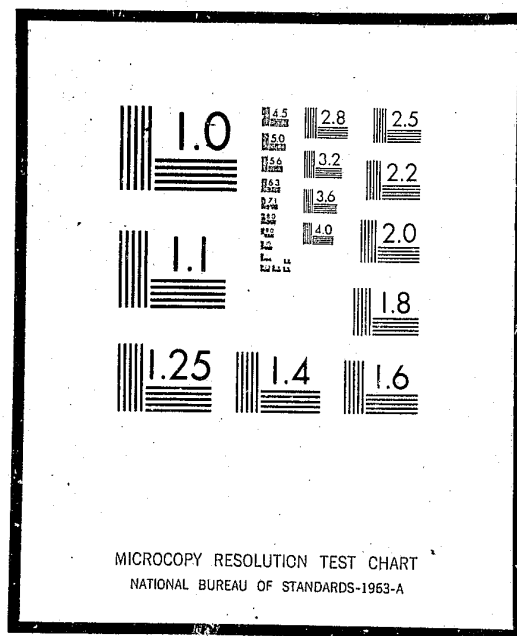# NCJRS

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
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WASHINGTON, D.C. 20531

Date filmed 4/12/76

R-75-108

LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION
POLICE TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE REPORT

SUBJECT: China, Maine, Police Consolidation Feasibility Analysis (ME)

REPORT NUMBER: 75-59

FOR: China, Maine and the Maine Criminal Justice Planning and Assistance Agency

China, Maine   Population: 2,400-2,500 (est. winter)
                             4,500-5,000 (est. summer)

China, Maine   Police Strength: none

CONTRACTOR: Westinghouse Justice Institute

CONSULTANT: Frank J. Leahy, Jr.

CONTRACT NUMBER: J-LEAA-003-76

DATE: December 1, 1975

30613

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APPENDICES

Foreword

This request for technical assistance was made by the Maine Criminal Justice Planning and Assistance Agency (State Planning Agency). The requested assistance was concerned with examining available options in planning law enforcement services for the Town of China, Maine. The town, the population of which approximately doubles with the influx of summer residents, at present has no law enforcement services. The problem was set forth as, "an opportunity to look at a town without services who may be receptive to participating in either contractual type activities or some form of joint municipal activity." It was further considered as, "a good opportunity to offer alternatives to the town in respect to such things as cost of developed services vs. area and regional developed services where the town can contribute to the cost."*

Initiating Agencies:

Town of China, Mr. Ira Singer, Town Manager

North Kennebec Regional Planning Commission, Ms. Diane E. Stetson, Regional Planner

State Planning Agency:

Maine Criminal Justice Planning and Assistance Agency, Mr. Ivan La Bree, Deputy Director, Program Development Division

LEAA Region I:

Mr. John J. Keeley, Police Specialist

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* Letter from Mr. LaBree to Mr. Keeley, dated August 19, 1975.

1. INTRODUCTION

From initial discussions with Mr. LaBree, in Augusta, it became readily apparent to the Consultant that the problem to be addressed had two dimensions and not one, as indicated in his letter to Mr. Keeley. One dimension concerned the instant problem in China, Maine; in essence, what should China do with regard to a felt need for law enforcement services in the absence of an organized police department? The other dimension emerged from discussions with Mr. LaBree. Essentially, the problem is: What should the Maine Criminal Justice Planning and Assistance Agency (MCJPAA) do with similar requests from similar towns in view of a recently completed Study of Police Services in the State of Maine,* and in view of existing and (in many cases) immediate desires for short-term solutions?

The New England Bureau's report recommended a "two-tier" law enforcement system (State and substate) rather than the usual three-tier system-- State, county, and municipal. Achieving the recommended two-tier system was said to be in the long-term interests of the State, and an obvious long-term goal. Conversely, finding a solution or desirable alternative course of action for China might conflict with the two-tier goal.

Therefore, two problems are addressed herein: What should China do about its presumed need for law enforcement services, and what should the MCJPAA do with similar requests in the future?

Persons interviewed include the following:

- Mr. LaBree.

- Ms. Stetson.

- Mr. Singer.

_____

*New England Bureau for Criminal Justice Services; Dedham, Massachusetts, April 1974.

2. UNDERSTANDING OF THE PROBLEM

2.1 Law Enforcement for China, Maine

Although there are no crime statistics available, it is felt that the law enforcement problem in China is largely one involving crimes against property -- burglary, breaking and entering, and vandalism. Order maintenance, generally, and problems relating to the operation of the town dump and to limiting access to certain unimproved town roads in the spring, specifically, are also cited as continuing causes for concern.

Serious crimes, including crimes against persons, elicit a response from the Maine State Police and/or the Kennebec County Sheriff's Office. However, neither agency (presumably) has the resources to provide an effective level of patrol in the China area nor adequate resources to handle the nonviolent and nonserious crimes that plague most communities.

The following descriptions of the situation in China apply:

- Current population is estimated to be 2400-2500 residents. The official 1970 census lists 1850. They have experienced approximately a 25-percent growth rate in the last five years. China is the fastest growing community in Kennebec County.

- The average age of the population seems to be shifting downward.

- Twenty to 25 new homes have been built each year since 1970.

- China is a recreational area attracting many tourists. There are approximately 425 seasonal residents. Summer population is around 4500 to 5000 residents.

- The Town of China is composed of four villages. Population is centered in the four villages and around China Lake, which comprises one-quarter to one-third of China's area.

- China has five volunteer part-time constables with no formal law enforcement training.

- Although there are no statistics available to indicate crime specifically in China, it is felt that property crimes are the most prevalent.

- China expends no money at present for law enforcement purposes.

- China possesses no law enforcement equipment.

Additional information gleaned discussions provided the following details:

- Law Enforcement does not exist in China; the constables are unpaid and they do nothing. The title is largely honorary.

- Five selectmen are elected at large each year, and they meet once per week. Although they can adopt new programs, such actions require ratification by the town meeting, especially if an appropriation is involved.

- The Town has adopted several ordinances that are exercises of the police power, including land use, regulations relating to mobile homes, etc.

- Fire protection is adequate from several volunteer forces. However, there is little likelihood of obtaining public safety (i.e., fire and police services) from these organizations.

The provision of law enforcement services in other towns within Kennebec County and one neighboring town (Palermo) in Waldo County was also examined. Six towns have full-time police officers. These include (with the number of officers in parenthesis): Augusta (40); Waterville (33); Gardner (11); Winslow (5); Hallowell (4); and Oakland (3).

Other towns include Belgrade (with CETA-funded personnel); Monmouth (which has upgraded its constable system at an annual cost that increased from approximately $3,500 to $15,000 per year), and Palermo (which has a volunteer operation of some 18 to 20 citizens who act as "observers" without any enforcement powers per se).

The Sheriff's responsibilities and enforcement programs include a newly funded (by the MCJPAA) rural patrol, consisting of one officer, one vehicle, and one radio. Given the 24 cities, towns, and townships without organized police forces and an area of 872 square miles, the value of the rural patrol force to China is very marginal, at best.

During specific discussions centered on alternative courses of action open to the town of China, Mr. Singer produced a copy of a planning document entitled, "Town of China Law Enforcement Program Planning Sequence" (See Figure 2-1). Mr. Singer described his approach as a "systems approach" to community problemsolving. As can be seen in Figure 2-1, the seven major activities were to be accomplished over the period of 2 1/2 months from late September to mid-December. While this approach has merit and could prove to be successful, the Consultant suggested that a "community planning model" which used a similar approach might be more successful. The basic difference lies in the persons involved -- town officials and constables in the first, and a broad-based citizen task force in the other. The latter approach is recommended in a later section of this report.

Discussion then centered on the range of alternatives open to the Town of China. These include:

- WATS line service to the State Police and Sheriff's office, at an annual cost of $2,500.

- Contracting with the Town of Winslow for law enforcement services.

- Radio service tied into the Waterville Communications Center at a charge of $500 per year (a requirement if the Winslow contract were chosen).

- Establishing its own police department at a cost of $25,000 to $30,000 per year.

- Establishing a part-time security patrol with or without constables, and paid or unpaid. (This represents several alternatives within an alternative.)

- Setting up one or more crime prevention programs, (e.g., "Neighborhood Watch," which is being promoted by the Kennebec County's Sheriff's Office).

- Enacting stringent anti-burglary (target hardening) ordinances, similar to architectural ordinances enacted in Oakland, California.

MAJOR ACTIVITY PHASE	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	October				November				December		NUMBER OF MEETINGS AND HOURS REQUIRED
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	
I. Problem Definition	Selectmen Town Mg'r. Police Planner Constables LEAA	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX										3 joint meetings and 1 public meeting plus regular work hours
II. Establishment of Objectives	Selectmen Town Mg'r. Constables					XXXXXXXXXXX						1 or 2 joint meetings plus regular work hours
III. Delineation of Alternatives	Selectmen Police Planner Town Mg'r. Constables							XXXXXXXXXXX				
IV. Selection of Alternatives through Systems Analysis	Town Mg'r. Police Planner									XXXXXX		15-20 regular hours
V. Decision Combining Cost Effect Alternatives	Selectmen Town Mg'r. Constables										XX	1 joint meeting
VI. Implementation	Town Mg'r. Constables										XXXXXXXXX	part of regular responsibilities
VII. Program Evaluation	Town Mg'r. Selectmen										XXXXXXXXXX	

Figure 2-1. Town of China Proposed Planning Schedule

Considerable discussion centered on the possibility of contracting with Winslow for law enforcement services. Ms. Stetson pointed out that the MCJPAA would probably fund purchase of a radio-equipped vehicle and salary for one year, if the town would continue the service after that time. Specific contractual details were discussed, such as provisions that the town might want to insert in the contract (including officer selection, residency in the town, salary, control by the town, recall by the Town of Winslow in case of emergency, etc.).

