative directed by the American Home Economics Association staff and guided by a ten-member advisory committee. The advisory committee included a U.S. senator, a business home economist, and home economics educators, researchers, and cooperative extension specialists. The participants in this award-winning program, which included thousands of volunteers at the local level, were committed to the task of improving the welfare of latchkey children and their families (Koblinsky, Vaughn, & Schrage, 1990). Indeed, Project Home Safe can serve as a model for collaborative efforts addressing complex social issues.

Individuals and organizations may be motivated by different, sometimes conflicting agendas and philosophies and may have different ideas for tactics needed to achieve the group's purpose. Thus, it is important during **negotiations** to take the time to consider all ideas so that there is shared responsibility for decisions (Ament, 1987).

The collaborative process must involve an organized effort with clearly defined plans for substantive action (Persavich, 1980). In addition, there should be careful sequencing of tasks and specific divisions of labor. Beder (1984) stated that the compatibility of organizational structures and cultures is a key factor in collaboration. Therefore, a **flexible organizational structure** will help participants adapt to one another and create an environment of openness and receptivity (Ament, 1987).

There should be a **common understanding** of what each participant is to do, including knowledge of constraints under which each is working (NREL, 1980). Furthermore, the clearly defined roles will facilitate coordination of activities.

Respect, moral support, trust, and commitment are **prerequisites to interdependent relationships**. But the key factors in achieving it are equity and dependability; members experience balanced outcomes in terms of reward for effort and depend on one another to fulfill commitments. This shared responsibility and authority for policy making will be achieved through sacrificing some autonomy and by making decisions by consensus (Roberts, 1980).

The group should determine its communication mechanisms and use them often. Although informal communication is important, it is also essential to maintain formal systems to promote decision making and exchange of information (Roberts, 1980). The goal of **clear communication** will be furthered by documentation of decisions and actions and distribution of written reports to each member (Burns & Biers, 1991).

Receptivity to new perspectives is a critical attribute of participants in collaborative efforts (Beder, 1984). An open structure can facilitate networking and can lead to additional resources, ideas for problem solving, and other collaborative opportunities.

Beder (1984) stated that there must be a balance in **giving and receiving resources** so that participants perceive value in the exchange. To achieve its goals the collaborative will surely need to make maximum use of all available resources and expertise.

Competent leadership for collaboration requires the ability to obtain resources—human, financial, and political. Also needed is a

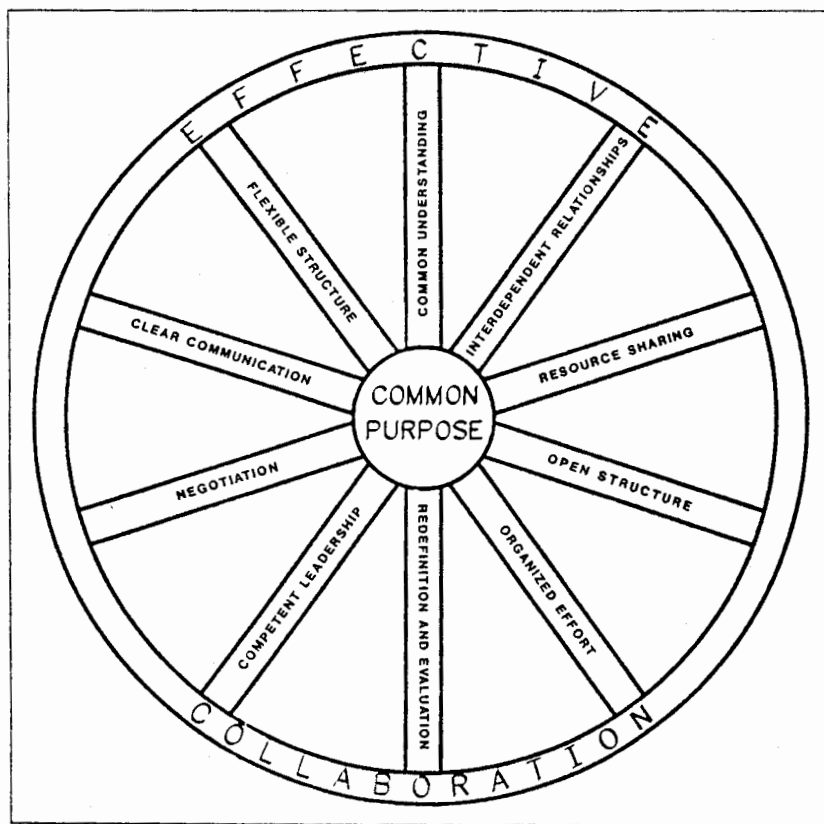


Figure 1. Effective Collaboration.

balanced focus on task and maintenance functions within the group.

The group should establish monitoring and evaluation procedures during the initial formation of the collaborative (Ament, 1987). A continuous process of **redefinition and evaluation** will help participants focus on the purpose of the group and will correct problems as they arise. This action will also provide information related to the accomplishment of goals. As the collaborative reaches its early goals, it will need to reevaluate future ones inasmuch as outside forces and changes influence direction (Burns & Biers, 1991). Redefinition and evaluation will ensure that decisions will be supported by as much objective evidence as possible.

Barriers to Collaboration

Despite common agreement by researchers on the real need for collaboration, most openly recognize the demands and complexities of the task (NREL, 1980). Obviously, if the elements of effective collaboration listed previously are not in place, there will be difficulties in establishing the collaborative effort. Problems such as poor communication, insufficient authority, lack of competent leadership, inability to focus on a specific project, and unwillingness to share in decision making are obstacles and frustrations for many collaborators.

For successful efforts, many established patterns of thought and behaviors must be changed or modified (Lippitt & Van Til, 1981). The American culture has fostered a sense of competition and independence for survival, growth, and success. This attitude is often a barrier to collaboration because maintaining one's advantage may require independence. In addition, a strong emphasis on independence for

youth in our society has fostered a spirit of "do your own thing," an attitude that may not promote collaborative behaviors.

It has been suggested also that the high autonomy needs of professionals interfere with effective collaboration and innovation. Individuals and groups may fight integration because it can mean a loss of autonomy and program visibility (Roberts, 1980). Further, the possibility of unfair competition poses threats to the collaborative process, as does distrust and suspicion of empire-building (Lippitt & Van Til, 1981).

Negotiation and compromise often take on a negative connotation in our society. This might be due to the value placed on independence and self-actualization (Lippitt & Van Til, 1981). Participants must take a positive approach to negotiation and compromise to work effectively in a collaborative.

As mentioned previously, a clearly defined plan is important to the success of a collaborative effort. Potential obstacles in developing a plan include a) the tendency to be too ambitious and promise more than can be delivered, b) the tendency to underestimate the time the task will take, and c) the lack of thorough planning (NREL, 1980).

Other pitfalls in collaborative efforts are related to the organizational structure of the group. A collaborative effort in which standard operating procedures dominate and customary rituals govern may be doomed to failure (Roberts, 1980). Thus, operating procedures should be designed to ensure equal power and participation. Dominance and coercion will suppress any working relationship, and mutiny probably will be the result.

"On another committee" often rings a negative bell for some professionals. This attitude can be a barrier to the idea that people can collaborate with others.

Implementation

Team building is an approach that is being used to form collaboratives in business, education, industry, and government. Lippitt & Van Til (1981) identified typical team-building steps:

1. Precondition. The initial step involves developing an idea of how a mutual goal can be achieved if two or more persons or organizations work together. That idea must be articulated and nurtured by an interested person or group.

2. Testing. To explore an idea's viability, Lippitt & Van Til (1981) posed the following questions:

a) Does the proposed collaboration threaten individuals or organizations? b) Does the proposal threaten individual or organizational autonomy? c) Do the participants agree on a common purpose and on terms of their mutual activity? d) Is the individual or organization already fully engaged in networking?

The answers to these questions may affect the viability of the proposed venture.

3. Initiation. Presentation of the idea to prospective participants includes an emphasis on problem solving. The initiator should carefully design and establish the setting and mood of exploratory discussions in order to establish a sense of trust. It is important at this point to demonstrate credibility of the problem-solving commitment and share thoughts that led to the development of the idea (Lippitt & Van Til, 1981). It also might be beneficial to show that collaboration will expand the amount of resources available to each potential participant.

4. Definition. Defining the venture requires an outline of strategy and tactics with clear explanation of member and team roles. The process is most effective when a clearly defined "collaborative team" is developed with team members that are respected by their colleagues

(Lippitt & Van Til, 1981). Lippitt and Van Til emphasized that the team must demonstrate that it can a) act independently of organization loyalties, b) demonstrate freedom from limits of special organizational advocacies, c) take third party positions in case of conflict, and d) initiate positive solutions to problems. It is to be hoped that, because of the team concept, participants will develop a loyalty to the collaborative effort strong enough to cope with any pressures.

5. Invigoration. As the collaborative develops, participants often change ideas and views. Sometimes these changes threaten the mission; hence, the team should renew its commitment to the established goals. Invigoration requires that participants use insight, patience, sensitivity, and perspective in keeping the process on track (Lippitt & Van Til, 1981).

6. Evaluation. It is necessary to continuously evaluate progress toward the group's goals, both formally and informally. Obviously, not all team efforts achieve desired goals; teams that are not effectual should be disbanded or reorganized. It is also important to realize that benefits other than those sought may be derived from the process. Finally, the results of the collaborative effort should be recorded and disseminated.

Conclusion

By reaching out with vision, open mind, and an attitude of sharing, home economists working collaboratively with others can expand the horizons of hope for individuals and families. Home economics professionals will be well served by recognizing the values and benefits of collaboration, acquiring the necessary skills, and incorporating them into their practice.

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Collaboration and Mentation: Complementary Forces Shaping the 21st Century

Michele Kay Merfeld

Of singular importance to this profession is the need to expand the definition of collaboration and then become more knowledgeable of the mental shifts needed at both individual and organizational levels for collaboration to occur. What it means, how it works, and how to create the necessary environments and educational efforts for collaboration to become commonplace are presented here as leadership opportunities for the profession.

It is imperative for us to realize that the paints of the palette that color a new paradigm are mixed in a collaborative pot (Schrage, 1990, p. 48).

Today, the profession of home economics, families, and communities are faced with problems of increasing complexity in a period when the global society is experiencing paradigm shifts of magnificent proportions and consequence. Due to the rate of change, the current transformation is more dramatic and extensive than any in history. The changes involve the entire globe, and several major transitions are coinciding (Capra, 1982).

Today's organizational and professional cultures require new ways of thinking, learning, and behaving if they are to remain viable in a society undergoing paradigm shifts. This means changing perceptions and values and, in short, viewing reality differently and working collaboratively rather than autonomously.

This paper offers two concepts to assist home economists interested in the benefits of collaboration and in how to go about the process of responding differently, both

individually and organizationally, so that collaborative efforts are successful ones. In the first section, the development of partnerships (including collaborations) is explored. This is followed by the introduction of an advanced model of mental preferences. Finally, these two concepts are combined for a new definition of collaboration that has implications for the profession.

Collaboration in the Context of Partnerships

It is proposed here that collaboration be understood within the context of partnership formation and that collaboration is just one kind of partnership—one type along a continuum of forms. Reed, Habana-Hafner, and Loughran at the University of Massachusetts-Amherst have studied partnership formation among organizations, groups, and agencies (Habana-Hafner, Reed, & Associates, 1989; Loughran, 1990, 1991; Reed & Loughran, 1988, 1989). Briefly, they have identified three types of partnerships—*networks, coordinations, and collaborations*. Although these researchers theorize that the partnerships exist on a continuum, they may not be so black and white in actual practice. Types differ based upon the interaction of members or organizations, the partnership's purposes and operations, and the resulting agreements. When viewed as points on a continuum, they differ in their complexity of purposes, intensity of linkages, and formality of agreements.

Networks

Networks are generally organizations (members) working together with quite loose linkages. The main purpose is to exchange information. Members can join or disconnect with relative ease, and the process and structure are very informal. Members or organizations give up almost none of their separate autonomy. An example of this partnership is a professional women's network which meets once a month for lunch for exchange of information and to hear a guest speaker.

Coordinations

Coordinations represent more closely linked connections between members or organizations. Their purposes usually involve tasks requiring resources beyond information sharing, and attention is given to who joins and what happens if a member leaves. The process and structure are more formal than a network, and each member has to agree to some loss of autonomy. Resource commitments involve some level of assets (broadly defined). Representative of this type of partnership is a Cooperative Extension program involving American Association of Retired Persons in co-sponsoring the Women's Financial Information Program. Along with community-based supporting organizations (coalitions), this

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partnership implements the program at the local level.

Collaborations

Collaborations are more strongly linked. The purpose is specific, often complex and long range. Adding or dropping members is a significant issue. In large, more complex collaborations, process and structure are almost always expressed in writing, oftentimes as legal documents. Each member organization delegates considerable autonomy, and the commitment of resources can be quite heavy, requiring careful study before each organization decides to participate. Many organizations even have policies regarding their participation in these more formal arrangements.

The research of Habana-Hafner et al. clearly delineates that every partnership (networking, coordinating, or collaborating) shares two primary goals: developing an identity and doing productive work. The concept of partnership formation is presented here for two reasons: first, because the word collaboration is used so loosely without a common meaning; and second, because collaboration as defined above requires a different way of thinking (perceiving reality) and new skills. If home economists are going to be engaged in collaborative efforts (which the author believes is necessary), different skills need to be mastered.

Mental Diversity

Contained within any successful partnership, which removes people from traditional modes of working and thinking, are people who have learned to value and work with mental differences. As home economists, we know that value formation begins within families. So the concept of valuing diversity should not be new to the profession. What we have lacked are good tools

for teaching and learning about mental diversity.

Fortunately, Herrmann (1989) developed the whole brain theory, an assessment instrument, and models which explain the value and means of making mental shifts (perceiving differently). Through the application of *whole brain technology*, persons can learn to understand why they think and learn the way they do and how such thinking preferences influence behavior, affect how thinking and learning differences in others are valued, and increase competency for guiding collaborative efforts in which mental preferences will undoubtedly reveal themselves. Additionally, such insight, self-awareness, and skill greatly influence one's own desire and ability to achieve personal paradigm shifts.

Ned Herrmann (1989), father of corporate creativity and whole brain learning technologist, began searching for the source of creativity during his 35-year tenure at General Electric as a physicist and manager of management education. His search led him to the pioneering work of Nobel prize winner Roger Sperry and to the brain and neurophysiological research findings of Paul McClean, Betty Edwards, Robert Ornstein, and others. What he discovered was a more advanced understanding of the brain which made the left brain/right brain theory obsolete. Based upon years of physiological data, Herrmann (1989) advanced a four quadrant model (metaphor of how the brain works) which revealed four distinct modes of knowing.

Because teaching people via the laboratory was becoming cost-prohibitive, Herrmann developed and validated a short paper and pencil survey called The Herrmann Brain Dominance Instrument (HBDI). This instrument has met stringent research reliability and validity testing for the past fifteen years by the WICAT Testing

Service, more than 75 doctoral dissertations, numerous research articles, and a database that now consists of over one million people. The HBDI accurately diagnoses which thinking mode is the most dominant, active, or preferred for a given individual and group.

Figure 1 depicts Herrmann's (1989) Whole Brain Model. *Quadrant A* (upper left) dominance prefers the analytical, logical, fact-based, and quantitative modes of knowing; *Quadrant B* (lower left) dominance prefers planned, organized, detailed, and sequential modes of knowing; *Quadrant C* (lower right) dominance prefers emotional, feeling-based, interpersonal, and kinesthetic modes of knowing; and *Quadrant D* (upper right) dominance prefers holistic, intuitive, synthesizing, and integrating modes of knowing.

Approximately forty percent of the population prefers two quadrants (double dominance), thirty percent prefers three quadrants (triple dominance) and approximately 20 percent prefers just one quadrant (single dominance). The research also indicates increasing evidence of a connection between preferences and gender.

Mentation and Collaboration

By synthesizing the two concepts—collaboration as a form of partnership formation requiring different mental skills and mental preferences that can be measured and identified—it is clear that the two are complementary. From this perspective, each person can be described as a collaboration. Due to the structure of the brain, the hemispheres (left, right, cerebral, and limbic—see Figure 1) are interconnected physiologically. The resulting interaction creates seven substantiated characteristics of the brain: unique, specialized, situational, interconnected, iterative, dominant, and malleable. The degree

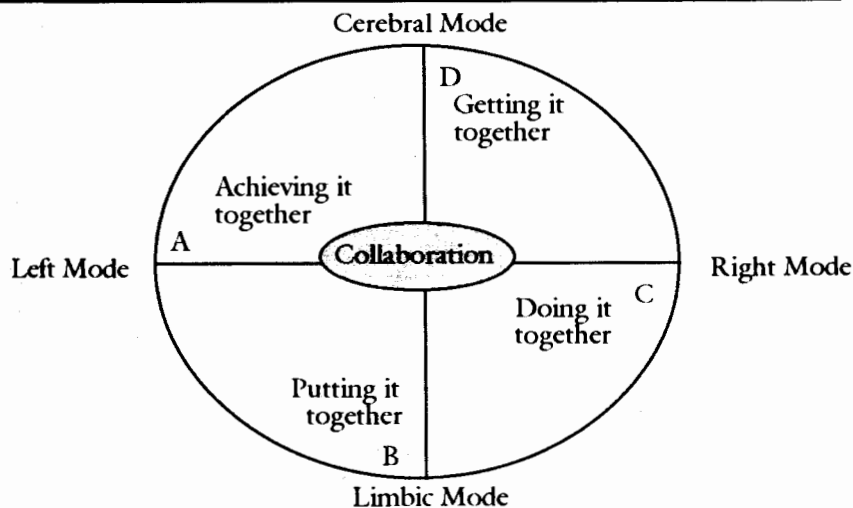


Figure 1. Whole Brain Model. Adapted from Herrmann (1989).

to which a person is capable of iterating between hemispheres, for example, varies from individual to individual and differs, on average, between men and women. In addition, the degree to which a group is able to collaborate and engage in the necessary mental diversity required of collaborations varies with the preferences existing within a group and the abilities to value and work with mental diversity.

The concepts of mentation and collaboration also help us understand the subtle differences that exist between thinking modes. Figure 1 references the four-quadrant interpretation of the meaning of collaboration.

A Quadrant (upper left) dominant persons think of collaboration as **achieving it together**. Their primary understanding of and purpose for collaboration has to do with achievement. They would define a successful collaboration as one which achieved something. And they are not as concerned with how it is achieved, or whom it involves, or why it is important. They want to know: **What** did the collaboration achieve/accomplish? Was it recognition, an award, advancement of knowledge?

B Quadrant (lower left) dominant persons think of collaboration as

putting it together. Their primary understanding of and purpose for collaboration deals with form. Given their preference for structure, order, control, and detail, they are most interested in the how of collaboration. They would define a successful collaboration as one which produced results. And they are not as concerned with what it achieved, who it involved, or why it was important. They want to know: **How** were the results produced? Was it the order, or the sequential step-by-step process used or not used, or the tactical procedures? In other words, how did the form (structure) contribute to producing or not producing the results? And they are always evaluating.

C Quadrant (lower right) dominant persons think of collaboration as **doing it together**. Their interpersonal and feeling-based preferences cause them to view collaboration as the opportunity to enhance interpersonal interaction and harmony. They would define a successful collaboration as one which involved people. And they are not as concerned with what it achieved, how it produced results, or why it was important. They want to know: **Who** was involved to help make the effort successful, and did the collaboration make individual input

and interaction possible? Were feelings considered? Was harmony created?

D Quadrant (upper right) dominant persons think of collaboration as **getting it together**. Their preferences for holistic, big picture thinking, integration, and synthesizing cause them to view collaboration as the opportunity to bring all the pieces together. They would define a successful collaboration as one which created synergy or explored all the hidden possibilities and ideas. And they are not as concerned with what it achieved, how it produced results, or who was involved on an interpersonal level. They want to know: **Why** are we collaborating? As a collaboration, are we making sure that all alternatives, possibilities, and interrelationships are explored? And, was it a creative process?

As you read each of these quadrant descriptions, you may have identified already your own preference(s) and how you work in groups. Or you have identified an individual fitting one of the descriptions that always seems to be at odds with your thinking.

Herrmann argued that the most effective collaborations are whole brain efforts—those in which all four preferences are utilized. And the above descriptions lend credence as to why. All four thinking preferences are crucial to the collaborative process described by Habana-Hafner, Reed, & Associates (1990). They hold that collaborative efforts need to be concerned with what, how, who, and why. And even though the differences are at times very subtle, they can make or break a collaboration if ignored.

1+1=3: Synergistic Collaborations

Before valuing of mental differences can occur within a group, self-awareness of brain dominance and one's own thinking and learning

preferences must occur. This is critical—one cannot successfully value the mental diversity within a group if one's own preference is not valued first. From there, persons need to value those preferences represented by others that are different from their own: to learn how all thinking and learning styles are necessary and critical for the most effective problem solving, communication, and decision making to occur; and to become competent (make paradigm shifts) in those preferences not currently dominant.

When these changes occur on an individual level and then these persons participate in a collaboration, the process that emerges is a synergistic one. Missouri Cooperative Extension staff members, who have had specialized training in this model, have been astounded at how differently they work together and at the creativity and synergy that spring forth. They learned that the whole is indeed greater than the sum of the individual parts. What are the discernible effects of greater acceptance of diversity?

1. Left mode (*A and B Quadrants*) dominant persons become less likely to ignore, ridicule, control, and/or patronize persons with *C and D Quadrant* preferences:

2. Right mode (*C and D Quadrants*) dominant persons become able to contribute much needed thinking, insight, and perceptions to the process;

3. Persons become more competent and comfortable working in and with all four quadrants;

4. Valuing the differences each quadrant (individual) brings to the collaborative effort creates a whole brain approach leading to a more effective and enjoyable process and to more significant results; and

5. Mental shifts occur, leading to collective change within the organization and community.

Proposed Meaning of Collaboration

The process of working effectively within a collaboration (as defined by Habana-Hafner, Reed, & Associates, 1990) has been elaborated. But it is important to apply these concepts to a higher level of meaning—a meaning which is also based on how the brain works physiologically.

Schrage (1990) defined collaboration as "the creation of shared meaning." When thinking about most meetings or interactions called collaborative, one is apt to find that the effort is a coordination of individual actions rather than a shared awareness that did not exist before. Group awareness of what its individual participants are doing or the carrying out of agreed-upon individual tasks (Schrage, 1990) are representative of a network or coordination (Habana-Hafner, Reed, & Associates, 1990). A collaboration involves a process of value creation that traditional structures of communication, teamwork, or cooperation cannot achieve. It is a dialectical process of shared creation—two or more persons with complementary skills, representing the four thinking preferences, interact to create a shared understanding that none had previously possessed or could have come to on their own. It could be concluded, then, that a collaboration is collective creativity (Schrage, 1990).

Conclusion

The profession has an opportunity to use partnership formation and paradigm shifts at the individual and organizational levels to develop collaboration. It will be necessary to understand what it means, how it works, and how to create the necessary environments and educational efforts for mental shifts and collaboration to occur.

Make no mistake, collaboration is complex; but the skills needed are complementary. The proper mind-set and values about mental diversity and the collaborative process of creating shared meaning can be developed. Physiologically, the potential already exists within each of us. We home economists can create environments that nurture the process of valuing mental diversity within ourselves and others and can teach the process of working collaboratively. Further, we can establish environments such that a different quality of interaction takes place—where persons can play collectively with ideas and information and where they spend as much time understanding what they are doing as actually doing it.

Given the complexity of individual and family issues, home economists would do well to acquire new paradigms of collaboration. The concepts presented here can provide leadership for that purpose.

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Integrating Research and Outreach: Developmental Contextualism and the Human Ecological Perspective

Julia R. Miller and Richard M. Lerner

Discussions of the nature and utilization of knowledge have often involved the integration of theories and methods from multiple disciplines; such integration has been a continuing focus within home economics/human ecology. The authors present the developmental contextual perspective of human development and discuss its implications for collaborative research and outreach activities aimed at increasing understanding of and service to diverse children and their families. They also describe how this approach to multidisciplinary and multiprofessional collaboration provides the framework for the attempts of a unit within one institution—the Institute for Children, Youth, and Families of Michigan State University—to integrate science and outreach for children and families and suggest how such institutional commitments play a significant role in helping society address contemporary problems confronting America's children, youth, and families.

The attention to the integration of knowledge within instruction, research, and outreach is not a new phenomenon. Historically, integration in general education disciplines can be traced to Plato (Klein, 1990). This idea reached an important stage in America in the work of John Dewey (1896), a strong advocate for both integration and application of knowledge (Schiamberg, 1988). And, from the field of home economics, Ellen Swallow Richards, the nineteenth century woman who founded *ecology*, proposed the name *Home Oekology* as a new field to express the reciprocal influence of humans and their environments (Kilsdonk, 1983). Given its origins as a multidisciplinary field of inquiry, home economics built its body of knowledge upon a foundation of integrative thinking in order to address critical issues related to a conjoint study of individuals and families.

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The relevance of this orientation for contemporary issues facing the American university is striking. Recently, with an impetus from public and private funding agencies, there has been a concerted attempt to foster a cultural change in the role of institutions of higher learning in relation to the critical issues facing society (Boyer, 1990; Lynton & Elman, 1987). These issues include persistent and pervasive poverty, economic development, health, environmental quality, and others confronting children and families. Universities have been challenged to view their scholarship from a perspective that is problem-focused rather than disciplinary-based (Boyer, 1990; Lynton & Elman, 1987). The above-noted problems facing the nation are not ones having bases or solutions that fall neatly into disciplinary categories (Schiamberg, 1985, 1988). Therefore, the challenge for American universities is to bring integrative scholarship to bear on these problems (Brown, 1987).

This focus would lead universities to work more closely with the communities wherein these problems reside. It is the creation of such integrative scholarship that, today, is perhaps the core intellectual issue facing the American university system (Lynton & Elman, 1987). This issue involves revitalization and

recommitment to the integration and unity of knowledge, including knowledge generation, transmission, and utilization (Boyer, 1990).

This article presents an integrative research and outreach model, one within a historical perspective of synthetic thinking in general education and in home economics/human ecology. In addition, the model includes empirical and theoretical bases that lie in a developmental contextual, human ecological perspective. Thus, the model presents a means for land-grant, public, and private universities to meet the dual challenges of optimizing their capacities to address critical needs of children, youth, and families and of addressing public policy issues. This involves collaborative effort: through multi-disciplines, -professionals, -resources, and -community institutions.

Growth of Integration and Interdisciplinarity

Historically, theories stressing the importance of integrated knowledge can be traced to philosophical ideas of Plato, Aristotle, Rabelais, Kant, and Hegel, and in the United States to the works of scholars such as John Dewey, Stephen Pepper, Heinz Werner, and Klaus Riegel. These scholars were advocates of a unified

science and/or general knowledge; they promoted a synthesis or an integration of knowledge. Over time, the concepts of specialization and unity of knowledge were debated and practiced. The idea of unity was also prevalent in the work of Renaissance Humanists and sixteenth-nineteenth century writers, including Bacon, Descartes, Kant, Hegel, and Comte (Klein, 1990; Schiamberg, 1988).

In the modern university milieu, the concept of interdisciplinarity is an outgrowth of the educational ideals that promoted the integration of knowledge. According to Klein (1990), this evolution was shaped by the following:

1. Attempts to retain and, in many cases, reestablish historical ideas of unity and synthesis—ideas lost through the emergence of disciplinary-based scholarship (Boyer, 1990).
2. The emergence of organized (and often externally funded) programs in research and education involving such interdisciplinarity.
3. A broadening of traditional disciplines to include areas of scholarship that crossed existing boundaries (e.g., biochemistry), and
4. The emergence of identifiable interdisciplinary movements.