Other matters discussed included:

- Obtaining a surplus four-wheeled vehicle and radio from Civil Defense sources, in lieu of a vehicle supplied by the MCJPAA.

- The need for a survey or data collection instrument that would seek information from the citizens of China about victimization and their desires regarding law enforcement services, and whether they would be willing to pay for them.

The meeting concluded with agreement on the following: (a) Going ahead with crime prevention efforts; (b) favoring a security-type patrol alternative; and (c) keeping options open regarding contractual services, most likely with Winslow.

2.2 A Community Planning Model for Maine

Meetings with Mr. LaBree prior to and subsequent to the visit to China confirmed the need for a "format" to address the law enforcement needs of the several hundred Maine communities without law enforcement services. Specifically, the "format" is needed by the seven regional planning commissions and their regional planners who deal with law enforcement and criminal justice problems.

3. ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Analyzing the problem, one might ask, Why a community-based approach? The answer is simple; in the final analysis, it is the community that must act, that must do what it thinks must be done to achieve specific crime reduction, crime resistance and/or crime prevention goals.

In a recent issue of the Community Crime Prevention Letter*, this position is borne out by excerpts from a special report about the community of Orinda, California -- an unincorporated area in Contra Costa County. The article describes how there a burglary prevention program was organized and how it has operated; selected excerpts follow:

> The genesis of the successful citizens crime prevention effort is interesting. At first, community leaders campaigned for "more police protection," but quickly realized that more police patrols can do little to fight burglaries, learned that most of the burglaries came from their own community (not from the outside) and decided that the response needed was citizen participation. The result: Burglary has been cut 48% since the founding of the Orinda Association Crime Prevention Committee in 1970. The effort inspired community organizers Shirley Henke and Stephanie Mann to write a manual based on the Orinda experience. The publication, Alternative to Fear: Guidelines for Safer Neighborhoods (c. 1975) is available from Lex-Cal-Tex Press, P.O. Box 5512, Walnut Creek, CA 94596. Single copies are priced at $2.95, plus 35 cents for shiping...

> ...The purpose of our Neighborhood Responsibility Program was to persuade residents that 5200 households watching out for each other was far more effective than any amount of police patrol. Residents were very unhappy about their burglary problem in 1969. On a community-wide questionnaire they put additional police protection at the top of their list of priorities. Yet it was clear that local government was unable to deliver the extra services they wanted. It was also clear to a handful of citizens talking with our Sheriff's Department that additional patrolmen would not alleviate our problem.

---

* Vol. 3, No. 1 (Part 2), September 1975.

We were well aware that burglary was becoming an all too frequent occurrence in our own neighborhoods and community. What really bothered us was that while fear and anxiety about crime were being expressed on all sides by ordinary citizens, they seemed unable or unwilling to translate their concern into constructive activity. "Why don't 'they' do something about it?" people would ask. 'They' meant the government--especially the police.

A community attitude survey revealed a need to change attitudes:

We could see that popular attitudes would have to be a major target in our citizens' program against crime. In addition, we were going to have to show people that neither the police nor government could do the job alone and that they were heavily dependent on the public to carry their share of the responsibility. We were also going to have to show citizens exactly what and how much they could do.

A small, ad-hoc committee envisioned a two-fold program of grass-roots action to deal with the situation:

*An education program based in the neighborhoods and depending on citizen initiative.

*A program to develop more intensive police response.

At this early stage, the committee presented its innovative concepts to the sheriff, who responded with encouragement and professional assistance. A small portion of police time was committed to one or two meetings in each neighborhood of the community. Two burglary specialists were assigned to participate in these neighborhood meetings.

The earliest work of the committee was to convince the police that creating a neighborhood base was a worthwhile experiment. Establishing relationships to small neighborhood groups would reach a level of effectiveness historically not possible through attempts at mass-education.

But more than that, citizen involvement in planning and organization was needed to move neighborhoods to action. It was this new perspective on the meaning of citizen participation that became the heart of the program.

Trust and confidence had to be developed between the committee and the police. The commitment and reliability of the citizens convinced the police that they were dealing with a responsible volunteer organization that was both demanding and effective. To encourage mass involvement, neighborhood meetings were scheduled all over the community. This gave neighbors the opportunity to meet each other and get better acquainted in order to catalyze neighborly concern for each other. These meetings also provided an informal give-and-take session between the police officers and the residents on the subject of home security and the specific ways in which neighbors could help protect each other against burglary.

Key observations about the program in Orinda are worth noting:

...We deliberately chose the small group meeting in a private home over larger meetings in less personal places such as churches and schools...

...We had hurdles to overcome. In the first place, people didn't volunteer--they had to be invited, in fact, personally recruited...

...Personal contact has been the keynote to the success of this program in all phases of its development...

The program was adjudged "amazingly successful" in reducing burglaries. A concluding excerpt follows:

The program has been amazingly successful in reducing burglaries. Between 1966 and 1969, burglaries in our community jumped more than 100%, for a total of nearly 400 a year. At the end of 1972, after the program had been established for two and a half years, burglaries had been reduced by nearly 50% and stayed down

throughout 1974. Moreover, we are enjoying our
lowest statistics in the last seven years. It's
not just a coincidence that we developed a per-
manent community structure for conduct of the
program, nor is it a coincidence that well over
half the population has been involved in neighbor-
hood meetings. Information furnished by residents
as a sequel to these meetings has resulted in
some dramatic chases and arrests. When you under-
stand that often one burglar is responsible for
a number of burglaries, you can comprehend how
effective just one tip can be in preventing
future crimes.

4. RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 A Community Planning Methodology for Law Enforcement Services

If it is assumed that a community study group is to be formed to evaluate the crime problem from a resistance/prevention aspect or a law enforcement aspect, or both, and if it is assumed that the study group is representative of the various geographic areas, political and social organizations and other criteria to ensure a "broad-based" group, the choice of a chairman to lead the group is crucial. He or she must be a community leader, and must have sufficient time to accord to the planning effort during a period of 4 to 5 months.

Once this selection are settled, it is important to do the following:

- o Secure outside technical assistance, preferably from the regional criminal justice planner.

- o Formulate specific study group objectives in writing before the first meeting.

- o Formulate a tentative work plan for presentation to the group.

The first meeting should be concerned with establishing study group ground rules, meeting dates, and target dates for the completion of the items in the work plan (which, of course, are subject to revision or amendment). The meeting should also concern itself with defining terms such as goal, objective, needs, program, effectiveness, and others which will be used in the process (see Appendix A).

The planning methodology recommended in this report is an adaptation of a methodology used by numerous Connecticut cities and towns as part of a State-sponsored Community Development Action Plan (CDAP) program. The Consultant participated in three such efforts in Connecticut: Wethersfield, Manchester, and West Hartford. Most of the material presented here is adapted from materials developed and used by the author, with others, while with the Travelers Research Corporation. A paper, Municipal Goal Setting, prepared by the author in collaboration with R. F. Robotham for the International City Management Association is included as Appendix A. Much of the following methodology is adopted from that paper and from a second by R. F. Robotham and H. K. Gayen, A Presentation of the Community Development Action Plan Process of the State of Connecticut, presented at the 1970 Conference of the National Operations Research Society held in Detroit, October 29, 1970.

4.1.1 Step 1 -- Formulation of Goals

The first task is to set forth some basic goals that the community should attempt to achieve. There is a growing body of literature on goals and goal-setting. Particular emphasis should be placed on the reports of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (NAC). Publications of the NAC which are particularly pertinent include its volumes on the Police and on Community Crime Prevention.

Goal setting is a key to all other tasks and should receive sufficient emphasis to ensure a near-comprehensive set of goals--even though the goals may later be subject to revision or amendment. Additionally, goals must be meaningful and relate to successive steps in the project.

A goal-formulation checklist should include the following, assuming that the terms "goal" and "objectives" have been clearly defined and that goals from other community planning efforts are made available for study and comparison. (A selected list of goal formulation literature is contained in the Selected Bibliography of Appendix A, and in an additional list developed by TRC which is included as Appendix B.)

- Discuss goal formulation. Review alternative sets of goals for the U.S., State, and other communities. Discuss the implementation of goals, goal-setting, and goal conflict.

- Review and react to collected sets of goals relating to crime and law enforcement. Discuss their implementation; suggest new goals and reject the goals in whole or part.

- Examine and analyze implicit and explicit values upon which the goals are based. Question the values; attempt to clarify them.

- Prepare a set of tentative goals.

- Identify conflicting goals (or goals which are mutually exclusive).

- Have the study group reconcile the differences, if any.

- Redraft tentative goal statements.

4.1.2 Step 2 -- Survey, Inventory, and Analysis of Community Needs and Problems

While goal-setting is proceeding, Step 2 can be started. Staff should be used to identify community needs and problems. A questionnaire similar to the one contained in Section 4.2 could be employed to uncover problems, test community attitudes, etc. A memorandum should be submitted to the study group outlining findings and conclusions of the analysis--but without recommendations.

4.1.3 Step 3 -- Goal Redefinition and 5-year Objectives

This is in actuality an extension of Step 1 as regards goals--and adds 5-year objective statements which might, for example, call for a 25 percent reduction in residential burglaries by 1978 and a 50 percent reduction by 1980.