These interdisciplinary movements occurred in general education, social science, natural science, area studies, and in the works of proponents of Herbartian correlation theories (e.g., applying philosophical and psychological ideologies to instructional methods). In addition, there were three other theories that had an impact on inquiry about the unity of knowledge, namely: Marxism, structuralism, and general systems theory (Klein, 1990).

Furthermore, there were numerous issues related to the nature and use of interdisciplinary activities. For instance, Easton (1990) argued that the growth of knowledge over two thousand years left contemporary scholarship with a host of intractable problems, one of which is the

structure of and relationships among disciplines. Further, Easton stated that disciplines do not live in isolation; they are constantly influenced by the perspectives and methods of related disciplines. This influence occurs so frequently that boundaries between disciplines become blurred. Notwithstanding this belief among some, debate has not ended and it seems that proponents of interdisciplinarity must still advocate for their position. In this context, some of the demands for interdisciplinarity were set forth by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). According to Klein (1990), these demands included:

1. The development of science - The result of two movements:
a) increasing specializations leading to the intersection of two disciplines, splitting up of an over-rigid discipline, or setting off into new fields of knowledge and b) the result of attempts to define elements common to disciplines;
2. Student demand - The result of direct student pressure or faculty anticipation, most of the time as a protest against parcelization and artificial subdivisions of reality;
3. Problems of university operation or administration - The result of a) increasingly elaborate equipment in research centers, b) the need for budget management especially in regard to government contracts; or c) the advent of a major technology change such as computers;
4. Vocational and professional training requirements - Educational needs based on student demand and, in some cases, on training contracts, thereby linked with the fifth demand; and
5. The original social demand - Particular needs and new subjects which cannot by definition be contained within a single disciplinary frame, such as environmental research.

Integration in Human Ecology

Generally, the concept of ecology emerged in the sciences during the 19th century (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). Early bases of the ecological paradigm in the field of home economics can be identified with the early works of Ellen Swallow Richards and in the proceedings from the Fourth Lake Placid Conference. For instance, Richards' efforts were focused toward examining the reciprocal relationships between the home and its environment (Wright & Herrin, 1988).

From its inception, professionals in home economics/human ecology were committed to the integration of knowledge from diverse disciplines to address quality of life issues. Indeed, this integrated multidisciplinary perspective has been critical to the evolution of the body of knowledge in this field (Ray, 1988). Moreover, Sontag and Bubolz (1991) recently noted that integration (of the concepts, theories, education, and practice in several specializations within home economics) has surfaced as a critical need in resolution of practical problems of families. This need can be addressed because the field integrates conceptual frameworks, theoretical formulations, and methodologies used in different specializations and disciplines into new, distinct, and synthetic paradigms. Further, Sontag and Bubolz (1991) stated:

At its present state of evolution, knowledge in human ecology is rooted in a multidisciplinary base coupled with systems ecology, philosophy, and methodology (p. II-47).

Today, perhaps more than ever before, home economics/human ecology is challenged to strengthen its integrative orientation to the complex problems facing individuals

and families. The scholarly and societal issues involving America's children and families are indisputably complex. Arguably, for their resolution they require collaboration among those professionals that conduct science and those that design, deliver, and evaluate service.

According to Colarulli and McDaniel (1990), faculty collaboration is an effective mechanism to facilitate disciplinary integration. Further, they stated that these collaborations will serve these purposes:

1. Engaging participants in a shared set of activities designed to achieve mutual goals;
2. Strengthening and developing modes of thinking rarely developed in traditional educational systems, i.e., in systems that present a single authority functioning in a vertical, logical, and linear mode of thinking;
3. Strengthening lateral thinking, the identification of different frames of reference and alternative ways of looking at the same knowledge, issue, or problem;
4. Developing a willingness to listen to different voices as participants compare, select, and synthesize information;
5. Fostering tolerance, respect, attention, and a willingness to engage in dialogue and discussion; and
6. Locating knowledge within a cadre of colleagues rather than individuals.

Moreover, such faculty collaboration can be used as a mechanism to address pressing social needs when such disciplinary integration is effectively coupled with appropriate professional activities. Such collaborations require an intellectual rationale, ideally one that demonstrates empirically that it is feasible and productive to integrate professional and scientific issues about children and families. In addition, a theoretical model is required to

clarify and extend empirical efforts of research and outreach.

It is our view that the empirical and theoretical bases exist for such multidisciplinary collaboration for research and outreach for children and families. These bases lie in the developmental contextual view of human development (Lerner, 1986, 1991) that has arisen in land-grant colleges of home economics (and their evolutionary heirs, such as contemporary colleges of human ecology or of human development). These bases also exist in the research about relations between developing people and their changing ecological settings that has been associated with developmental contextualism. Finally, these bases lie in the ongoing activities of research and outreach devoted to extending the home economics/human ecology developmental contextual vision in order to address today's problems of science and service regarding children, youth, and families. It is useful to discuss, then, the relation among developmental contextualism, research, and outreach.

Developmental Contextualism and Research and Outreach for Diverse Children and Their Contexts

Over the last two decades the study of children and their families has evolved in at least three significant directions. These trends involve changes in the conceptualization of the nature of the person, the emergence of a life-span perspective about human development, and a stress on the contexts of development. These trends were products and producers of a superordinate theoretical perspective, one termed *developmental contextualism* (Lerner, 1986, 1991; Lerner & Kauffman, 1985). This perspective has promoted a rationale for a synthesis of research and outreach (i.e., for the extension, application, or utilization of research

in the community), a synthesis focused on the diversity of children and on the contexts within which they develop.

Developmental contextualism stresses that reciprocal relations, or dynamic interactions, exist among variables from multiple levels of organization (e.g., biology, psychology, social groups, and culture) (Lerner & Spanier, 1978). These dynamic relations structure human behavior. In addition, this system of integrated, or *fused*, levels of organization is itself embedded in, and dynamically interactive with, history (Tobach, 1981; Tobach & Greenberg, 1984); a changing configuration of interrelations among multiple levels of organization constitutes the basis of human life, of behavior and development (Ford & Lerner, 1992).

Through study of the contexts within which people live, behavioral and social scientists have shown increasing appreciation of the diversity of patterns of individual and family development that comprise the range of human structural and functional characteristics. Such diversity involves racial, ethnic, gender, physical handicaps, national and cultural variation, and economic status, many of which are involved in the conditions pertinent to persistent and pervasive poverty (Schorr & Schorr, 1988). To the detriment of the knowledge base in human development, diversity has not been a prime concern of empirical analysis (Hagen, Paul, Gibb, & Wolters, 1990).

Yet, there are several reasons why this diversity must become a key focus of concern in the study of human development (Lerner, 1991, 1992). First, diversity of people and their settings means that one cannot assume that general rules of development either exist for, or apply in the same way to, all children and families (Burton, 1990). This is not to say that general features of human

development do not exist, or that descriptive research documenting such characteristics is not an important component of past, present, and future scholarship. However, the lawful individuality of human behavior and development means that one should not make *a priori* assumptions that characteristics identified in one or even in several samples exist or function in the same way in another group. Although common characteristics can be identified in diverse groups, one cannot be certain that unique attributes lack importance even if they account for only a little variance.

Accordingly, a new research agenda is necessary. This agenda should focus on diversity and context while at the same time attending to general and specific facets of individual development, of family changes, and of the mutual influences between the two. Simply, integrated multidisciplinary and developmental research devoted to the study of diversity and context must be moved to the fore of scholarly concern.

This integrative research must be synthesized with two other foci: a) with policies and programs; and b) with collaborations among disciplines and between scholarly and community interests. In regard to diversity, it has been noted that research in human development, concerned with one or even a few instances of individual and contextual diversity, cannot be assumed to be useful for understanding the life course of all people. Similarly, policies and programs derived from research insensitive to diversity and context cannot hope to be applicable, or equally appropriate and useful, in all settings or for all individuals. Accordingly, policy development and program intervention, design, and delivery, must be integrated with the new research base.

A developmental, individual differences, and contextual view of research, policy, and programs for human development has just been described. To be successful, these endeavors require not only collaboration across disciplines, but across professions and with community stakeholders.

Multiprofessional collaboration is essential. Colleagues in the research, policy, and intervention communities must conduct their activities in a synthesized manner in order to successfully develop and extend this vision. All components of this collaboration must be understood as equally valuable, indeed, as equally essential. The collaborative activities of colleagues in university extension and outreach; in service design and delivery; in elementary, middle (or junior high), and high schools; in policy development and analysis; and in academic research are vital to the success of this new agenda for science and service for children, youth, parents, and their contexts (families, schools, and communities).

Moreover, given the contextual embeddedness of these synthetic research and service activities, collaboration must occur with the people who must be understood and served. Without their perspective of the community and its sense of ownership and of assigned value and meaning, research and service activities cannot be adequately integrated into their lives. Similarly, without such community participation, scholars, scientists, and practitioners are limited in their ability to understand and treat issues of diversity.

On the Societal Importance of the Human Ecological Perspective

To many, this agenda for research and outreach focused on diversity and context may seem no more than a recapitulation of the philosophy underlying the land-grant university system in the United States. In truth,

it is just that. As noted earlier in this article, developmental contextualism as a view of human development grew out of the scholarly model found in land-grant colleges of home economics/human ecology. It may be that, more than ever before, integrative, multidisciplinary scholarship should be relied upon to lead not only this field but also the American university system into an era of new and needed contributions to society.

Today, the historically unprecedented rate of risks—poverty; school failure, under achievement, and dropout; unsafe sex; teenage pregnancy and teenage parenting; drug and alcohol use and abuse; and delinquency, crime, and violence—affecting the children of our nation demand innovation in addressing societal problems. Indeed, given that 50 percent of the youth of our nation are involved in two or more of the above-noted risk categories (Dryfoos, 1990), the very fabric of American society is challenged. We are all at risk!

Perhaps it is time then to restructure our scholarly agendas, our universities (and their systems of faculty evaluation and reward), and our communities by using a reinvigorated multidisciplinary vision of the integration of science and outreach focused on diversity and context. Indeed, such a new view of the structure and role of the American university should be applied not only to institutions of higher education having the land-grant status, but also to all public and private institutions in our nation.

The Institute for Children, Youth, and Families

Although there has been progress in expanding interdisciplinary problem solving, institutional obstacles continue to exist. Organizational structures within universities which are strongly

supportive of individual disciplines have often left interdisciplinarity "a hostage to the disciplines."

Nevertheless, some universities have cultivated an interdisciplinary culture that lends itself to integrative problem solving (Klein, 1990).

American universities may serve themselves and society if they bring science and outreach together to further understanding of and service to children and their families through the use of a developmental contextual, human ecological perspective.

One example of a unit and institution committing itself to this mission through the blurring of disciplinary boundaries and strengthening of linkages external to the university is the Institute for Children, Youth, and Families (ICYF) at Michigan State University. The ICYF was created to foster these integrations among current Michigan State University faculty and youth- and family-serving professionals and within the next generation of these scientific and service groups. Accordingly, the ICYF is a transcollege, multidisciplinary, and multiprofessional unit whose mission is to integrate research, policy engagement, and programs designed to further understanding of and outreach to children, youth, and families.

The Institute's Director provides leadership for this unit, and it is governed by an Executive Board of Deans. The Dean of Human Ecology serves as the lead dean and chairs the Board. Underscoring its university-wide role, other collaborating units involved in the Institute include Urban Affairs Programs; the Office of University Outreach; the Office of Research and Graduate Studies; and the Colleges of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Communication Arts and Sciences, Education, Human Medicine, Nursing, Osteopathic Medicine, and Social Science.

This structure established a vehicle to address some of the barriers and issues which surfaced in a study conducted at Carnegie Mellon University. It was found that the critical factors were recognition of the tenure and promotion process including the treatment of co-authored publications, availability of funding and space, mindsets of the discipline, and single discipline orientation of most departments. Other issues included leadership and encouragement of administrators, rewards and incentives, and graduate programs (Laughlin & Sigerstan, 1990). These issues were identified as potential barriers and issues for the ICYF. Policies, procedures, and programming strategies were developed, or are in the process of development, to ensure success.

Programs in the Institute represent the commitment to the developmental contextual concept that the basic process of human development involves changing relations between individually distinct persons and the specific settings within which they live. These settings involve the family, school, peer group, community, society, and culture, as well as the natural and designed physical environment. Accordingly, multivariate-longitudinal methodologies that have come to the fore over the past two decades (Baltes, Reese, & Nesselroade, 1977; von Eye, 1990 a,b,c) are being used to study changing relations between specific people and the real-world settings within which they live in order to understand how development actually happens.

Moreover, the ICYF seeks to make such diversity-sensitive research the basis for policies and programs that will meet the needs of specific children in their family and community settings. Within this developmental contextual approach to research and outreach, policies and programs constitute theoretically-derived interventions to

optimize the lives of individuals and families. The evaluation of such policies and programs provides information about the theoretical ideas of person/context relations from which such interventions are derived.

Accordingly, the design, implementation, and evaluation of the integrated research and outreach activities are conducted in collaboration with the community within which these activities are undertaken. In this way, the ecological validity of these activities may be enhanced; the community's feelings of ownership, capacity, and empowerment are increased; and there is a greater likelihood that the results of this community-based scholarship and outreach will be translated into community-specific policies and continuing programs.

Applications to Community Social Issues: Some Examples

It may be useful to illustrate the sorts of activities ICYF undertakes in order to collaboratively integrate scholarship and outreach in addressing community-specific social issues. A first example relates to an effort led by Marvin H. McKinney (McKinney, Abrams, Terry, & Lerner, in press) and supported by the C. S. Mott Foundation. This effort involves the development of new knowledge, i.e., outreach research about issues of health and human development pertinent to low-income areas within the city of Flint, Michigan.

Faced with the highest rate of increase in child poverty of any major urban area of our nation in the 1980s, (i.e., in excess of 80%), a teenage birth rate that increased by about 30 percent over this period, and more than one-fifth of its children living in single-parent families (Michigan Kids Count 1992 Data Book, 1992), members of the Flint community have initiated a partnership with the Institute in

order to learn how to build community coalitions in support of the healthy development of the children of Flint (McKinney, 1993; McKinney, et al., in press). The preponderant majority of the new poor children in Flint since 1980 were African American. Of particular interest are the specific issues involved in promoting healthy early life development for children from low-income, African American families. Thus, in the context of learning how to build community partnerships, McKinney and his colleagues seek to bring to the collaborative table the voices of the African American people who are rearing children in their low-income communities.