4.1.4 Step 4 -- Analysis of Ways and Means to Meet the Needs and Problems That Have Been Identified Within the Context of Goals and Objectives As Defined

In the course of this Step, various alternatives should be developed to meet the needs and problems, as defined. The regional planner should be able to provide general and specific suggestions about programs undertaken elsewhere (e.g., the one in Orinda, California) or may be able to structure new or innovative programs for the study group's consideration.

Connecticut's CDAP program called for a second level of analysis once the alternatives had been formulated. Consideration was directed to the economic, human resources, physical resources and management perspectives. In turn, they asked:

- Economic -- How much will it cost to execute the alternatives?

- Human Resources -- Who will be the recipients? Who will operate it? How many people and with what skills?

- Physical Resources -- What physical (nondollar) resources are required by the alternatives under study? Equipment? Facilities? Other?

- Management -- How is the alternative to be managed and by whom? Essentially, how do things get done?

4.1.5 Step 5 -- Determination and Scheduling of Priorities

Once alternatives have been devised and structured, they should be set down in priority sequence and scheduled for later implementation. In the case of China, a burglary prevention program might be the first order of business, perhaps modeled after the Orinda experience or it might be something altogether different.

4.1.6 Step 6 -- Formulation of an Action Plan

This would be the first major end-product of the process; its content would depend largely on the scope of the preceeding five steps. It could, for example, be a one-page statement regarding the necessary next steps. It could also be a 10-, 20-, or 30-page document that lays out a 5-year program. Much will depend upon the size of the community, nature and seriousness of the problems, etc.

4.1.7 Step 7 -- Program Implementation and Institutionalization of the (Community) Crime Resistance Task Force

The final step should be one concerned with implementation of the program or programs agreed upon and the formation of a group to continue its efforts in this and other crime resistance efforts.

4.1.8 Summation

The "product" is important (i.e., the "action plan" called for in Step 6 and its implementation in Step 7). More important, however, is the process by which the result was achieved. Citizen participation and involvement is the key ingredient that makes community planning a more successful alternative. It has been proven in many communities, as attested by the many articles cited in Appendix B.

4.2 Property Crime Survey

Presented in Figure 4-1 is a suggested property crime victimization survey guide.

THIS SURVEY IS BEING CONDUCTED BY THE TOWN OF _____ .
AS PART OF AN EFFORT TO CURB THE INCIDENCE OF PROPERTY CRIMES
(BURGLARY, BREAKING AND ENTERING AND VANDALISM) IN THE COMMUN-
ITY. PLEASE COMPLETE ALL ITEMS, SIGN (IF YOU WISH) AND RE-
TURN IN THE ENCLOSED ENVELOPE AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

1. Do you own or rent property in_____?
   own ( )   rent ( )

2. How long have you lived at this property? _____years

3. Do you occupy the property year-round? yes ( ) no ( )
   If "no" _____months per year

4. Has your property been burglarized, entered or vandal-
   ized during the past five years? yes ( ) no ( ).

5. If "yes" how many times? _____   When was the most
   recent crime?   19____

6. For the most recent crime, please supply the following:

   --Date_____
   --Day of the week_____
   --Hour of the day (approximate if unknown)_____
   --Value of property taken_____
   --Type of property taken (e.g., tv, stereo, jewelry, etc.)

   _____

   --Was any of the property recovered? If so, what and how?

   _____

   --Was the thief apprehended? yes ( ) no ( )
   --Did any police force respond to a call for assistance?
     yes ( ) no ( )   If yes, which police force?_____
     _____ How long after a call was made?
   _____

7. Before the crime occurred, did you take any precautions
   to prevent it from happening? yes ( ) no ( ) If so,
   what?_____
   _____

Figure 4-1. Property Crime Survey Guide
             (Page 1 of 2)

9. What can be done to prevent property crimes in the Town of_____?

_____

_____

_____

10. Would you be willing to pay additional taxes to lower the incidence of property crimes in the community?

1 mill	yes ( )	no ( )
2 mills	yes ( )	no ( )
3 mills	yes ( )	no ( )

11. Would you be willing to serve on a crime resistance and law enforcement study committee? yes ( ) no ( )

    If yes, please indicate your name and address below.

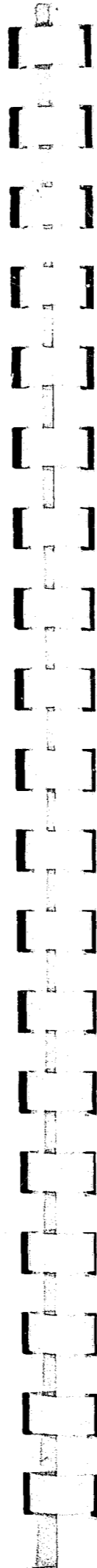12. Optional information, not required but desirable:

    (a) Other comments_____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    (b) Name_____

        Address_____

        Telephone_____

Figure 4-1. Property Crime Survey Guide
(Page 2 of 2)

MUNICIPAL GOAL-SETTING

Virtually every city or town is now engaging in some form of planning, either short- or long-range, and many are attempting to set some definite milestones for the attainment of planned objectives. However, goal-setting goes beyond customary physical planning to consider basic questions about the future quality of life in the community. Once goals have been considered and adopted, plans and objectives geared toward achievement of those goals become more meaningful.

The task of setting community goals is no simple exercise. Values are questioned, suspicions are aroused, conflict is almost inevitable, and agreement or compromise on proposed goals sometimes seems impossible.

There is much to be learned about the goal-formulation process. This report examines goal-setting programs in a number of U.S. cities, focusing on the process itself and, where possible, the results of these programs.

While goal formulation at the municipal level may be considered new, the process itself is not without precedent in American history. The greatest and no doubt most far-reaching goal-formulation project took place nearly 200 years ago in Philadelphia when a small group of dedicated men met to formulate the Declaration of Independence.

Since that historic effort which made "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" a well-known phrase, Americans have devoted considerable rhetoric to the subject of goals, for themselves, their children, and their nation. Some of these goals have been stated; many more implied. They can be found in city charters, general plans, official reports, legislation (usually inferred), and inevitably in the platforms of political parties.

Rarely, however, in the case of public or community goals has the rhetoric become policy. There has been no mechanism and, for that matter, no apparent reason for making broad goals a part of public policy. Goals have generally had little meaning for the time-and-money-oriented policy makers or for the average citizen as well.

Explicit or implicit goal statements of national scope can be found in historical accounts of U.S. development. What are rare, however, are examples of conscious efforts to formulate goals through a formal process and the actual official acceptance of these goals and the programs to implement them.

Only in the present decade has the concept of goals and goal formulation aroused any interest and activity on the part of government or government officials. Gerhard Cohm believes that the nation has now reached a level of "goals consciousness," or a point at which a need is felt for explicit goals to guide the nation's future. In an introduction to Leonard Lecht's *Goals, Priorities and Dollars*,[1] Cohm identi-

[1] *Goals, Priorities and Dollars*, by Leonard Lecht. Free Press, New York City, 1966, 365 pp.

fies four phases in the evolution of a national goals consciousness in this century. In brief these are:

Phase 1 – A general nonarticulation of goals prior to 1930.

Phase 2 – The emergence of implicit national goals, such as employment, price stability, economic balance, and an end to war, arising from the common and serious problems of the Depression and World War II.

Phase 3 – A concern not only for the efficiency of economic machinery, but also for what it produced. Russia's launching of Sputnik in 1957 dramatized the importance of achievement as well as performance.

Phase 4 – Emergence of a "national consensus" during the 1960's concerning the acceptance of national goals or, at least, a lack of opposition to goals. Interest is centered more on the means for reaching goals and the priorities among goals than on the goals themselves.

Several events have contributed to goals consciousness in the U.S. today. President Eisenhower during his term of office appointed a commission of eleven prominent citizens to "develop a broad outline of coordinated national policies and programs" and to "set up a series of goals in various areas of national activity." Late in 1960, the commission issued its report *Goals for Americans*. A major purpose of the report was "to encourage uniform discussion by the American public." The goals outlined in the report are general and little in them could be disputed. They do, however, attempt to clarify or at least organize the basic beliefs and aspirations that inspired this nation's beginnings.

During the same year, President Kennedy set a new and seemingly unreal goal for the nation, to "put a man on the moon by 1970." The achievement of this goal in 1969 has dramatically illustrated our ability to achieve goals.

Several other less obvious events have contributed to the interest in goal formulation. Foremost among these was the introduction of the techniques of systems analysis to the management of the Defense Department. The application of this technique, which necessitates a more comprehensive and rational approach to problem solving, has carried over into other departments of government as well as into state and local planning efforts. Many federal and state-funded programs now emphasize the setting of goals and objectives by municipalities designated to receive funds.

Goals and Goal-Setting

If several people were asked to explain the word *goal*, it is likely that each would respond with a similar but different interpretation. Defining a goal as the proverbial "pot of gold at the end of the rainbow" may be graphic but it does not really address itself to the concept of community goal-setting. The best definition may never be found, but from a survey of goal-setting projects, here are two of the better explanations:

○ A goal should be viewed as an end state or ideal condition to be in at some time in the distant future.[2]

○ Goals may be defined as broad statements of intended accomplishment. However, whenever possible they should not be stated so broadly that their accomplishment cannot be measured. Since goals cover long time spans, it is useful to divide goals into objectives.[3]

By defining a second term, *objective*, the meaning becomes clearer:

○ Objectives are elements of a goal, and the accomplishment of an objective constitutes partial fulfillment of a goal. Objectives cover only a portion of the time allotted to the accomplishment of a goal, and generally should be more specific than a goal.[4]

○ An objective should be viewed as a sub-goal which is tied to a shorter time period. It should be viewed as a means for achieving the longer-term goal.[5]

It is important to understand the meaning of goals and objectives as well as their implicit relationship to each other. Too often, communities formulate objectives in the absence of goals, or set goals that are so vague that the articulation of meaningful objectives becomes impossible. Either extreme hinders the process of community planning and development.

In addition to the key terms *goal* and *objective*, what is meant by a *goal-setting program* should also be clarified. Goal formulation at the municipal level might mean anything from a decision by a few officials on one broad, general goal for a community, to a citywide program involving hundreds of people, thousands of dollars, and the formulation of many interrelated goals. Goals are often formulated unconsciously as part of an official report, a local charter, or the platform of a political party. Many times, goals are assumed to be implicit, and any formal statement of goals is considered unnecessary or is not considered at all. For the purpose of this report, goal-setting at the municipal level is defined as *any conscious effort by members of a municipality to formulate goals or ideals for the purpose of guiding future change in the municipality.*

WHAT ARE GOALS
AND WHAT DO THEY MEAN?

Community goals, in a pure sense, should be an accurate expression of community values and atti-

[2]*Community Development Action Plan*, final work program. The City of Wethersfield, Connecticut, September 1969.

[3]*Maplewood Goals Program*, proposal submitted by Ronald A. LaConture, Maplewood, Minnesota, March 196( )?

[4]*Ibid.*

[5]City of Wethersfield, *op. cit.*

tudes and, as such, should provide a guide for action by the community. When community goals are not stated, local officials must determine, usually in some arbitrary fashion, what the attitudes and values of the community are and must formulate community policy consonant with those unstated attitudes and opinions. The only obvious measures of success of such a procedure are a low level of conflict in the community and the reelection of local officials. On the other hand, explicit community goals that formally state where a community wants to be at some time in the future provide more tangible measures of a community's progress and direction.

Whether they are stated or implied, community goals exist in some form. If there were no goals, there would be no plans and in essence no problems. This, admittedly, is an abstract view and ironically one that might conceivably be viewed as unfavorable to the concept of goal formulation. However, it is stated to dramatize the essential nature of goals in the community planning context. Abraham Lincoln perhaps best summarized the rationale for goals formulation: "If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it."

Assuming that goals are an important requisite for effective community planning, we next consider the actual process of formulating goals. While formal goal-setting efforts are not standard practice, most communities do plan for the future and do implement programs designed to alleviate community problems. It is assumed that these plans and programs are formulated in the "public interest" and are a reflection of the needs, values, and attitudes of the members of the community. Here is where we must consider one of the most serious and formidable problems facing the concept of goal formulation or long-range planning at the municipal level; namely, *How does one define or determine the public interest?* In other words, in the context of goal formulation, "Goals for whom?" Community planners and managers are obliged to design and implement plans and programs that are in the public interest — that reflect the values and attitudes of the public. Until recent years, "public" usually implied middle-class and business and commercial interests. These were the only groups that had sufficient power to influence decisions. Consequently, it was routinely assumed that the public interest was, in fact, being served.

Several significant social changes during this decade have literally forced a revision of that assumption and made the task of defining the public interest increasingly difficult. Urbanization, advances in communication, education, civil rights, etc., have contributed to the emergence of several distinct publics, each with its own interests, values, attitudes, and, most importantly, its own power. The blacks, the Spanish-speaking, and the poor are all examples of new publics that are "new" only in the sense that they are organized and are having a visible impact

upon the life of the total community.

Presently, the question of how to include these newly recognized publics in the decision-making process is a subject of debate. "Maximum feasible citizen participation" means different things to different people. To the militant, it presents an opportunity to gain power; to some public officials, it presents a training ground for the development of community leadership; to others, it represents greater fulfillment of the democratic process; and to some it represents the "twilight of authority" of political institutions as now constituted.

Attempting to set goals in a multipublic environment may be invigorating, or it may be a devastating experience. The *process* is the key element in formulating community goals. If the process calls for goals to be set by a select group, representing only one facet of the public interest, then conflict will likely be minimized and the resultant goals will usually reflect the attitudes and values of the group that formulated them. If the process attempts to reach a broader public, conflicts are inevitable. There must be a mechanism for resolving goal conflict and, more importantly, a mechanism for ranking differing values. The key question is, How can it be determined which of the values expressed by different publics should have higher priority in terms of available limited resources?

Another important consideration is the difference between explicit (i.e., stated) goals and policies and the actions or inactions of groups. More often than not, the real goals and values of a group can be inferred from what it does or does not do over time, as opposed to what it says. As one city official stated, "It would appear that a city council is willing to adopt general goals, but is unwilling to implement them if the political pressures of the moment are contrary to the adopted goals and objectives."

WHY SET GOALS?

In view of the complexities of the process discussed above, why should a city attempt such an effort? First of all, as mentioned above, the process of goal-setting can provide a means of involving people in public affairs and thereby developing community leaders and building community consensus. Second, the goals themselves (as viewed as a *product* of the goal-setting process) will:

⊃ Organize, record, and express policies about the total community and its future. In this regard the relationships between goals may be examined; for example, the relationship between educational and recreational goals for young adults vis à vis goals for handling problems of juvenile delinquents. Another example might be considering elderly housing goals in relationship to social service and recreational goals for the elderly.

⊚ Provide the basis for future planning — physical,

financial, and social. Goals should be used as the basis for the community's master plan of physical growth.

○ Provide a more concrete basis for community decision-making on which a set strategy for achieving the goals can be developed. In essence, goals can be ordered in terms of their priorities. In more concrete terms, goals can be used to improve the decision-making process when budgets are made. Goals can provide a guide for elected representatives, for managers, and for department heads. In one sense, they can lift horizons from the work-and-service orientation of most municipal managers and administrators. On the other hand, they will act as a point of agreement (or disagreement) about municipal policies, plans, and programs.

Former ICMA President Joseph Coupal summarized the why of goal-setting as follows:

The area of government needing the most improvement is the establishment of community goals and objectives. No organization or agency, private or public, can hope to achieve satisfactory progress unless a clear course is first carefully charted.

In our villages and cities, far too little attention has been given to the establishment of formalized, meaningful, intelligible community goals and objectives. No village, no matter how small, no city, no matter how large, can continue to provide good services unless it first knows where it is and where it wants to go. The development of a community inventory and the establishment of accepted goals and objectives is the only process by which our communities can be made viable, livable communities that we all seek.

Elements of the Process

Nearly every city or town that has conducted a goal-setting program has used a different process. There is no right or wrong way to determine goals, and the numerous variables in each municipal environment prohibit any narrow interpretation of the goal-setting process. A standardized methodology would be unrealistic.

However, it is possible to identify several phases that are found in most, if not all, goal-setting programs, regardless of the particular process used or the configuration of variables in the local environment. Once these common phases are identified, alternative approaches or methods for accomplishing each phase can be described.

These phases are:

1. The Decision to Set Goals
2. The Design of a Goal-Setting Program
3. The Determination and Selection of Alternative Goals
4. The Communication and Discussion of Alternative Goals
5. The Selection of Goals

THE DECISION TO SET GOALS

A decision to set community goals may be motivated by several factors, any one of which may influence the entire effort. For example, an impending election may motivate candidates or incumbents to propose a communitywide goals program. A local chamber of commerce might decide to sponsor an effort to generate more interest, both local and outside, in the commercial future of the community. Private groups, from the Lions Club to the League of Women Voters, may take the initiative and propose that the community set goals. The decision to set goals might well come from a mayor or city manager who senses a lack of direction and focus in his community.

The origin and motivation of the decision to set goals will influence subsequent stages in the goals process and probably the actual goals themselves.

THE DESIGN OF A GOAL-SETTING PROGRAM

The second element in the goals process creates the apparatus necessary actually to formulate goals. At this stage several decisions must be made:

Scope—How broad will the program be? Should goals be considered for all aspects of community life or only for specific areas, such as housing, education, government, etc.?

Resources—How much money and personnel will be necessary?

Time—When should the program begin? How long should it be? Should it be continuous or segmented?

Participants—Should there be widespread citizen participation or involvement of only a small group of officials, or would some combination of the two be appropriate?

Goals as Policy—Will goals be adopted by the local governing body? Will they become a part of official public policy?

Future of the Program—Will there be a mechanism for reevaluating goals at some future time, or will an entirely new, more in-depth program and process be needed to refine or further define goals?

THE DETERMINATION AND
SELECTION OF ALTERNATIVE GOALS

This stage in the process marks the beginning of the goals program itself, since the procedure for formulating goals has been decided upon. In this phase alternative goals must be proposed and considered. The alternatives may range from current ideas said in various ways to proposals that imply radical changes in the delivery of services and institutional arrangements. Goal areas become more clearly defined during this stage, and the articulation of possible goals facilitates the next stage of the process.

THE COMMUNICATION AND
DISCUSSION OF ALTERNATIVE GOALS

The activities during this stage of the process depend largely upon the nature of the program; that is, who the participants are, how different their values and life styles are, how much time and money has been allocated, how large the scope of the program is, etc. This phase is basically an expansion and continuation of the preceding one. Alternative goals having for the most part been stated, they must now be communicated to program participants and discussed in detail. Depending on the design of the program, this stage might entail anything from two or three meetings of the city council to more than a hundred meetings of community residents.