The contributions of these community members have resulted in several related outreach research projects. An assessment is being made of the community programs that exist to support the healthy early-life development of low-income, African American children in Flint: of the degree of coordination that exists among the programs; and of the perceptions that exist among community members (who both receive and deliver these programs) regarding the extent to which community needs are being met. In addition, a new *cradle school* program delivers health and education services to children from birth to five years. Plans are being developed to launch (with the Flint Community Foundation) a long-term, longitudinal evaluation of the life outcomes accruing to children who experience prenatal, perinatal, and early-life health services. A partnership is being established to study ways to enhance service to and create new programs for the children and families of Flint.

Thus the study of coalition formation initiated by McKinney and his colleagues has spawned several interrelated studies and some new program initiatives. As such, his study has helped broaden and/or

create new coalitions in the Flint community. Sectors of the Flint community that had not systematically collaborated previously have become involved. As a consequence, McKinney's outreach scholarship is itself an intervention: through studying the process of coalition formation, it builds the capacity of the community to engage in effective coalitions on behalf of its children. Perhaps most important, the outreach scholarship pursued by McKinney and his colleagues exemplifies the usefulness of relying on an *asset model* of low-income communities (McKnight & Kretzmann, 1993). The intrinsic strengths of the community are used to enhance the life chances of its children and families.

A second example of the collaborative approach to outreach scholarship involves work with the legislative and administrative communities comprising state government. This collaboration is termed *policy engagement* (ICYF, 1993); in order for more informed policy decisions to be made, the knowledge resources of the Institute are integrated with the concerns of government about current or planned child and family programs and policies. Policy engagement activities pursued by the Institute involve knowledge transmission (e.g., the literature relevant to such issues as the effects of family preservation programs on child development), technical assistance (e.g., the procedures for program design or development), or evaluation research (e.g., the effects of existing policies or programs and/or "best practice"). L. Annette Abrams, Leah Cox Hoopfer, and Richard M. Lerner provide leadership at the Institute for these activities.

As viewed by Abrams, successful policy engagements between universities and state government must involve five elements. **Element 1** involves the establishment of a permanent forum for collaboration.

ICYF, other University partners, and the Michigan Department of Social Services (DSS) formed a Joint Research Evaluation Committee so that faculty interested in designing research germane to the policy goals of the DSS can interact with decision makers and gain support. This joint committee is co-chaired by the Institute's Associate Director for Policy and the DSS Research Director, and meetings are called as needed. Participants include interested teams of faculty and top DSS administrators who can present the Director of the Department of Social Services with collective recommendations.

Element 2 involves co-design of projects. Within the context of the Joint Committee, faculty and administrators strive to reach win-win decisions, i.e., agree on research which satisfies faculty interests and meets the agency's knowledge needs as well. The co-design concept extends into the operational phase of research projects. Scholars provide formative feedback to administrators at periodic points in the project, not just at the end of the research. Through frequent feedback, decision makers are able to make program adjustments or intervene in troublesome field cases without delay. Feedback also prevents administrators from receiving news that their program was less than perfect after the research is completed.

Element 3 involves joint fundraising. As public agencies and legislatures downsize, their funds for research, evaluation, training, and planning have been decimated. Successful policy engagement requires a joint willingness to raise support for needed assessment and research. The Institute has traveled with state officials to meet with public and private funders, has received cabinet-wide letters of endorsement for funding proposals, and has acquired federal matching funds for non-federally funded grant

projects, thus expanding the longevity or scope of research which is germane to the DSS mission.

Element 4 involves policy vision, i.e., an ability on the part of the University to scan the policy environment and determine, before programs are implemented, what the research needs of state government will be. In the case of Michigan's welfare reform initiative, the Institute and other University partners met with DSS leadership to discuss areas of mutual interest well before the implementation of the *Social Contract* program.

Consequently, MSU faculty gained support—conceptual, operational, and fiscal—for timely evaluation research in this area.

Element 5 involves ongoing commitment to policy vision. The Institute, other University partners, and government officials use the Joint Committee to explore additional areas of common interest. Recently, the DSS suggested the development of a long-term research agenda to be financed with federal matching funds associated with Medicaid, Food Stamps, and Aid for Families with Dependent Children (AFDC).

In addition to policy engagements, the Institute collaborates with state government in a variety of policy outreach activities. Outreach occurs regardless of whether a permanent forum exists for joint work. Outreach, as compared to engagement, involves discrete projects which are not connected in a long-term policy research agenda. Two examples of successful policy outreach follow. First, the Lieutenant Governor of Michigan, the Honorable Connie Binsfeld, worked with the Institute and with Michigan State University Extension to create a new, state-wide program termed *Caring Arms*. The goal of *Caring Arms* is to identify, honor, and bring visibility to community-based programs that are effectively enhancing the lives of the children,

youth, and families in Michigan communities. The Lieutenant Governor hopes that momentum may be built to replicate successful programs throughout Michigan. Accordingly, the Institute and Michigan State University Extension work with the Caring Arms Task Force, a group composed of citizens with diverse personal and professional backgrounds from across the state, to evaluate programs for their suitability for recognition through the Caring Arms initiative.

A second instance of collaboration is a project with the Michigan Department of Public Health aimed at creating a new state-wide program for facilitating healthy development among children and youth aged 9 to 14 years. Termed the Michigan Abstinence Partnership, this program will disseminate curricular and media materials to communities, schools, and private and public agencies. The materials are designed to prevent unsafe sexual practices and substance use and abuse and to promote healthy behavioral choices among youth within the target ages. The Institute is providing technical assistance in the development of the curricular and media materials. In addition, the Institute is collaborating with the Department of Public Health in the design and the conduct of an overall evaluation of the Michigan Abstinence Partnership program.

A final example of the Institute's collaborative approach to integrating research and outreach involves an interrelated colloquium and workshop series organized around the theme of diversity and context. It has been noted that integrative, multidisciplinary, and multiprofessional collaboration requires that a) collective understandings be reached regarding concepts and methods found within each of these professional communities and that b) individualized attention be given to the distinct issues that may be

involved in studying and serving a specific group of people within a particular context.

It may be that maximum effectiveness in achieving this integration will require a new paradigm of a professional, one involving a novel type of network, an association collaboratively and synthetically merging science and service. Because of the innovation required for such professional development, training efforts may be directed to beginning scholars for most effectiveness. Such training will enable the creation of a new generation of scholars and professionals, a cohort having a vision of, and the skills to integrate, science and service for the diverse youth and families they seek to understand and serve.

The Institute's *Colloquium Series* on diversity and context provides a forum wherein such intellectual and professional integrations may be advanced. The Series offers colloquia by leading scholars whose work exemplifies the sorts of integrations between science and outreach ICYF seeks to promote. Through their presentation of current or emerging issues pertinent to linking science and outreach, the scholars and professionals speaking in this series assist ICYF faculty affiliates as well as other members of the MSU faculty and outreach communities in preparing for participation in a series of annual *ICYF Summer Workshops on Diversity and Context*.

The purpose of the ICYF Workshop Series is to provide an ongoing setting wherein such intellectual integrations may be attained and where this new type of multiprofessional network may be formed. Each year this summer workshop is aimed at creating a group of scholars whose careers will be marked by the goal of synthesizing science and outreach in the context of enhancing understanding of and service to diverse groups of children, youth,

and families. Each workshop brings together, for approximately one week, a group of about twenty beginning or retooling professionals from the research, policy, and intervention communities, who have completed their terminal professional degrees. In addition, senior colleagues present their work to the group, organize discussions of current or emerging issues, and assist in the formation of the professional networks that are intended as one key outcome of the workshop series.

Although the superordinate theme of the workshop series remains the same, each year's workshop has as its focus a different instance of diversity and context. For example, whereas the focus of the 1992 workshop was on general conceptual and methodological issues pertinent to diversity and context, the focus of the 1993 workshop was economic hardship.

Conclusion

An integrative paradigm of research and outreach using the developmental contextual view of human development (Fisher, et al., 1993) can provide the means through which the scholarship of America's universities can meet the needs of communities and society. This approach to integrative research and outreach can help create, in actuality and in the perceptions of the public, an academy that is socially useful and relevant, an institution that truly employs knowledge to address the practical problems of life.

If we are to foster such a university through our scholarship, our task is not just to do more or better research. If we are to significantly advance science and service for the children and families of our nation, we must engage in new multidisciplinary activities—qualitatively distinctive collaborative and multiprofessional endeavors such as those promoted by the integrative, holistic, human ecological perspective. This is the

leadership challenge before us as we approach the next century. And this is the path upon which we, as scientists and citizens, must embark.

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Conceptual Framework for Interagency Collaboration: A Kentucky Case Study

Hazel W. Forsythe, Peggy S. Meszaros, and Rietta M. Turner

Interagency collaboration has become important for pooling skills and resources to improve services to families. This paper proposes definitions for collaboration, describes a conceptual framework for interagency collaboration, and presents a case study using the framework to support the Kentucky Education Reform Act.

As we move into the twenty-first century our new knowledge environment forces us to rethink the very nature of rule, power, and authority (Cleveland, 1985). More and more work will be accomplished by horizontal processes or what the Japanese call *consensus*, the Indonesians call *mushyawara*, and Americans call *collaboration* or *teamwork*. Because of the integrative philosophy of the field, home economists who are prepared to function as team members are ideally positioned to participate in collaboration.

Collaboration is not a new idea but one that is becoming more relevant as we examine the overlapping issues in the delivery of family services. Business and industry, over time, have changed their perception of work, the role of the worker, and the use of competition in the workplace. They have begun to embrace collaboration because it fosters increased production, quality of work, and worker commitment. Research shows that morale, creativity, (McGregor, 1960) motivation, and cooperation (Likert, 1961) are enhanced when information is shared and workers participate in decision making (Argyris, 1971). For these reasons,

social agencies are now expanding their exploration of the advantages of collaborative practices in addressing the complex problems of society.

Education reform in the state of Kentucky was the catalyst for coordinating social services for children and families and for developing Family Resource and Youth Services Centers throughout the state. It is noteworthy that home economists have played key leadership roles in these collaborative efforts. This paper proposes definitions of collaboration, describes a conceptual framework for interagency collaboration, and illustrates an example of collaborative work of home economists in Kentucky.

Definitions of Collaboration

Definitions of collaboration focus on processes wherein participants can combine their talents so that the total result is greater than the sum of independent actions (Dunn, 1983). Crosson, et al. (1978) and Martinson (1991) suggest that collaboration involves "processes which enable all participants to jointly define their separate interests and mutually identify changes needed to . . . achieve common purposes; and uses mutually agreed upon procedures to clarify issues, define problems, and make decisions" (p. 23).

Collaborative planning has among its advantages integration of skills, resources, and information. There is no single agency to provide services to all families, no fixed way to solve problems, nor a particular way to do collaborative planning. Limited resources, diverse sources of

information, and overlapping areas of service, all support the advantages of collaborative work. Thus, interagency collaboration can be defined as an invigorating process of "melding organizational and personality attributes (strengths and limitations) within a common situation" (Wimpfheimer, et al., 1990, p. 91; Torczykner, 1983).

Conceptual Structure for Interagency Collaboration

Successful interagency collaboration sounds simple in the abstract: when representatives from two or more agencies holding similar goals begin working together to share ideas and resources, both agencies are enriched and their clientele receive more comprehensive, less fragmented services. Imaginativeness and ingenuity bring new and innovative solutions to emerging and perennial problems. These are the outcomes when collaboration works. However, many times collaborations fail, due in large part to lack of shared vision, inadequate guidelines, and conflicts in values. To ensure effectiveness, the following guidelines are proposed for interagency collaboration (Figure 1).

Formulate a clear perspective of goals and common human values.

The first task of collaboration is to consolidate the mission and to identify the main goals and objectives through participative decision making. These agreed-upon goals and objectives form the foundation, the common value base,

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and philosophy that foster acceptance of the collaboration as a potential way of solving a recognized problem (Robinson & Clifford, 1977; Abels & Murphy, 1981; Nugeboren, 1985).

Research the facts and data relevant to the mission.

Once the goals are formulated and issues targeted, the team researches the activities that address the issues, examines delivery systems, and designs internal evaluation and feedback measures to track results. When the group is mobilized, members set the data collection process and review the ideas, data, technology, and resources.

Identify key players.

Defining the power and authority needed to make decisions and commit resources is the first step in identifying key players. Next, subject experts within the group are identified and their areas of participation are agreed upon. This step supports creativity and innovative solutions (Wimpfheimer, et al., 1989, Silva, 1989) and is critical to success (Leavitt, 1978; Silva, 1989).

Discuss and delineate the benefits and risks for individual and agency participants.

This step involves identifying areas of risk, such as reduced funding or legislative limits on the existence of services. Risks may even be catalysts to interagency collaboration when they are recognized collectively by groups that have a shared identity, philosophy, and mission (Byles, 1985). Wimpfheimer's (1989) condition, "everyone a winner," answers the question of what benefits emerge. Each agency must feel that it has something to give and to gain from the collaboration, and it is important that the benefits be perceived as being of equal value.

Understand and accept limits.

The functional limits in terms of the scope of the enterprise need to be determined so that territorial concerns and traditional areas of responsibility can be honored. Each agency can set limits (Leavitt, 1978; Silva, 1989), take responsibility, and set parameters for cooperation (Dunn, 1983) by defining its contribution, expertise, support base, service clientele, and public stance. Once limits are disclosed they can be

factored into the organizational structure so that each agency feels respected.

Build synergism.

Harmonious group relationships are developed through guidance, coaching, and coordination. Team centeredness is built by fostering imaginativeness, interdependence, commitment to team process, and accountability as a unit. Synergism is enhanced also by attention to the issues of trust and conflict. Trust is encouraged and conflict is reduced by group interaction based on respect and supportiveness; healthy conflict motivates and stimulates (Robinson & Clifford, 1977).