THE SELECTION OF GOALS

The question of who selects goals, and what they mean in terms of the community's future, is critical in the goal-setting process. The procedure for goal selection should be detailed in the program design. The actual selection of goals for the community will generally follow the discussion of goal alternatives.

These five common elements of most goal-setting processes are suggested as a means to structure an examination or analysis of alternative methods for formulating community goals. Several case studies which illustrate various processes that have been tried or are currently in use are presented in the next section.

6

Community Experiences

Capsulized case histories of the goal-setting experiences of 11 communities have been taken from a group of 21 questionnaires returned by counties, cities, and towns in 13 states. The questionnaires were issued under the auspices of ICMA to selected cities that were known to have undertaken a goal-setting program.

While it was difficult to draw general conclusions from the 21 replies, some interesting findings did emerge:

○ All of the programs were begun between 1962 and 1969, with the majority in the 1967-to-1969 period.

○ A planning period of six months between deciding to proceed and actually beginning the process is the usual case.

○ Over half of the cities indicated that the motivation to set goals came from within the community, from either local officials or private groups. Four programs received state or federal assistance.

○ Costs ranged from $50 to $260,000, with most of the funding coming from public sources. Dallas was a notable exception, with over $112,000 (100%) coming from private sources. (While the Dallas project is impressive in scope, it is interesting to note that the goals have not yet been officially adopted by the city government.)

○ Goal areas were most often chosen either by a committee of prominent citizens or by public officials. Some communities used consultants to assist in the design and implementation of the project.

○ Most communities used task forces to formulate goals. In about half of the cases, goals were then submitted to the public via public meetings. Two communities mailed questionnaires.

○ Goals were communicated to community residents by means of radio, T.V., newspapers, special publications, etc.

○ Of 13 respondents, ten indicated that objectives or subgoals were also selected as part of the process.

○ Of 14 respondents, ten indicated a favorable community response to the process. Four said that the reaction was neutral. None indicated an unfavorable or divided community reaction.

○ The most often-cited problems include a division of opinion among local groups, conflict between proposed goals, and securing citizen participation.

○ Of the 21 respondents, 15 indicated that the city

or county council had or will adopt the goals. The major benefits of goal-setting were listed as increased citizen interest and participation in community affairs and a more rational approach to planning.

○ Of the 21, 15 indicated that the program would continue or be reactivated at some future time, and 16 said that they would recommend that other communities engage in the process.

LANSING, MICHIGAN

○ Initiated the process in 1965 as part of a community renewal program.

○ Citizen advisory task forces were employed to draft tentative goals and objectives.

○ The draft was submitted to a 50-member citizens' advisory group for review and recommendation to the city council.

○ Recreation, housing, economic development, transportation, and redevelopment were considered in goals formulation.

○ Two public hearings were held to consider the goals, but widespread citizen participation was not indicated.

○ The goals have not been officially adopted by the city council as yet.

SAN JOSE, CALIFORNIA

○ Began goal-setting in 1966 on the basis of citizen concern over the type of planning that the city was doing and a recommendation by the American Society of Planning Officials (ASPO).

○ The ASPO report was submitted to the city council and the process was initiated.

○ Following a program design stage accomplished by a steering committee, nine subcommittees prepared working papers over a period of nine months.

○ A six-month "community contact" phase was followed by formulation of "final" goals by a coordination committee.

○ The council adopted the goals, and implementation is said to be on-going.

○ A full-time planner and secretary were available in the latter part of the process.

○ There was a great deal of citizen participation, but city officials report that it could have been much more inclusive. Involving low-income and minority groups and business and industry leadership was very difficult.

○ The process is viewed as having increased citizen interest and participation in community affairs and has provided a more rational approach to planning.

ABILENE, TEXAS

○ Started the process late in 1963 on the basis of local initiative and a recognition of the need for improvement and continued growth.

○ A citizen's advisory committee (CAC) consisting of 77 citizens was appointed by the city council.

○ The CAC was divided into the following subcommittees: water and sewer, parks, streets and drainage, public buildings, fire protection and airport, other projects, and finance.

○ Each subcommittee prepared a study, and a report was made to the city council. Consultants were used in this process.

○ The full CAC studied the goals and suggestions, discussion followed, and the council adopted the goals.

○ Objectives and programs were not considered as part of the process.

○ No real problems were encountered, public reaction was said to be favorable, and the principal achievement was held to be the enhancement of citizen interest and participation.

COVINA, CALIFORNIA

○ Motivated by the city administration and the general-plan consultant, Covina began a goals project in March 1967.

○ A letter was sent to each home and business in the city. Of 880 responses, about 550 indicated a willingness to participate.

○ A report was drafted by 580 members of the Community Critical Issues Committee in answer to the question, "What kind of city do we want Covina to be in the future?"

○ The Committee's answer in the form of a final report, and after 60 meetings (representing 35,000 man-hours), covered six topics: (1) desirable growth and development, (2) transportation and circulation, (3) municipal facilities and services, (4) cultural facilities, (5) recreational facilities, and (6) valleywide relationships.

○ Following communitywide meetings the council adopted the goals.

○ Problem areas noted included the division of opinion among local groups, selection of goal areas, and conflict among goals.

○ Among other benefits, planning consultants are using the goals to formulate general-plan goals.

KEENE, NEW HAMPSHIRE

○ Initiated by the city manager and the chairman of the planning board and the city council's planning committee, the goal-setting process in Keene was started in 1967.

○ A six-week goals-formulation effort was accomplished by 20 citizens divided into the following subcommittees: economic environment, natural environment, physical environment, and report preparation.

○ A four-week goals-discussion phase was followed by adoption of the goals by the planning board and the city council.

○ The entire text was printed in a local newspaper

and also advertised by the state municipal association.

○ Public reaction was said to be favorable. City Manager James Hobart commented:

> My personal feeling is that the greatest advantage of the goal-setting process done right is that it is an opportunity to tap the real leadership of the community who would be willing to handle an ad hoc assignment but wouldn't be willing to accept a continuing role as a member of the council, or board, or commission. In other words, you can get real high-powered brains into this and, once in a great while, motivate somebody of real stature to participate as an office holder in other functions.

COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND

○ Reports on initial goal-setting activity in the form of an internal working document were written in May 1962.

○ In January 1969, a 33-member advisory group (Citizen Advisory Planning Board) initiated revision of the original document.

○ The CAPB was composed of the following subgroups: community renewal, long-range planning, public works, improvement and beautification, zoning requests.

○ The revisions were reported to be still in process (September 1969).

DEERFIELD, ILLINOIS

○ The mayor and board of trustees developed a one-page document that outlined goals for the town as part of a general-plan updating.

○ The goals were said to be "a very rudimentary effort designed for a limited purpose." Additionally, it is hoped that this will lead to a broader-based set of goals at some future time.

○ The very brief (3 months) process was also said to have provided a very challenging exercise in terms of facing "hard questions" that had not been addressed previously.

TACOMA-PIERCE COUNTY, WASHINGTON

○ Patterned on the Seattle-King County "Forward Thrust" Program, Pierce County undertook a broadbased planning and goal-setting effort entitled "Design for Progress."

○ A nonprofit corporation was formed and a professional staff hired to assist citizen committees charged with the responsibility to develop a coordinated capital improvement program for the county.

○ The goals of "Design for Progress" were stated as: (1) "seeks to create an environment which will maximize for all residents of Pierce County the opportunities for fulfilled living — and to preserve the natural quality of our region"; and (2) "is fundamental to achieving maximum utilization of our county's resources and obtaining those capital improvements which will meet the challenge of growth."

○ The process was aiming at a November 1969 election date and enlisting public support for a proposed bond issue.

WICHITA, KANSAS

○ The Wichita program "developed as an outcome of two consecutive year-long urban policy conferences sponsored by the University (Wichita State) and attended by public and private community leaders."

○ These conferences were funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 and included representatives of the Brookings Institution.

○ Widespread citizen participation was not a feature of this program, but city officials reported that "some participating community leaders now display a greater awareness of the dynamics of urbanization and the necessity of goal-setting." It was also noted that "goal-setting evolved as the natural product of an educational program and as a result it did not display all of the characteristics of most goal-setting programs."

○ As a private, educationally oriented effort, the process was described as follows:

Phase	Duration	Group or agency most responsible	Approximate no. of participants
1. Program design	2 mos. (1965)	University	10
2. Conference (#1)	9 mos.	University Brookings Institution	60
3. Program design	2 mos. (1966)	University	15
4. Conference (#2)*	9 mos.	University Brookings Institution	60
5. Preparation of position papers*	9 mos.	Teams of conference members	25
6. Adoption of goals	6 weeks	Conference at large	60

*Phases 4 and 5 occurred simultaneously.

CONNECTICUT CITIES AND TOWNS

o Currently 55 Connecticut cities and towns are involved in a state-sponsored Community Development Action Plan (CDAP). Manchester, Wethersfield, and Stamford returned questionnaires and each have a CDAP under way.

o Funded by the State Department of Community Affairs (DCA) up to a maximum of 75 percent, with grants ranging from $25,000 to $250,000, the program will be a prerequisite to participation in certain state-funded programs.

o The CDAP process has been structured by DCA to include a goal-setting exercise as one of the first components. Twelve functions are identified and the following goals within each are required: general government, housing, economic development, transportation, recreation, culture, interpersonal communications, education, public safety, social services, public utilities, and health.

o In addition to goal-setting, the 22-month process requires an assessment of community posture in each of the 12 areas, setting objectives, an assessment of needs, and the development of a long-range plan (time horizon of 20 years) with a shorter-range "action program" and accompanying financial plan (with a 5- or 6-year time frame).

o Although the program is structured, there is flexibility in how various tasks are to be accomplished, whether in-house staff or consultants to be used, etc. The process requires broad-based and active citizen participation.

DALLAS, TEXAS

o The biggest and best-funded community goal-setting program is under way in Dallas, Texas.

o The program began in December 1965 on the initiative of Mayor Erik Johnsson and a biracial group of 27 community leaders representing business, education, religion, government, labor, communications, etc.

o A three-phase program was outlined: first, a setting of goals; second, a determination of priorities; and third, a continuous evaluation of how Dallas is progressing toward goal achievement — a monitoring process.

o Stage one has been achieved and several valuable publications have been issued including *Goals for Dallas*.[6]

o The process is now in stage two and at the four-year mark.

o During the fall of 1966, a series of 33 public meetings were held to consider the 98 proposed goals. Almost 6,500 people attended these meetings.

o A full-time staff is continuing the process. Bryghte D. Godbold, staff director, lists the following nine principles that have guided the goals program:

1. Community leaders launched and now guide the program.
2. Wide citizen participation is not only encouraged but vigorously sought.
3. Representative citizen groups prepare proposals.
4. Many citizens' meetings held to review proposals.
5. Conclusions reached by consensus.
6. Program is nonpolitical and independent.
7. Goals are for all of the people.
8. Program is a facilitating but not an implementing activity.
9. Program is a long-term endeavor.

o In assessing the goals program, Dr. Godbold states the following as results:

1. Dallas has a set of goals developed by thousands of citizens. Schedules and costs for their attainment are now being formulated. A procedure has been devised for periodic assessment and revision.

2. Even though the proposed schedules for achievement of the goals have not been completed, governmental and other organizations are using the goals for formulating and initiating programs. For example, some of the projects in a $175 million bond issue were taken directly from the goals.

3. The goals program has helped community leaders find out what the people really want for their city. In some cases the views expressed have been predictable; in other instances the peoples' wishes may have been different than anticipated by some city leaders.

4. Many people who have had little interest or chance to participate in a direct way in community affairs have found that the goals program provides an opportunity for significant community service. Approximately 1,000 volunteers are now serving on the 12 task forces or on the 26 neighborhood committees. Incidentally, we have had no difficulty in obtaining volunteers willing to give generously of their time. From these hundreds of volunteers many potential leaders have been identified, particularly among the young people of the community. You might say that the goals program helps identify, recruit, and train civic leaders.

5. Many other cities have expressed interest in the goals approach to community development and some have begun similar programs.

6. Probably more important than any other achievement is that thousands of people of Dallas know more about their city and about people from different economic levels, from different occupations and different races. Individuals have had an opportunity to talk directly and frankly with citizens from other parts of the city. We have noted that is not as difficult as anticipated for people of diverse backgrounds to reach agreement on fundamental matters. It has been interesting to note the surprise on the faces of individuals when they find out they can reach agreement — that there is really a basis for working together for making Dallas an even greater city.

A Recommended Approach To Goal-Setting

There are several possible approaches or methodologies that can be used to formulate municipal goals.

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[6]*Goals for Dallas*, published by Goals for Dallas, Republic Bank Building, Dallas, Texas, 1966.

It would be difficult to prove that one approach is better than another; the question is really one of deciding which approach is most appropriate given the configuration of local variables. In making a decision to formulate municipal goals, local officials must consider a number of factors and their real or potential influence on a proposed goal-setting effort. Some of these factors include:

- Demographic characteristics of the community (overall population density, homogeneity of the population, etc.).
- Resources available (funds, personnel, time).
- Politics (issues and personalities involved, pending elections).
- Potential sponsors of goals program (public or private).
- Character of the municipal environment. (Is there direction, a recognized sense of community?)
- Outside influences (policies of neighboring cities, regions, the state, and the nation).
- Timing. (When should goals be set?)

It is perhaps impossible to predict the outcome of a community goal-setting project; however, a consideration of the alternative approaches and possible consequences should increase the chances of a successful program. For example, if the city is composed of several diverse publics, the process selected should include an effective mechanism for resolving goal conflicts that are likely to occur. If staff and financial resources are severely limited, effective widespread citizen participation may be beyond the scope of the project.

Unfortunately, those same factors that indicate a community should set goals (such as a lack of community consensus or direction, inadequate leadership, value conflicts, and lack of community identity) are the factors that will make a goal-setting effort that much more difficult. The point to be made is that *a decision to set community goals should not be made lightly, and those making such a decision should be aware of the possible negative consequences of the product or the process of a goal-setting program.*

In spite of the infinite variety of situations (and perhaps because of them), it is worthwhile to present a recommended approach to the task of community goals formulation. This approach is based upon four key assumptions:

1. Community goals are in fact an expression of community values and should therefore be formulated by as many members of the community as possible.

2. Goals should be directly related to the master-planning process of the community.

3. Goals once formulated should become a part of official public policy.

4. The *process* of goal formulation may well be as important as the *product.*

The process or approach recommended here is based on a planning process called the Community Development Action Plan (CDAP) developed by the State of Connecticut Department of Community Affairs. The state encourages all Connecticut municipalities to undertake a CDAP. Its purpose is to "establish a means by which a municipality can (1) discover in a comprehensive and systematic manner its strong points, its needs and problems, the resources which may be available or needed to meet these needs and problems over a period of time, and (2) can schedule action to meet these needs using these resources."

The actual formulation of community goals constitutes only one part of the total 22-month CDAP process. The balance of the effort is devoted to relating proposed goals to public policy through the design of plans and programs aimed at attaining the goals. Before discussing the formulation of goals in detail, the elements of the total CDAP process are summarized.

There are five basic elements in the overall CDAP work program:

1. Formulation of goals and five-year objectives in each of 12 areas designated as community functions.

2. Survey, inventory, and analysis of needs and problems with attention to identifying the interrelationships of community functions.

3. Analysis of ways and means to meet the needs and problems that have been discovered.

4. Determination and scheduling of priorities.

5. The Community Development Action Plan (or the end product of the process) — in essence, a five-year program budget.

It is obvious that such a plan is not easily accomplished, and the quality of the product may vary widely. However, the application of the process can be as important as the result if it encourages communities to decide what they want to do and how before they actually begin to do it. There is considerable flexibility within the design. Figure 1 illustrates the approach to CDAP decided upon by the town of Wethersfield, Conn. (population 27,000), and the time frame for completion of the plan.

Regarding actual goals formulation, one of the first tasks is to determine in which area of community life goals will be set. CDAP divides the community into 12 functional areas with goals and objectives to be formulated in each area. These 12 functions are further divided into four components, as shown here:

CDAP Functions

Education	Public Utilities
Housing	Public Protection
Health	Transportation and Circulation
Recreation	Culture
Social Services	Interpersonal Communication
Economic Development	General Municipal Government

Figure 1

TASKS AND MILESTONES	Inventory Stage	Inventory Analysis	Program Design	Output

Tasks I, V
Goal formulation process, Formulation of six-year program objectives

Task II
CDAP functional inventory

Task III
Formulation of work program

Task IV
Inventory of resources potentially available

Task VI
Determination of "needs"

Task VII
Identify program and priority criteria

Task VIII
Design of program alternatives

Task IX
Analysis of expected consequences of program alternatives

Task X, XI
Formulation and approval of six-year action plan

1st Milestone—Work Program
2nd Milestone—Functional Inventory
3rd Milestone—Goal Statement
4th Milestone—Statement of Program Objectives
5th Milestone—"Needs" Statement
6th Milestone—Criteria Statement
7th Milestone—Program Alternatives
8th Milestone—Statement re: Expected Program Consequences
9th Milestone—Publication and Approval of Action Plan

May 1st 1969 | June 1st | July 1st | Aug 1st | Sept 1st | Oct 1st | Nov 1st | Dec 1st | Jan 1st 1970 | Feb 1st | March 1st | April 1st | May 1st | June 1st | July 1st | Aug 1st | Sept 1st | Oct 1st | Nov 1st | Dec 1st | Jan 1st 1971 | Feb 1st | March 1st

Task Scheduling and Product Milestones

Components of Each Function

Physical Component	Human Resource Component
(Facilities)	(People)
Administrative Component	Economic Component
(Structure and	(Costs)
Management)	

Another approach to classifying goal areas is one used by Phoenix, Ariz., and shown in Figure 2. In this plan, the community functions are divided into four general categories with an array of related subfunctions under each.

Once goal areas have been selected, the next task is that of organizing groups of citizens to formulate goals in each area. The process of recruitment will vary, however. The selection of participants for the Wethersfield, Conn., project is offered as an example.

It was decided by the CDAP agency (town council) that a task force should be organized for each of the 12 CDAP functions.

Through the Action Plan Office, some 100 letters and CDAP brochures were forwarded to local groups and individuals, requesting names of prospective members for the Task Force teams. News releases were forwarded to local newspapers inviting interested citizens to respond. Some three hundred names were compiled. A follow-up letter, including a personal data sheet enclosure for their completion, was then forwarded to each person. One hundred and ninety-seven citizens responded, indicating their preference for Task Force Assignments on a one through twelve basis.