Reduce barriers to progress.

Progress is maintained by focusing on attainable objectives within the established goals and by reexamining the mission each time a change is proposed. Evaluation and feedback procedures help keep the group focused on the action plan. It is important to limit procedures that frustrate spontaneous interaction and that permit vested interests to control activities. Progress will also be enhanced by devising measures to protect the status of individuals and agencies within the group, fusing individual agency power into group power.

The following section describes the Kentucky interagency collaboration and explains how the guidelines were implemented.

Kentucky Education Reform Collaboration Project

The Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA), adopted in 1990, was based a) upon a philosophy of public education as a shared responsibility of state government, local communities, parents, students, and school employees; b) upon the belief that all children can learn

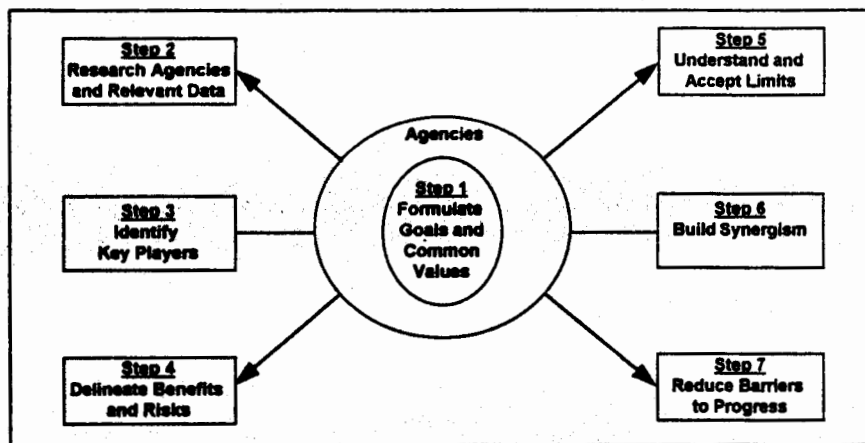


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework for Interagency Collaboration.

(Education Reform Act, House Bill 940, 1990); and c) upon the assumption that children should be ready to learn when they enter school.

Rising family stress has made education and human services systems aware that they must cooperate to solve the common problems of families. The intention of the collaboration was to address the needs of children, youth, families, and schools through the creation of Family Resource and Youth Services Centers (FRYSC, 1990). This collaborative effort involved the University of Kentucky (UK), the Cabinet for Human Resources (CHR), the State Department of Education (DOE), and the Council of Higher Education (CHE) (all hereinafter referenced as agencies). Figure 2 illustrates the structure of the collaboration.

A 16-member Interagency Task Force (ITF) was appointed by the governor to establish Family Resource and Youth Services Centers to meet the needs of economically disadvantaged children and their families. The Secretary of the Cabinet for Human Resources was elected to chair the Interagency Task Force. The Dean of the College of Human Environmental Sciences was appointed to chair a University of Kentucky Interdisciplinary Task Force (UKITF). These two task forces cooperated in establishing FRYSC centers.

Two products of the collaboration were developed almost immediately. The UKITF developed a resource handbook with research-based information covering all mandated areas of operation of the centers. The second product was a video explaining the purpose and concept of Family Resource and Youth Services Centers. Both resources were distributed to all school districts.

Funding for the handbook and the video was provided by the Cabinet

Kentucky Collaboration

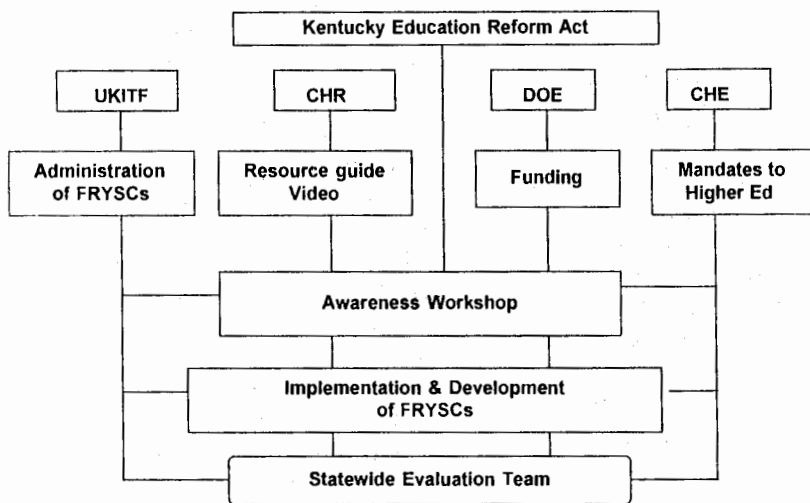


Figure 2. KERA Collaborative Structure.

for Human Resources and the State Department of Education. This collaboration between these three agencies clearly resulted in a win/win situation for all. The materials provided to school systems through this collaborative effort will benefit Kentucky children and their families. The Council on Higher Education, the fourth collaborating partner which monitors the mandate involving higher education in KERA, joined the partnership for the next phase of collaboration.

The UKITF implemented a statewide KERA awareness workshop for all public and private higher education institutions and the Cooperative Extension Service. Participants from business, industry, higher education, extension, and the Council on Higher Education learned of the importance of Family Resource and Youth Services Centers. They received model training and materials and agreed to replicate the awareness workshop in their communities. The next collaborative effort proposed a comprehensive evaluation plan for

FRYSC assessment. The evaluation plan was developed by a statewide collaborative team chaired by the UK Dean of the College of Human Environmental Sciences. This team consisted of representatives from twenty-two regional universities, community colleges, and CHR, DOE, and CHE representatives.

Strategies Contributing to Success

The steps in the conceptual model in Figure 1 guided this collaborative project. The common mission established the team's collaborative goals, a clear identity, and the human values to guide the work. Research on the facts and data relevant to the mission helped to identify the working principles for the group, and key players were drawn from those agencies that placed high priority on educational reform. Each representative was chosen by agency presidents and had the power to commit agency resources to the collaborating team.

The legislative mandate identified the risks and highlighted the

benefits. On one hand there could be reduced funding, limits on existing services, and loss of clientele if the providers did not participate in KERA, and on the other hand educational gains could be made for Kentucky residents.

Each agency came into the collaborative enterprise knowing its functional limits. Higher education had research expertise and faculty for public service. The State Department of Education was willing to expend resources on instructional materials, and the Cabinet for Human Resources aimed to coordinate all social service agencies in the community. Individual members of the collaboration groups understood that they could control information input and retrieval from the core data.

The team developed a noticeable synergism and a sense of ownership. This was evident in the climate of supportiveness and mutual respect as the team worked to reduce barriers to progress. The group concentrated on achieving its immediate objectives. As those were achieved the group reexamined the mission and by consensus, based on research information from the core data, moved on to the next phase of the collaboration. Constant feedback kept the group informed and focused.

Home Economists and Collaboration

Interagency collaboration is a logical arena for the profession. Home economists are goal driven, their philosophy of service and value system relate to families (Istre & Self, 1990), and they already participate in many coalitions for legislative problem solving. By pooling resources and focusing services within the profession, home economists can use their integrating skills to meld groups into cohesive working units (Bubolz, et al., 1979; Carson, 1990). Home economists are versed in service delivery systems,

project evaluation, and coordination of participants in social projects (Townley, 1991). These skills are essential to collaboration and to securing new and innovative projects that promote a vision that improves the quality of life of families. The Kentucky collaboration case study models a holistic, integrative approach that holds promise for enhancing the quality of life of individuals and families.

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The Research-Extension Link: A Collaborative Relationship

Lynda Harriman

Whether extension programs continue to have a strong research foundation depends largely upon shared ownership for strengthening the research-extension link and collaboration in the human sciences.

It is the thesis of this article that the research-extension link must be enhanced to operationalize the land-grant university mission. This challenge will require efforts by extension professionals to create a demand for research and commitment by administrators to facilitate a closer interaction between research and extension faculty. The basis for strengthening this important collaborative relationship was set forth in the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, the Hatch Act of 1887, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914. As pointed out by Froke et al. (1990), "the unique characteristic of extension education programs is that they are based in research." This paper discusses the requirements to assure that extension programs fulfill their promise.

The Research Base

Historically, home economists focused on the immediate and practical problems of families in their research, and they looked to research conducted in other disciplines for answers. As scholars have pursued research and theory within the human sciences and tested theories and research findings through extension programs, we have become "exporters rather than importers of theory and research. We have also developed a greater capacity to find solutions to the important and practical human problems about which we ultimately

are concerned" (Istre and Self, 1990).

Theory provides the basis for understanding the incredible collective effects that changing physical, economic, and social environments have on individual and family functioning. For this reason, theory building and testing is essential to professional practice in extension. Research scholars—working closely with extension faculty—can ensure interaction among specializations to provide an interdisciplinary approach to issues and problems facing individuals, families, and communities. Collaboration in the beginning stages of research can provide the theoretical and research bases for meeting the needs of extension clientele in the future.

The Knowledge Base

Scholarship is the mechanism for creating new knowledge which then becomes the content of the field. With continuing scholarly activity, professionals can be at the forefront of the field; relevance of extension program content can be assured; and programs can maintain vigor.

Those professionals satisfied to be recipients of information from other disciplines are by necessity reactive; thus they are limited to the dissemination of how-to-do-it information and to the development of short-term solutions. Because Cooperative Extension is not meant to be a quick-fix program, scholarship and consequent practice must guard against preoccupation with technology, new products, limited scholarly activity, and

outreach geared to providing techniques and promoting products for facilitating household tasks and family life (Brown, 1984).

The creation of new knowledge, applicable to today's needs, is vital if college curricula and extension programs are to be effective and relevant. "The problems facing today's families call for an integration between the biological sciences and the social sciences and the ability to think in an interdisciplinary manner" (Froke et al., 1990). Human science programs within the land-grant university system should integrate extension faculty as active players in the creation of knowledge and in the identification of research problems. Likewise, researchers should be involved in the design of extension programs and assessment studies. By systematic collaboration in the process of seeking research priorities, extension faculty can help create public demand for research. Scifres (1990) stated that Extension faculty must be included in the research process to serve as sounding boards and to provide technical input. On the other hand, Extension faculty must experiment with how to provide input in ways that researchers not only value it but actively solicit it. Building a strong knowledge base means not only building bridges between the physical sciences and the social sciences, but blurring the lines between research and extension.

The Funding Base

Scholars who move human sciences ahead will be forward looking, politically astute, and

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articulate. They must be able not only to do research well but to select problems which address critical issues (Hefferan, Heltsley, & Davis, 1987). The credibility and support for a strong funding base will require research and extension faculty to be able to describe ongoing research and its potential value to human needs as effectively as they articulate research findings.

The funding base for extension programs can be strengthened also through collaborative field-based research. Such research can provide quantitative data on the cost effectiveness of extension programs. Collaborative studies can also generate qualitative data describing life-changing results. Both quantitative and qualitative are important and have the potential to make an impact on the way political decision makers view human sciences research and extension programs. With increasing frequency, state budget makers and the federal Office of Management and Budget are requesting this kind of information to justify the allocation of resources.

"It has been demonstrated repeatedly that the most cost-effective method of influencing the lives of both individuals and institutions is substantial involvement in public policy issues" (Green, 1989). Issues facing families today are complex and multifaceted; they defy simplistic responses. Consequently, convincing data will be necessary to gain public support for research and education dealing with these issues. Bogeschneider, Small, and Riley (1990) and Johnsrud (1993), for example, describe effective and cost effective programs. Such findings can be powerful tools in influencing political decisions and public policy.

Qualified Cadre of Professionals

Scholarly activity keeps professionals at the forefront of their

field by contributing to the knowledge base. New professionals can expect their scholarship to enable them to be viewed as competent individuals with knowledge and skills valued by employers and society.

Joint appointments between research and extension often provide the ideal vehicle for enhancing the research-extension link. The needs of the twenty-first century will demand that extension faculty involve themselves directly in research. Today, few universities hire extension faculty without terminal degrees. Thus, "we have a reserve of scientific as well as technical expertise to conduct research and apply it directly to clientele needs" (Scifres, 1990). In addition, land-grant universities employ some of the top research scientists who have much to offer extension professionals and clientele.

Challenge

In summary, we are living in a period of major world-wide changes. The effects of these changes are social and economic, as well as environmental (Byrne, 1989). Enhancing the research-extension link through collaborative working relationships will result in a better understanding of the socioeconomic forces affecting change and of the impact of these changes on the human condition. The challenges inherent in the land-grant mission demand collaborative efforts toward integration.

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Experimenting from Within: Collaboration Between Specializations

Megan P. Goodwin and B. Jeanneane Wood

Many students graduating from home economics programs lack an understanding of the interdisciplinary nature of the field. In turn, students are limited in their ability to see the value in approaching the challenges of today's society from a shared perspective. These limitations stem, in part, from the increased specialization of the areas which comprise home economics. This project, involving interior design and child development undergraduate students, offers a starting point for preparing students to engage in successful professional collaboration.

Changes in society have produced a wide variety of environmental, social, and economic challenges which need to be addressed, but few of them can be resolved by a single individual or organization. Collaborative relationships will offer a more comprehensive analysis of issues and opportunities and will deal with the increased complexity of challenges. In recent years, business and industry have found collaboration to be advantageous in an increasingly competitive world market (Austin & Baldwin, 1991). In the area of human services, Kagan (1991) suggested collaboration as one way of a) alleviating the scarcity of resources, b) expanding the narrowness of problem conceptualization, c) improving inadequacies in human service delivery, and d) achieving organizational reform. Each of these outcomes is critical to providing essential services to individuals and families. Regardless of the reasons, collaboration is viewed as a useful, productive, and essential approach to problem solving in all sectors of society (Keohane, 1985; Lippitt & Van Til, 1981; Patel, 1973;

Schindler-Rainman, 1981).

As a general rule, the predominate pedagogical practices of today do little to foster an appreciation for the value of collaboration. A likely reason is that professionals may have had little experience and/or opportunity to develop the skills necessary to conduct collaborative ventures. Another reason is that home economics has moved from a generalized field of study to a collection of specialized areas (Harper, 1981). This philosophical shift has led to students who have depth of knowledge in their respective specialties (e.g., child development, interior design, dietetics, clothing and textiles) but are unable to envision connections or the benefits of working jointly with professionals across these domains.

Courses within the specialized fields of home economics are typically taught as separate and distinct. Interior design course content often reflects little relation to the content of foods and nutrition courses, which in turn reveal little relationship to child development. And students are not exposed to bonds common to these disciplines. Although faculty may assume students will in time understand how these specializations relate and contribute to a shared goal, in reality students do not grasp such connections. For these reasons, strategies should be developed to engage students in discussing the relationships which exist between and among specializations and to experience the collaborative nature of the field (Deacon, 1987). If

students experience positive activities, it seems reasonable to assume that they will be willing to approach societal challenges from a collaborative viewpoint.

Collaborative Learning

The increasing emphasis on collaborative learning, found in elementary and secondary schools, is beginning to make its way into higher education and may be one avenue by which faculty can foster the development of skills necessary to implement successful collaboration. A key to collaborative learning is the notion that knowledge is not poured into individuals but is created by the interactions among group members (Austin & Baldwin, 1991). That is, communities of individuals, within the context of various environments, create and shape knowledge through conversations and interactions. Participants in collaborative learning also depend upon one another and take responsibility for the group and its task (Cooper & Mueck, 1990; MacGregor, 1990). They learn the social skills necessary for cooperation such as active listening, constructive criticism, and how to share personal skills in ways that will benefit the group (Cooper & Mueck, 1990). These same skills seem to be the backbone of professional collaboration. Thus, expanding opportunities for students to work collaboratively on classroom projects contributes to the development of essential skills which can be used in professional practice.

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This paper describes a collaborative teaching/learning experience which the authors incorporated into two courses. Simply stated, the course experience required home economics students, enrolled in specific interior design and child development courses, to work together to design a child care facility. Students were responsible for developing an ideal space based upon their individual philosophical approaches to early childhood programs. The project provided students with a firsthand experience in collaboration. The overall goals were to create a better product than they would alone and to develop the skills, as well as the necessary attitudes, to pursue collaborative activities in the professional world. This collaborative project conveyed information a) about young children and child-care staff to interior design students and b) about the processes involved in designing environments which influence adult and child behavior to child development students. Further, the project exposed undergraduate students to a problem-solving approach that is increasingly important in meeting the challenges of today's world.

Faculty Collaboration

Although the focus of this paper is on the collaborative learning process which occurred among students, it is worthwhile to discuss the role of instructors in this project. Of necessity, the interactions and efforts of the instructors paralleled student experiences.

The success of this collaboration was due in part to the attention given by the instructors to establishing an organized implementation process. Gray (1989) described collaboration as a form of negotiated order which emphasized five critical elements: a) interdependence of group members, b) discussion of views for the development of new understandings, c) shared ownership

of decisions, d) joint responsibility for outcomes of decisions, and e) the evolution of the process over time. A brief description of the interplay between these elements follows.

This experience involved the interdependence of the instructors because overall goals could not be achieved in the traditional format. This project produced improved quality of design and appropriateness for children and child-care staff when compared to work by previous students working independently.

The faculty members discussed their goals and worked together to develop new understandings, ideas, and options. Many hours were spent familiarizing one another with information critical to the project outcome, such as field-specific terminology, licensing regulations, and tasks necessary for students to complete integral parts of the project. Shared ownership of decisions was necessary; that is, both instructors agreed upon the direction the work was to take. Both instructors not only agreed upon decisions but took responsibility for them because the success of student projects hinged on the quality of instructor collaboration.

The instructors found that "collaboration is an emergent process" (Gray, 1989, p. 11) through which decisions, goals, and agreements develop or evolve over time. This project has been modified over the last several years to meet the changing needs of both students and instructors.

Project Development

Ideally, a team of professionals involved in planning a child care facility would include an interior designer and a child development specialist. The collaborative effort at Central Michigan University was especially suited to the following courses: *Interior Design Studio II: Special User Groups* and *Supervision and Planning of*

Programs for Young Children. The emphasis of the former course is on designing spaces to meet the unique needs of the disabled, the elderly, and children. The focus of the latter course is on the planning of early childhood programs to meet the needs of young children, i.e., structuring the environment, designing experiences, and interacting with young children and their families.

The following objectives fulfilled the overall goals of an improved project outcome and acquisition of collaborative skills. To achieve these goals the students will

1. Develop the skills and attitudes necessary to work with other professionals in solving a common problem;
 2. Understand the role of professionals in another specialization;
 3. Exchange ideas and information needed for the implementation of this collaborative project;
 4. Design a physical space which would be developmentally appropriate for the needs of young children and child-care staff members;
 5. Identify the relationship between the developmental characteristics of young children and the preparation of an environment to facilitate development and support desired behavior;
 6. Recognize the relationship between a philosophy of early childhood education and professional practices in preparing an environment for young children;
 7. Understand the process involved in designing environments that meet user needs and solve realistic problems;
 8. Examine/utilize manufacturers and distributors of equipment and materials for programs serving young children; and
 9. Calculate costs involved in equipping a child care center.
- The course requirements were developed to engage students in

independent and collaborative efforts to achieve these objectives. It was determined that students in both courses needed a general overview of student roles in the project and a basic understanding of the expectations for each group. Therefore, the child development instructor spoke to the interior design class about developmental characteristics of young children, regulations pertaining to child care centers in Michigan, skill level of the child development student collaborators, and course requirements which were being fulfilled by the child development students. A similar experience was provided for the interior design students: the interior design instructor reviewed the design process, skill level of the interior design students with whom they would be working, and course requirements which were being fulfilled by the interior design students. Questions, concerns, and clarifications were addressed for both groups of students.

Design teams were formed by pairing child development and interior design students at the start of the project. Class size and student schedules were factors which influenced the pairings. Double pairing was necessary when a larger number of students enrolled in one of the courses.

Project Requirements

The collaborative task of designing a child care facility has three distinct phases:

1. Ideology Phase (approximately one week). Each design team is required to develop an understanding of the type of facility to be created.

This phase involves three elements:

a) Philosophy statement. A brief (one to two page) written statement of thoughts, beliefs, and values regarding programs for young children is prepared by each child development student.

b) Questionnaire. Questions addressing all aspects of a child care facility (e.g., ages and numbers of children, type of program, number of employees, typical activities, and storage needs) are reviewed by all members of the design team and later discussed at the first team meeting.

c) Design team interview. Based upon the facts in the questionnaire and the philosophy statement, the design team discusses the type of child care facility they would like to design.

2. Development Phase (approximately four weeks). During this phase, much of the draft work is completed by the interior design students. Due to the collaborative nature of the project, the child development students are an integral part of this phase. Meeting notes and journals are completed by the interior design and child development students respectively to ensure ongoing interactions within the design teams and to track student progress. The meeting notes kept by the interior design students are approved by the other team member to model a common practice of professional interior designers. Meeting notes and journal entries are used as part of the evaluation process. The development phase includes the following components:

a) Design concept. A brief written statement of the principle ideas that give direction to the project. This is discussed between team members before any design work begins in order to ensure that the team members are in agreement on the project.

b) Block plan. Visual illustration of the organization of space showing logical adjacencies and proper circulation.

c) Floor plan. Visual illustration of the size and shape of each room, including location of doors,

windows, partitions, and furnishings.

d) Rendered perspective and elevations. Picture-like drawings in three dimension and two dimension, respectively, in varied media (e.g., pencil, pen, marker, or paint).

e) Flooring diagrams. Quantity and locations of flooring selections.

f) Furniture and finish selections. Furnishings and surface materials such as wall covering, paint, laminate, and carpeting to be used in the child care facility.

g) Specifications/quotation. Lists, describing the basic requirements of furnishings and finishes (e.g., quantity, manufacturer, style number, dimensions, material content, special features, costs, and method of construction or installation).

3. Verbal Presentation and Evaluation (approximately one week). The child development team member explains the philosophy, ideas, and requirements for the project; the interior design team member explains the steps in the design process and reveals the final plan. Feedback is furnished by the instructors and students at the completion of the presentation. A booklet of information developed for the presentation includes all written and draft work such as the design concept, meeting notes, block plan, and floor plan along with furniture or finishes. The child development student keeps a copy of the booklet, and the design student retains ownership of the boards and original documentation for use in a design portfolio.

Problems Encountered and Future Recommendations

Student evaluations and instructor reviews led to modifications in the project design. One issue arose regarding the limited time in which

to complete the project. Some members felt they would like more than two in-class opportunities to meet with their respective partners. Devoting more class time did not seem practical, but a recent study reported by Fiechtner and Davis (1992) revealed that the more time devoted in class to group projects, the more time students chose to devote outside of class. Because a goal of this collaborative project is to develop the desire to continue collaborative efforts in the future, it seems important to allow students to meet more regularly during scheduled class periods.

As the project evolved, an additional goal—improved communication skills for students—was identified. It was believed that the addition of some form of student-to-student feedback regarding this experience would be beneficial. Although students in each course completed a written evaluation after the presentations, these were used only to identify areas that were particularly problematic or beneficial to the students. Peer evaluations, particularly those that have an impact on course grades, have been shown to contribute to positive group experiences; however, when over-emphasized, peer evaluation can be detrimental (Fiechtner & Davis, 1992). Overall, it appears that some form of peer evaluation is desired by students, but the amount of influence and its relation to other forms of evaluation must be taken into consideration.

Finally, to expand the team approach, the instructors are considering modifying the formal presentations to include a panel of professionals from child development and interior design. Input/feedback from such panelists would model the kind of interaction that both the interior design and child development students will likely encounter as professionals.

The authors offer the following suggestions to encourage additional

collaborative efforts among other home economics specializations. It might be possible to expand this kind of project to include gerontology students in the development of an intergenerational center; food service students in the design of a commercial kitchen; interior design students and child and family studies students working together to develop a residential structure that could be easily adapted to the changing needs of children, adults, and the elderly; foods and nutrition students with family studies students working together on changing nutritional needs across the life span; or child development students and clothing and textiles students developing clothing to meet the developmental needs of children. Obviously, there are myriad opportunities for collaborative efforts among the specializations within home economics.

Regardless of the areas of study, a single undergraduate experience will not ensure that individuals will be effective in professional collaborative ventures. This paper has shown that collaborative projects can be developed between diverse specializations and can stimulate students to discover for themselves the benefits of working together to solve some of the environmental, social, and economic challenges which will confront them in their professional endeavors.

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Getting Dinosaurs to Dance: Community Collaborations as Applications of Ecological Theory

Daniel F. Perkins, Theresa M. Ferrari, Martin A. Covey, & Joanne G. Keith

This article connects human ecological theory to the practice of collaborative relationships. Findings from a study of community coalitions in Michigan are used to highlight common elements of effective coalitions. The case is made for participation of home economists and human ecologists in collaborative efforts on behalf of children, youth, and families.

Over the last several decades, significant social, economic, and technological changes have affected America's children, youth, and families and have contributed to a fragmentation of community life (Coleman, 1987; Comer, 1984; Gardner, 1989; Hodgkinson, 1989). As a result, the naturally occurring networks and linkages—individuals, families, schools, and other social systems within a community—that have traditionally provided a *safety net* may no longer exist. The literature in many fields (ie., education, business, child care,

organizational development, public affairs, health, and human services) suggests that community collaborative efforts are both feasible and desirable as a strategy to improve the status and future well-being of children, youth, and their families (Benard, 1991; Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1992; Dryfoos, 1990; Ellison & Barbour, 1992; Hamburg, 1992; Hodgkinson, 1989; Kagan, 1989; National Commission on Children, 1991; Schorr, 1988; W. T. Grant Foundation, 1988). Collaboration has been around for a long time, in various sectors and in different forms. However, there appears to be a gap in the research base about collaboration. Keith, McPherson, and Smith-Sreen (1992) explain why this may occur:

From a scientist's point of view, actions taken in communities are often dictated by insufficient data, and a stronger research base is needed. At the same time, research often proceeds too slowly for practitioners and families [who are] facing pressing issues. Recommendations for action, not research, are strongly advocated (p. 40).

The purpose of this article, therefore, is to connect the theory and the practice of collaborative relationships. The questions "why collaboration" and "why an ecological approach to collaboration" are addressed as well as the relevance of developing collaborative

relationships for professionals in home economics/human ecology.

Why Collaboration?

As suggested above, collaboration is not a new idea but perhaps one whose time has come again. The recent upsurge of interest in collaboration (Keith et al., 1993) has prompted Lerner (1993) to refer to the 1990s as "the decade of community coalitions for children" (p. 9). It is generally agreed that comprehensive problem-solving strategies at the local level will yield long-term solutions to complex problems. Therefore, one reason for community collaboration is to bring members of organizations together to systematically solve problems that cannot be solved by one group alone. In other words, the *whole is greater than the sum of the parts*. Although this is easily said, experience shows that it is not easily done. In fact, it has been described as being as difficult as "teaching dinosaurs to do ballet" (Schlechty in DeBevoise, 1986, p. 12). It may be that collaborating requires a shift in one's value system, from thinking and working individualistically to thinking and working holistically (Astroth, 1991; Kagan, 1989). Successful collaborations are hard work, are time consuming, and require participants to put the needs of children, youth, and families above the needs of institutions (Keith et al., 1993). It is the thesis of this article that communities able to do this are not only making wise investments in the present and the

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future but also maximizing the diminishing resources that are available.

Leadership in collaborative efforts was a vision of the early leaders of home economics and remains central to the mission of the profession today (Brown & Paolucci, 1979). Home economists can serve as "catalysts to bring together coalitions to build public support for investment in youth" (Meszaros, 1993). The integrative, interdisciplinary nature of the profession provides an organizing framework for establishing collaborative relationships.