The CDAP Agency appointed a selection committee and, following a complete review of each questionnaire, a Task Force team of 84 citizens was selected. Of the seven appointed members to each Task Force, five serve in a voting capacity while two serve as alternates in a non-voting capacity. In addition to this seven-man committee, additional people may be appointed by each Task Force to assist and participate in their regular meeting schedule. At the present time a total of 125 citizens are serving on the twelve functional Task Forces.[7]

Members of the town council and the planning and zoning board are assigned to each task force in an ex-officio capacity.

All meetings of each task force committee are open to the public and are announced, in advance, through regular news channels. The task forces are assisted by consultants and 12 task force aides. The consulting staff provides information and expertise to the task forces, while the aides act as secretariat.

Task forces generally meet twice a month. Over a five- to six-month period each group formulates a goal or goals. It was necessary to provide each task force with as much guidance as possible without actually manipulating its progress and direction. To do this, a goals formulation checklist was prepared listing ten recommended steps to be followed in the process of formulating goals. This checklist is shown here:

1. Task force orientation. Determine a schedule of meeting dates; establish ground rules; study the CDAP process.

2. Define terms—goals, objective, need. Review status of the function in Wethersfield and in the region.

3. Discuss goal formulation in Wethersfield. Review alternative sets of goals for U.S.A., Connecticut, Capitol Region Plan Agency. Discuss implications of goals.

4. Review and react to sets of goals relating to the task force area. Discuss implications of goals; suggest new goals; reject the goals in whole or part.

5. Examine and analyze implicit and explicit values upon which the goals are based. Question the values; attempt to clarify them.

6. Prepare tentative goals to be submitted to a total task force (or representatives from each task force) meeting as a group.

7. Identify conflicting goals (or goals that are mutually exclusive).

8. Attempt to have total task force (or representatives) meeting together to compromise these differences.

9. Each task force redraft tentative goals statement for each function.

10. Prepare final draft. Identify remaining conflicts and submit this advisory document to the council for reaction and possible adoption. Prepare minority or dissenting reports as necessary.

In addition to an overall plan to formulate goals, there are other factors that should be taken into account:

Definitions. Besides goals, objectives, etc., other words should be defined so that issues are clarified and all members mean the same thing in discussions. A definition of *social services* or *health* would be critical to committee deliberations.

General Goal. It may be possible to formulate a general goal or a preamble statement regarding the subject under discussion. Such a statement may provide a key to the formulation of subgoals.

Goals Structure. In the absence of a general goal or preamble to structure subgoals, it may be necessary to devise such a structure. For example, a general government committee would certainly want to examine the legal basis of the community (its charter, etc.), finances, personnel policies and procedures, etc. Such a listing may be most helpful for a working committee.

Hypotheses. In the absence of any of the foregoing, it may be necessary to formulate hypotheses about a given topic. Statements such as "environmental health services in the community are adequate (or inadequate)" can elicit attitudes and feelings and can direct the groups' attention to needed information in the absence of unanimity. After the information is gathered, the hypotheses can be tested and

7City of Wethersfield, *op. cit.*

Components of Each Function

Physical Component	Human Resource Component
(Facilities)	(People)
Administrative Component	Economic Component
(Structure and	(Costs)
Management)	

Another approach to classifying goal areas is one used by Phoenix, Ariz., and shown in Figure 2. In this plan, the community functions are divided into four general categories with an array of related sub-functions under each.

Once goal areas have been selected, the next task is that of organizing groups of citizens to formulate goals in each area. The process of recruitment will vary, however. The selection of participants for the Wethersfield, Conn., project is offered as an example.

It was decided by the CDAP agency (town council) that a task force should be organized for each of the 12 CDAP functions.

Through the Action Plan Office, some 100 letters and CDAP brochures were forwarded to local groups and individuals, requesting names of prospective members for the Task Force teams. News releases were forwarded to local newspapers inviting interested citizens to respond. Some three hundred names were compiled. A follow-up letter, including a personal data sheet enclosure for their completion, was then forwarded to each person. One hundred and ninety-seven citizens responded, indicating their preference for Task Force Assignments on a one through twelve basis.

The CDAP Agency appointed a selection committee and, following a complete review of each questionnaire, a Task Force team of 84 citizens was selected. Of the seven appointed members to each Task Force, five serve in a voting capacity while two serve as alternates in a non-voting capacity. In addition to this seven-man committee, additional people may be appointed by each Task Force to assist and participate in their regular meeting schedule. At the present time a total of 125 citizens are serving on the twelve functional Task Forces.[7]

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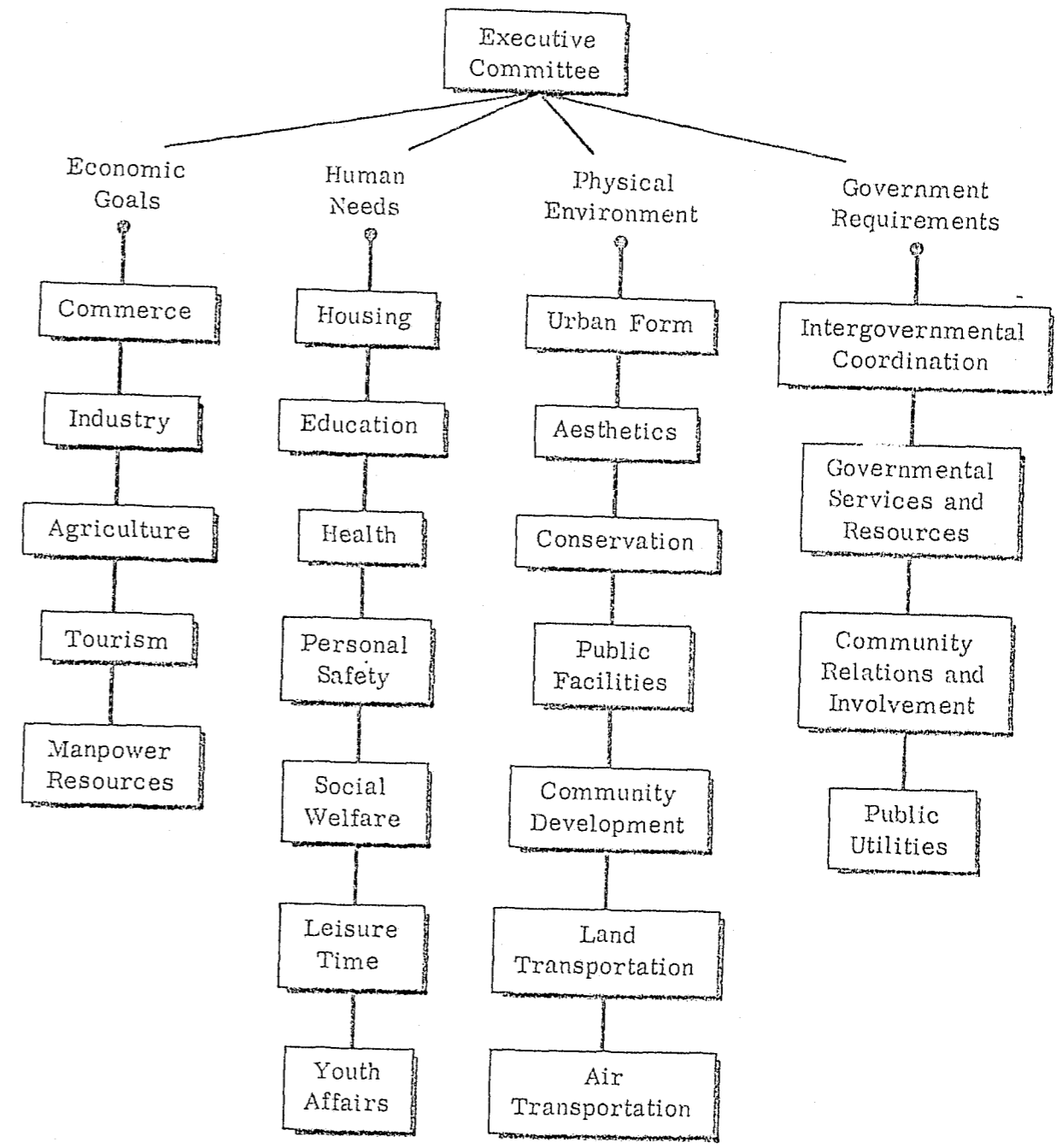
[7]City of Wethersfield, *op. cit.*

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                           ┌──────────────┐
                           │  Executive   │
                           │  Committee   │
                           └──────────────┘
            ┌──────────────────┼──────────────────┐
            │                  │                  │                    │
       Economic            Human            Physical            Government
         Goals             Needs          Environment         Requirements
            │                  │                  │                    │
    ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
    │   Commerce   │   │   Housing    │   │  Urban Form  │   │  Intergovernmental   │
    └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   │    Coordination      │
            │                  │                  │           └──────────────────────┘
    ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐               │
    │   Industry   │   │  Education   │   │  Aesthetics  │   ┌──────────────────────┐
    └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   │     Governmental     │
            │                  │                  │           │     Services and     │
    ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   │      Resources       │
    │ Agriculture  │   │    Health    │   │ Conservation │   └──────────────────────┘
    └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘               │
            │                  │                  │           ┌──────────────────────┐
    ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   │     Community        │
    │   Tourism    │   │   Personal   │   │    Public    │   │    Relations and     │
    └──────────────┘   │    Safety    │   │  Facilities  │   │     Involvement      │
            │          └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘
    ┌──────────────┐           │                  │                      │
    │   Manpower   │   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
    │   Resources  │   │    Social    │   │  Community   │   │       Public         │
    └──────────────┘   │   Welfare    │   │ Development  │   │      Utilities       │
                       └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘
                               │                  │
                       ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
                       │   Leisure    │   │     Land     │
                       │     Time     │   │Transportation│
                       └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
                               │                  │
                       ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
                       │    Youth     │   │     Air      │
                       │   Affairs    │   │Transportation│
                       └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
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Figure 2

13

consensus achieved. Goals will ensue from such efforts, if well directed.