Definitions

The terms *collaboration* and *coalition* are used in many ways and have a variety of definitions; sometimes they are even used interchangeably. Astroth (1991) suggested a continuum moving from communication at one end, through cooperation and coalition, to collaboration at the other end. A coalition's intent is to address a specific need and then disband, but collaborations are formalized organizational relationships which involve a long-term commitment to address critical and complex social issues of wide concern.

Collaboration/coalition is characterized by formal relationships that exist with commonly defined mission, structure, or planning effort. Whereas, cooperation is characterized by informal relationships without these common characteristics (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). In addition, collaboration connotes a more durable and pervasive relationship, as it brings previously separated organizations into a new structure with full commitment to a common mission. In order to be more inclusive, this article uses the terms coalition and collaboration interchangeably. Thus, a coalition or collaboration is broadly defined

here as an effort that unites and empowers individuals and organizations to accomplish collectively what they could not accomplish independently (Kagan & Rivera, 1991).

Why an Ecological Approach?

An ecological model is particularly well-suited to the study of collaborative relationships in the community. This theory looks beyond the individual to the surrounding environment for questions and explanations about human behavior and development. It not only provides a way to describe and explain development but offers a framework for analyzing how to "make the world a better place for children and families" (Garbarino, 1982, p. 31). Studies using an ecological model have shown support for its usefulness in designing programs and in policy formulation (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993).

Human Ecological Theory

Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1986) proposed a model consisting of multiple, interdependent levels that interact with and influence individual behavior and development. The levels are envisioned as a series of concentric circles, with the individual at the center of the model (see Figure 1). The *microsystem* refers to an immediate setting where an individual experiences and creates day-to-day reality, such as the family, the schoolroom, and the neighborhood. The *exosystem* level influences development because it affects some part of the microsystem (i.e., parents' workplace, school administration, and the community) but does not include individual participation. The *macrosystem* level is most removed from an individual, yet these external forces influence family life. The macrosystem is the particular culture or subculture (e.g.,

media, government, and economic conditions) in which the other systems operate. Also, this level would include cultural beliefs and values such as those relating to community collaboration. Values are reflected in policies and regulations regarding issues such as building use, decision making, and funding in communities.

Bronfenbrenner refers to the connection between two microsystems as a *mesosystem*. For example, the overlap of the family and school settings creates a mesosystem. The stronger, more positive, and more diverse the links between settings, the more powerful and beneficial the resulting mesosystem will be as an influence on the child's development (Garbarino, 1982). The characteristics of the child, family, and the community may operate

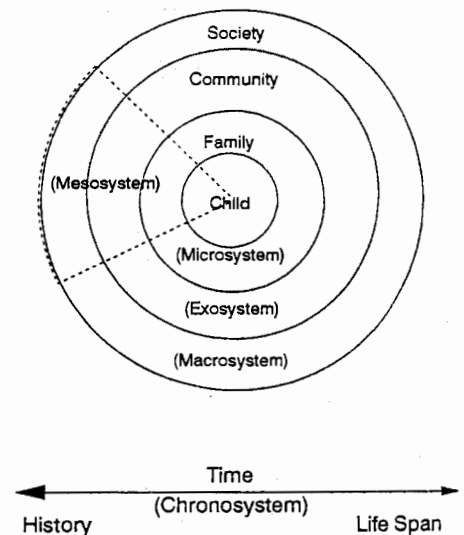


Figure 1. Human ecological model. Adapted from Bronfenbrenner, 1978, 1986.

individually as well as interacting with one another to account for how a particular situation affects a given child, family, or community.

Therefore, the mesosystem representing the connections between different levels of the environment (beyond microsystems) is shown as a *slice* of the total environment. Just how these levels of the environment exert their influence is complex. Community influences may affect the child indirectly through their impact on the family (Bronfenbrenner, Moen, Garbarino, 1984). Taken together, these layers recognize the individual and the interconnectedness among, between, and within human systems.

Another dimension, which Bronfenbrenner (1986) refers to as the *chronosystem*, recognizes that development within the person and within the environment occurs over time. Thus, it is necessary to examine specific life transitions as well as the cumulative effects of these changes throughout life. The arrow pointing to the right in the model represents future events, implying the need to examine "the influence on the person's development of changes (and continuities) over time in the environments in which the person is living" (p. 724). These transitions include normative (puberty, school entry, retirement) and non-normative (accidental death, severe illness, receiving an inheritance) changes that occur throughout the life-span of the individual. The left-pointing arrow in the model represents the cumulative element of historical processes. This signifies that present experience is being mediated by history. As Demos (1986) states, "our present [family] arrangements are best construed as a complex and heavily layered precipitate of our entire social history" (p. 38).

While one's disciplinary training may tend to suggest the individual or family as the unit of analysis, these ecological concepts apply to the

community level as well. Communities, and community groups, have a history and a life course. Societal norms guide group structure, function, and leadership. A community or a group does not exist in isolation but interacts with other players within the community; with individuals, families, and other groups, as well as with other communities. The adage—Think globally, Act locally—captures this concept.

Community Application

Communities are plagued by complex problems that do not respond to "cookbook" solutions. This complexity suggests that it is necessary to have a model that is integrative and interconnected, one that provides the whole picture and a focus on development in context. Community collaboration is about connecting systems at all levels to influence child and family, and consequently, community outcomes. A collaborative effort, therefore, is an ecological approach to problem solving. A coalition is not an end in itself, but rather a *means* of creating community change. The collaboration process empowers communities to address their issues and problems. Thus, in this collaborative process, the community collectively creates its own development. Indeed, if the best programs are created by the community and not superimposed from the outside (Search Institute, 1993), then collaboration is an orientation *every* community must adopt.

Communities do not need fragmented services. Viewing collaborative efforts from an ecological perspective enables community organizations to get an idea where they fit and how their reciprocal relationships affect other sectors, families, and individuals. The collaborative, ecological approach challenges the notion that

families must somehow fail before they can receive assistance (Meszaros, 1993). The focus of a human development collaboration would be one of prevention, an expansion of the safety net for children, youth, and their families (Keith et al., 1993). The challenge for America's communities is to create a supportive and nurturing climate that fosters positive development for *all* members of society.

At the community level, a model has been articulated by Hodgkinson (1989) in relation to community services offered to clients. In Hodgkinson's interdependency model (see Figure 2), the client is the main focus of service organizations, and there is reciprocal interaction among them. Thus, service providers form coalitions to begin communicating and working with each other.

However, from a human ecological perspective, Hodgkinson omitted several important aspects of the system. First, the role that each client, defined as either a family or a child, has to contribute to the process suggests that the arrows in the model need to point in both directions. Interaction between the family or child and the community organizations empowers individuals and allows them to be producers of their own development (Lerner, 1976, 1982). Second, Hodgkinson

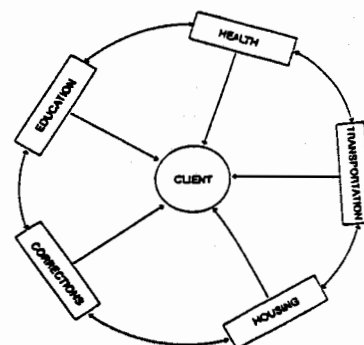


Figure 2. Hodgkinson's interdependency model of service organizations. Hodgkinson, 1989, Fig. 2, p.1.

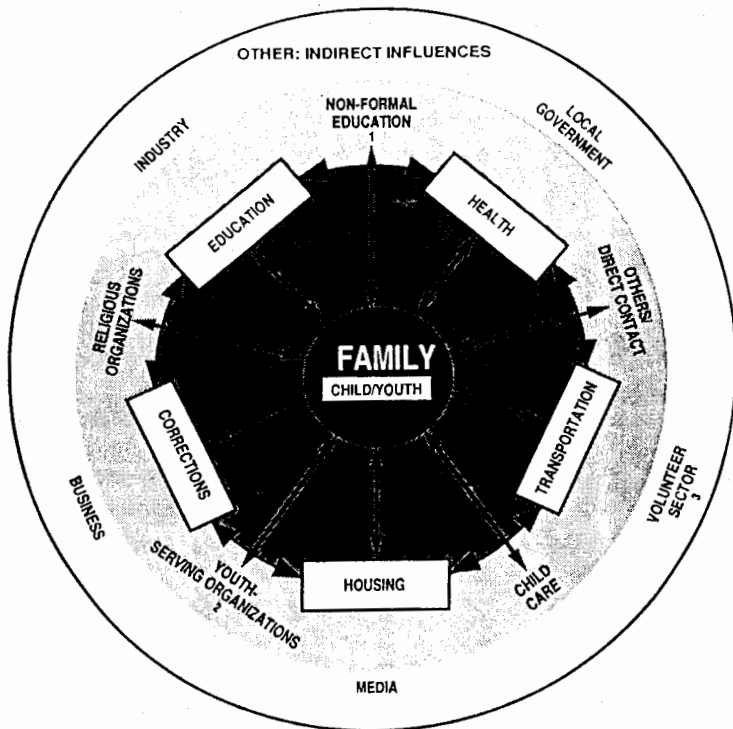


Figure 3. Keith's comprehensive ecological model. Keith, Perkins, Zonqing, Clifford, Gilmore, & Townsend, 1993, Fig. 1, p. 6.

omits religious institutions and the voluntary sector, including youth-serving organizations and service clubs. Finally, he has also excluded the role of indirect influences such as industry, business, and media. Recognizing these limitations, Keith and her colleagues adapted Hodgkinson's model and created a comprehensive ecological model that demonstrates the interaction of families and/or individuals with a variety of services and organizations, as well as the interactions of these organizations with each other (see Figure 3). This model provides the theoretical base for the Community Coalitions in Action project outlined below.

Community Coalitions in Action

Although community-based collaborative efforts on behalf of children, youth, and families have existed for a long time, recent community efforts have arisen to address 1990s circumstances in a variety of ways. Building upon the

human ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986), the Community Coalitions in Action project (CCIA) was established at Michigan State University to conduct research and outreach related to collaboration (Keith et al., 1993). One of the purposes of the project was to identify, document, and evaluate a wide range of collaborative efforts on behalf of Michigan's children, youth, and families. As Bronfenbrenner (1979) suggested, the research was designed to examine the interaction, interdependency, and interconnection among coalitions and coalition members within the natural context of their community.

Procedures

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected using telephone interviews, pilot site visits, a survey questionnaire, and in-depth

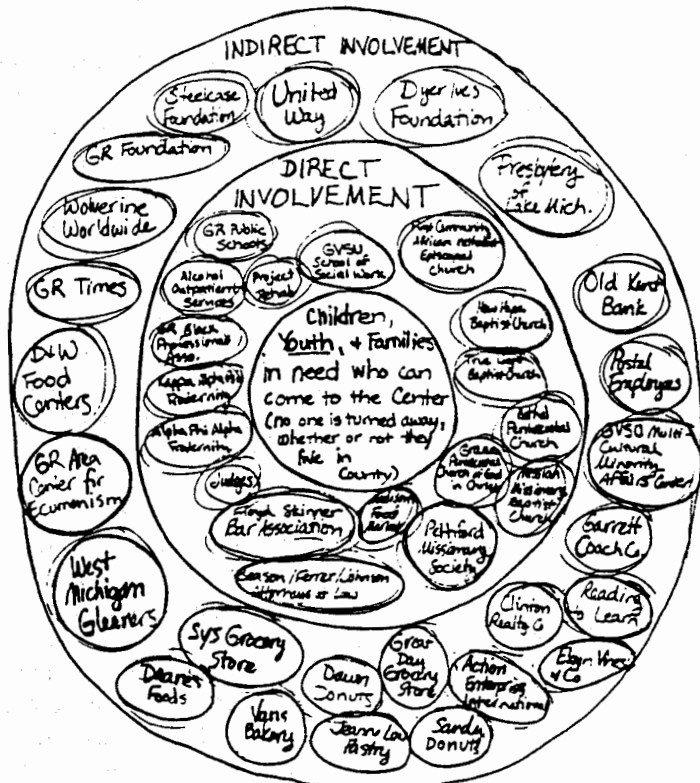


Figure 4. Ecomap of community coalition drawn by coalition members. Keith, Perkins, Zonqing, Clifford, Gilmore, & Townsend, 1993, Fig. 6, p. 22.

Table 1. Definitions of Organizational Systems

Formal systems are characterized by the existence of a hierarchical structure, explicitly defined roles, and fixed procedures and rules.

Semiformal systems function with some planned procedures and rules but participants have an equal voice in decisions and may change rules and roles.

Informal systems are characterized by functional exchanges between participants arising from needs, desires, or personal interests; implicit expectations versus formalized rules; and undefined roles.

Community support systems, human values, and resource management in a family-farm ecosystem. In K. Root, J. Heffernan, G. Summers, & J. Stewart (Eds.), *Conference Proceedings of the North Central Regional Conference on the Rural family, the Rural Community, and Economic Restructuring* (#RRD 159, pp. 193-204). Ames, IA: North Central Regional Center for Rural Development.

interviews. First, over 100 coalitions were identified through a brief survey. From this sample, telephone interviews were conducted with contact persons from 35 coalitions. Based upon variability in geographic location, economic status of the community, and the coalition's organizing framework, 13 sites were selected for follow-up visits to gather both quantitative and qualitative data. Qualitative data analyses were conducted on the in-depth interviews of key members from the 13 coalitions using ETHNOGRAPH (Seidel, Kjolseth, & Seymour, 1985). A search/cluster process, which uses keywords to identify similar concepts found across interviews, was used to formulate an analysis and to highlight major themes. In addition to the interviews, simple checklist questionnaires were given to key members of the 13 coalitions. These

checklists identified certain key variables that were important to their collaborative efforts. Frequencies and means were calculated on responses from checklists. The results reported in this article represent only a portion of the data gathered by this study. The information presented below was gleaned from the in-depth interviews of coalition members.

Findings

Key members of coalitions were asked to cooperatively draw an ecomap to identify members of the community who were involved in their collaborative efforts (see Figure 4). An ecomap is a visual representation of relationships that exist within a larger context (Lauffer, 1982). In this study, the coalition was placed at the center of the ecomap and other individuals, groups, organizations, and agencies were added to represent their direct or indirect involvement with the coalition.

Collaborative Typology. Based upon the community sector which was the motivating force for initiation, leadership, and involvement, the data revealed the following typologies: a) health and human service agency collaborations, b) affiliation group collaborations, c) education collaborations, and d) comprehensive community collaborations with citizen input. Once the typology was identified, the organizational system that characterized its structure was determined by using definitions adapted from Clifford, Bubolz, and Sontag (1992). The type of community sector involvement and the organizational system influenced the focus of collaboratives and how they functioned in carrying out their goals (see Table 1). These four categories of collaborative efforts are described below.

Health and human service agency collaborations. Groups in this category most frequently began

with an initial informal gathering of a small nucleus of representatives from two or three health and human service agencies. Representatives from the religious institutions, courts, and public schools or universities joined forces with health and human service agencies to accomplish mutually agreed-upon goals. These coalitions tended to focus collaborative efforts on developing programs aimed at prevention rather than treatment, on fostering cooperation among agencies to disseminate information, and on preventing duplication of direct services. These collaborations began, for the most part, as informal systems; however, they eventually developed into semiformal frameworks for information dissemination and for service delivery.

Affiliation group collaborations.

Either religious or ethnic groups initiated these collaborative efforts and held leadership positions in them. These groups were joined by representatives from the schools, health and human service agencies, the courts, and private businesses. Coalitions in this category were broad-based, encompassing volunteers from various community sectors who were directly involved with children, youth, and families. Many of these volunteers supported the work of the coalition indirectly. This type of coalition had substantial support from the business sector as well as the support of several funding agencies. The focus was toward community service "to promote mutual respect, understanding, dialogue, and cooperation between the minority communities and the non-minority community" (Interview notes, 9/4/91). These coalitions operated as all-inclusive semiformal systems with resources exchanged both among coalition members and members of the community. Appreciation of diversity and personal volunteer involvement at all

levels were key components in the effective functioning of affiliation group collaborations.

Education collaborations. Groups in this category were focused on schools and school-age children and youth. This type of coalition was comprised mostly of school personnel and community business people. The major goal of these collaborations was assessment of the needs of students relative to skill development for future employment. These coalitions not only had formal organization characteristics but also characteristics of semiformal systems with respect to decision-making procedures.

Comprehensive community collaborations with citizen input. Members of these coalitions were simply concerned citizens; their volunteer participation was not due to affiliation with any particular group or organization. Their participation was made possible through administrators in the workplace who approved released time for involvement in community activities. Whereas the leadership of these coalitions relied on an existing youth development leader (e.g., Cooperative Extension agents, YMCA staff), perhaps the distinguishing element of this type of coalition was the existence of a committed group of people working to find solutions to critical needs. The focus of these coalitions tended to be based on identified needs from some form of assessment (i.e., town meeting, surveys). The coalition sought funds for specific projects as needs were identified. Programs included such things as substance abuse prevention, education regarding family functions, employment skill development, and parental involvement with children and their communities.

Common Elements of Coalitions

The common elements were derived from in-depth interviews

with key members from 13 coalitions. The elements were considered *common* if they were observed in more than three of the coalitions.

Because collaborative efforts depend on people, there is no exact formula for developing an effective coalition (Benard, 1989). However, certain elements were found in a majority of the coalitions examined in this study. More than half of the coalitions attributed a significant part of their effectiveness in the community to **strong leadership** within their groups. Specific traits of successful leaders included strong determination and optimism. They had the ability to seek resources, to act as a facilitator, and to recruit the right people.

Unity and communication were also important common elements in the overall effectiveness of the coalitions. **Unity** refers to the strong sense of solidarity and togetherness that coalition members felt toward one another; over half of the coalitions assessed this element as an integral part of their effectiveness. Effective **communication**, through informal means, was another common element identified by more than half of the coalitions as important to their functioning. Networking, defined as an informal way of sharing information among coalition members, provided a sense of closeness. Networking was cited as the major means of communication among coalition members.

The **involvement of churches and citizen volunteers** was found to be a common element among many of the coalitions. Thus, **locality**, the sense of connectedness to the people served and commitment to the community, was another element that contributed to coalition effectiveness. Many coalitions agreed that the target group, served by the coalition, must have the final say in defining its own problem. Locality also meant that a coalition must establish itself as an

authority on the issues it was attempting to address.

Open-mindedness, trust, enjoyable involvement, personal commitment, and willingness to volunteer were **traits of coalition members** contributing to the effectiveness of the coalition. These characteristics were important because collaboration is a social process and attention to *people* issues can determine success (Benard, 1989).

Distinctive Elements

A *distinctive element* refers to that feature that was not shared by any other coalition. These elements may shed new light on unique factors contributing to the successful development and functioning of collaborative efforts. Three such elements are described below.

Autonomous Funding. In most situations outside funding was looked upon favorably and even regarded as essential to a coalition's effectiveness. However, one coalition, formed on behalf of youth at risk, had a different philosophy on outside funding. This group believed that reliance on major outside grants, although assuring the continuation of the work on a year-to-year basis, would reduce volunteer motivation and would encourage dependency on outside money. When outside money runs out, sometimes programs die even though they were intended to be long-term and sustainable. The coalition members in this case did not want to downplay the importance of outside funding. Rather, they asserted that funding should be sought in such a way that goals and interests of the coalition are not ignored. Funding was considered the means to accomplish the goals of this collaborative effort, not as an end in itself.

Media. The effect of the mass media on the public has long been recognized. In business, intentional use of mass media advertising is considered vital to success. However,

in human services, intentional use of mass media to help achieve participation in the formation of goals and objectives is not a common practice. One of the coalitions interviewed in the CCIA project attributed some of its effectiveness to the publicity and support the coalition received from the local media. In one coalition member's words, the local newspaper "played an important role in alerting the community to the goals and efforts of the coalition to work . . . collaboratively in solving problems of youth." The attention received from the media increased awareness among citizens, youth, and families; and, in addition, the publicity established the authority and legitimacy of the coalition's work.

Community problem definition.

People *are* aware of their own needs and problems. Thus, using the target audience as a resource to define its own problems is often fundamental to conducting a needs assessment and to building a successful coalition. Moreover, using a community to define its own problems can empower and motivate the members of that community to act. For example, a Native American coalition found that its leadership needed to come from within. A sense of mission and pride generated by leadership was one of the most valuable assets of this collaboration. This was their land, their problem, and their future. In their opinion, "the assistance and the programs that came from outside the community and from outside agencies were doomed to failure" (Interview notes, 6/28/91). This coalition's strong sentiment demonstrates the fact that mobilization of local people to address their own problems can be crucial to successful collaboration.

Community Application of Research Findings

This study was an initial attempt to document and to understand

collaborative efforts as they exist in their own context. Common and unique elements associated with effective collaborative efforts were outlined. Thus, models of community collaboration have evolved from this action research.

Continued research is needed to document the successes and struggles of collaborative relationships but with a new research paradigm—one that adopts an empowerment orientation (Vaines, 1993) where "communities [are] not only receiving information, but also conveying to universities their needs and working together to address those needs" (Keith, McPherson, & Smith-Sreen, 1992). The CCIA project team used the understanding gained about collaborative efforts to inform community outreach efforts. Two examples of this integration of research and outreach follow.

Coalition training. The *Alliance for Community Empowerment* (ACE) program was developed to provide community teams with training in the skills that groups need to form and maintain collaborative efforts. The integral involvement of youth in the community team is a distinctive feature that enhances ownership of the process. As a result of this training, teams from four community groups have begun to focus on identified community needs.

Technical assistance. What happens during the initial phase of a collaborative effort can be crucial to its eventual success. CCIA project staff have met directly with community groups to help them clarify their mission and develop strategies for implementing their goals. This assistance is tailored to the needs expressed by the group and to their particular stage of development. The staff members act in concert with coalition group members, not as "experts" who have the answer.

Implications for Home Economics and Human Ecology

Participation in collaborative efforts positions home economists/human ecologists in significant roles for resolving the issues facing children, youth, and families. Brown & Paolucci (1979) stated that home economists need to have "direct involvement in [the process of] seeking needed social and cultural change through participation in social action groups and assisting in the formulation of social policy . . ." (p. 36). The mix of philosophy, theory, and practice suggests a variety of roles for home economists/human ecologists in establishing collaborative relationships. The following suggestions may help get the collaborative *dinosaur to dance*.

Learn Some New Steps

Consider using the ecomap as a tool to identify current and potential working relationships in the community. Identify agencies, and specific people within those organizations, that could collaborate on an identified community issue. Professionals can adopt the attitude that community collaboration is a reciprocal relationship: In other words, professionals have as much to learn as they have to offer.

Get Out on the Dance Floor

Although community needs are urgent, careful planning is essential: "instant collaboration may bring instant gratification, . . . [but] it is not likely to bring lasting success" (Guthrie & Guthrie, 1991, p. 22). Home economists and human ecologists can stress the need for comprehensive programs. Guthrie & Guthrie (1991, p. 18) point out that "to move from program-driven to child-centered services, we also need to improve our understanding of children's needs, monitor them over

time, and take a broader contextual view of how to help." The interdisciplinary knowledge base of home economics/human ecology relates directly to society's most pressing needs. As professionals who have an understanding of the multiple contexts of human development, we can pinpoint critical developmental transitions, identify potential target audiences, and suggest promising program delivery strategies. Assistance can be given to communities to assess critical needs from an ecological perspective. Although professionals may know what the needs are likely to be, community ownership of the process and, therefore, the results is essential to creating change.

Choose Your Partners

The theory and practice of collaboration has implications for the professional preparation of students in home economics and human ecology. New professionals need to enter the community with the knowledge, attitudes, and skills essential to work with diverse groups. Are faculty and programs geared to educate students according to a collaborative, ecological paradigm? The answer to that question varies, but opportunities can be created for student involvement to bridge the community and the classroom. Certainly the *process* of collaboration is as important as content knowledge. The leadership, communication, decision making, conflict resolution, and social and interpersonal skills that are important for effective collaboration can be facilitated in formal and nonformal learning situations. The process of skill building can continue also through mentoring relationships with experienced collaborators and through ongoing professional development.

The Dance of Collaboration: Putting Theory into Practice

Human ecology principles must be more widely used as a basis for human action by professionals, policy makers, and citizens at large in order to achieve changes that are needed for human betterment, [for] realization of universal values, and for improved quality of human life and quality of environment, both locally and globally (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993, p. 443).

Although dramatic social and economic changes have an impact on society, Bronfenbrenner (1983) maintains that families are still the most powerful and economical units for making and keeping human beings human. Supportive communities are essential for creating systems that nurture families. This ecological relationship is captured by a quote from the W. T. Grant Foundation's report, *The Forgotten Half* (1988):

Responsive communities, along with good schools and strong families, form a triad that supports youth in their passage to work and adult life. Our country has always held that good families create good communities. Now we also need to work on the reverse—that good communities build strong families (p. 49).

An understanding of ecological theory can lead home economists/human ecologists to form collaborative relationships in the community to prevent problems and to create solutions for the situations facing children, youth, and families.

Responsive professionals can make a difference; they can help dinosaurs learn to dance.

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Call for Nominees—

The Nominating Committee hereby issues a call for applications for the 1994 KON Election for the offices of President-Elect, Vice President/Program, and Secretary and for members of the Nominating Committee and the Editorial Committee. Deadline for applications is July 15. Request the application from the Kappa Omicron Nu National Office.

Honorary Member Nominations—

The Honorary Membership Committee invites members to submit nominations for National Honorary Member. Persons outside the field who have made distinctive scholarly and research contributions to the field are eligible for nomination.

1995-96 Fellowships

Master's Fellowship

Eileen C. Maddex Fellowship, \$2,000 - awarded from the Omicron Nu Fellowship Fund.
National Alumni Fellowship, \$1,000 - awarded by the National Alumni Chapter.

Adviser's Fellowship

Dorothy I. Mitstifer Fellowship, \$2,000 - awarded from the Kappa Omicron Phi Fellowship Fund and targeted primarily to chapter advisers for graduate or postgraduate study.

Doctoral Fellowships

Hettie M. Anthony Fellowship, \$2,000 - awarded from the Kappa Omicron Phi Fellowship Fund.
Mildred Dransfield Fellowship, \$2,000 - awarded for doctoral study from the Kappa Omicron Phi Fellowship Fund.
Omicron Nu Research Fellowship - \$2,000 - awarded for doctoral research.

1995-96 Research Grants

National Alumni Chapter Grant, \$500.

New Initiatives Grant, \$3,000.

One or more grants will be awarded for proposals that meet the criteria listed below:

Research Priority:

Cross-Specialization and Integrative Research.

Focus for 1993-1997: Cultural diversity and Minority Issues in Home Economics.

Further Information about Fellowships and Grants may be secured from the Kappa Omicron Nu National Office, 4990 Northwind Drive, Suite 140, East Lansing, MI 48823-5031. Phone: (517)351-8335.

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The Board of Directors of Kappa Omicron Nu, at its annual meeting in January 1994, recommended unanimously a new outcome statement. **The mission of Kappa Omicron Nu Honor Society is empowered leaders for Family and Consumer Sciences.**

Information from recent focus groups and the member survey provided the basis for long-range planning and deliberation by the Board. According to President Virginia Clark, "Greater than the myriad activities of an honor society is the *why* of its existence. The only justifiable reason for Kappa Omicron Nu to exist is to produce worthwhile results. This focused mission will enhance the ability of the organization and chapters to prepare scholars and researchers as leaders for the 21st century."

The development of empowered leaders will require a) visionary leadership skills that enable members to provide direction to the profession and empower others to meet their full potential, b) an organizational environment that supports mission-driven programming, and c) strong collegiate and alumni chapters that develop empowered leaders.

In 1995 the Kappa Omicron Nu governance body, the Assembly of Delegates, will consider the above recommended outcome statement. In the meantime, the Board wishes to promote a thoughtful dialogue about the proposed mission. Members are encouraged to write support statements for this thrust or to propose alternatives. Write to KON, 4990 Northwind Drive, Suite 140, East Lansing, MI 48823.

Newly Elected Officers

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