Goals from Other Governments. Goals from other communities, states, or national goals may indicate areas to be covered and goal statements. Ideally, a community's goals should mesh with those of the region, state, and nation (more on this in the next section).

Goals and Objectives Interaction. We tend to think of goal-setting as a forward-seeking planning process. But the value of a backward-seeking process, i.e., from objectives to goals, should not be overlooked. The first several goal-setting meetings may (and often do) turn into "gripe-sessions." Very often it is difficult to raise committee members' horizons from, for example, stoplight locations or needed stop signs. These factors, when recorded, classified, and analyzed, may be symptomatic of broader problems and therefore appropriate subjects for goal formulation. Moving from objectives to goals is as valid as the reverse.

Criteria. Goals may be formulated by examining criteria that include:

(1) Standards. Many governmental, quasi-governmental, and professional associations over the years have developed standards that relate to governmental service levels. The American Insurance Association (successor to the National Board of Fire Underwriters) has developed standards for[8] and rates fire departments. These ratings might be reviewed in the course of goal-setting. Another example is recreation. The National Recreation and Park Association has developed a standard that a community might consider in its goals-formulation process.[9] This standard sets forth how many and what kinds of recreation areas ought to be provided in a given community on the basis of population, distance, and other factors. The National Highway Safety Bureau (of the U.S. Department of Transportation) has published standards for police traffic services and accident investigation that may be of interest to communities. States may have police training standards that should be examined.

(2) Outputs or Performance Measures. A second type of criteria that might be examined are the outputs or performance measurements of municipal departments in the committees' area of interest. Miles of streets paved and number of

prenatal examinations are but two of many such measurements that a municipality may maintain. (3) Community Indicators. Crime rates, fire losses, welfare case loads, and birth rates and their trends over time are also important criteria that should be examined as goals are considered.

Outside Assistance. An obvious assist to goal-formulating committees can come from various experts (e.g., state or federal officials, the city manager) who may be called upon to answer questions or to explain various policies and procedures.

Staff. A final and important ingredient in the goal-setting process is staff, in the form of aides to keep minutes of meetings and staff to lead discussions, prepare position papers, and formulate and synthesize goal statements for committee reaction.

There are innumerable variations to the process that may be successful. Involving large numbers of citizens in a new endeavor is always difficult, and a high level of flexibility is essential. Among many other things, a program that is to succeed in process, product, or both must be realistic, sincere, and well-managed.

Formulating goals at a task-force level is not the end of the process. The proposed goals must be communicated to the general public for their reaction, and then, pending further modification, the goals should be formally accepted as public policy by the local governing body. Without this final step, goal statements are mere rhetoric.

Putting Goals to Work

In conclusion, several matters should be highlighted:

Implementation. Beyond goals and objectives, and beyond the five-year program (or whatever mechanism is employed to implement goals), is the matter of planning, management, control, and measurement.

Implementation implies that a program is drawn up to meet an identified need. The program, in turn, represents the alternative means that are chosen to satisfy an objective. And to complete the circle, the objective is obviously in accord with a goal or subgoal identified in the goal-setting process.

So, critical to the management and control of the overall process is the definition of criteria or measures of effectiveness developed in the course of the goal-setting process.

The relationship between goals and criteria is critical. Obviously, criteria are critical to the measurement of success or failure. Management and control activities are vitally concerned with criteria and measures of effectiveness.

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[8]*Standard Schedule for Grading Cities and Towns in the United States, with Reference to their Fire Defenses and Physical Conditions.* American Insurance Association, 1956. Amendments, 1964.

[9]*Outdoor Recreation Space Standards.* National Recreation and Park Association, U.S.G.P.O., Washington, D.C., 1965. See also: *Outdoor Recreation Standards.* Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior, U.S.G.P.O., 1967.

Goals Compatibility. Just as objectives should mesh with goals, so should a community's goals mesh with those of the region, state, and nation. A community goal-setting process may be hindered by the absence of goals in the upper levels of government. A recent American Institute of Planners newsletter[10] announced action at the national level in the area of national goals research. A National Goals Research staff is to report to the President annually. In announcing the Goals Research Staff, Daniel P. Moynihan illustrated with four examples the kinds of concerns of this group. They are:

o Forecasting future development and assessing the longer-range consequences of present social trends.

o Impact of alternative courses of action.

o Range of social choice in terms of what actually can be done at this point to decide what happens in the future.

o Developing and monitoring social indicators. (Mr. Moynihan took a step in this direction, while at the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, with *Toward a Social Report* published in late 1968.)

The Decision to Proceed. Finally, the decision to proceed is critical. Make sure that plans are realistic, that resources are sufficient, and that the effort has a good chance of success. Make the effort as comprehensive as possible. Try to examine the community in its totality.

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[10]"A National Goals Research Staff," *AIP Newsletter*, 4:9. American Institute of Planners, 917 15th St., N.W., Washington, D.C., September 1969.

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APPENDIX B

Documents Relating to Goal and Objective Formulation

PARTIAL LISTING OF DOCUMENTS RELATING TO GOAL AND OBJECTIVE
FORMULATION*

"The State's Biggest Business – Local and Regional Problems,"
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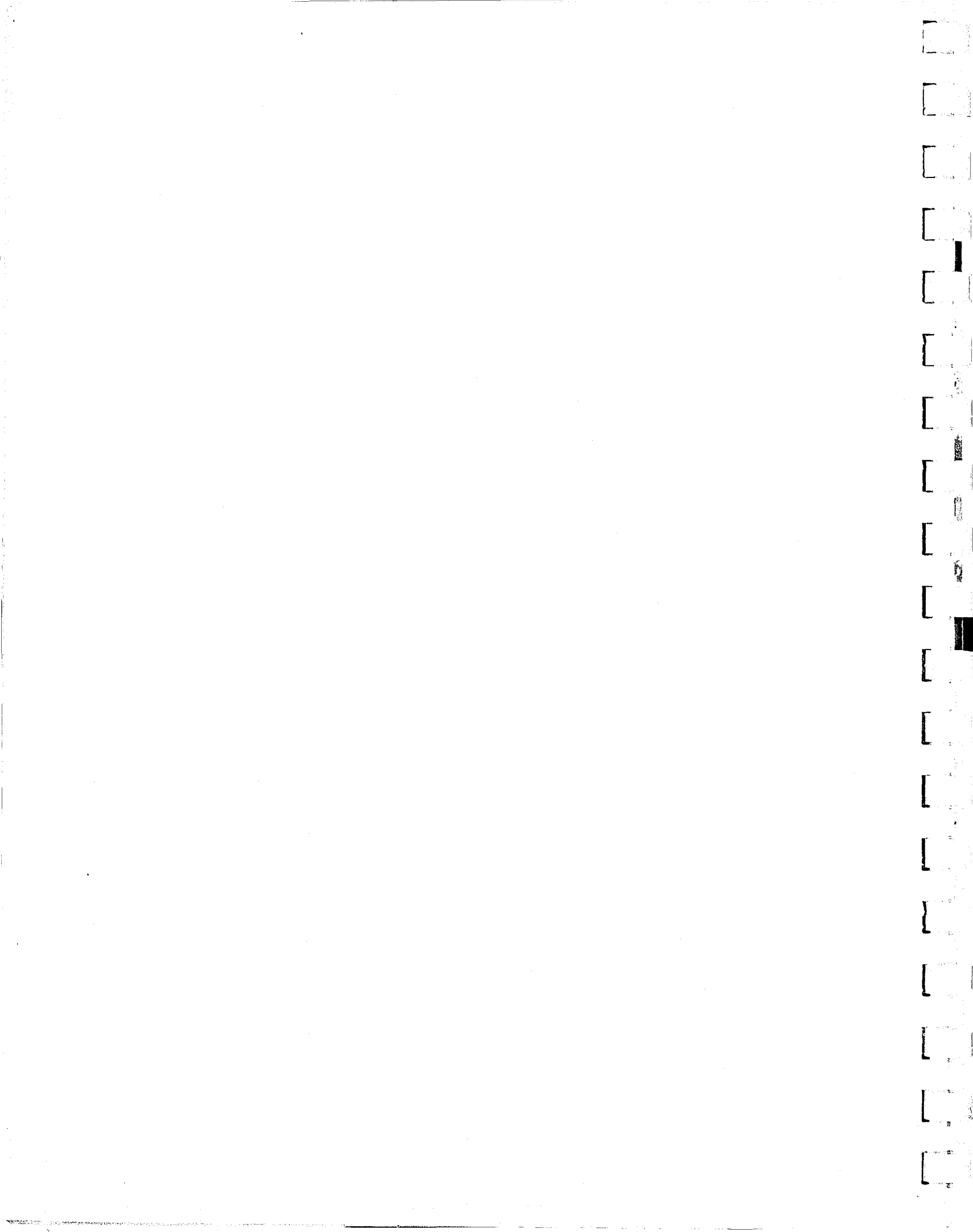"Checklist for Cities, A Guide for Local Action Improving our Cities,"

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