

**THE STRATEGIC PLANNING ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF
VIRGINIA LOCAL GOVERNMENT CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS**

by

Michael John Dougherty

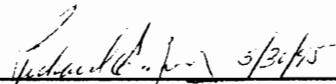
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in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

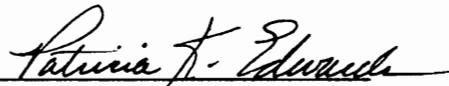
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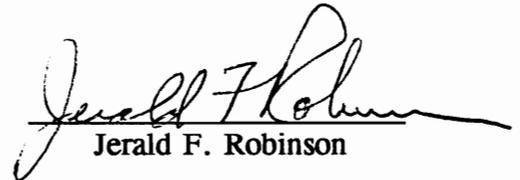
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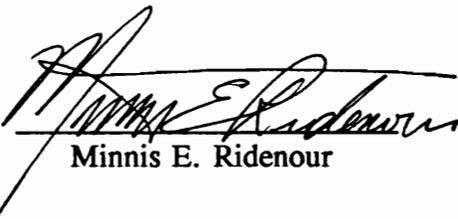
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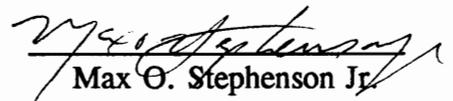
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May 1995
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Keywords: Strategic Planning, Public Administration, Local Government, Management.

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(ABSTRACT)

Local government chief executive officers are presumed to play a meaningful role as their localities undertake the strategic planning process. However, the specifics of that role have not been tested or even well articulated. This research was an initial attempt at defining what role or roles are played by strategic planning managers that are distinct from ordinary routine operations of government.

Five hypothesized roles were defined for strategic planning managers after a review of the literature -- leader, accommodator, informer, integrator, and change master. Next, specific tasks that operationalized each role were described. Then a questionnaire was developed asking local government chief executive officers about their role perceptions using these tasks. It was sent to 168 city managers, town managers, and county administrators (or their equivalent) throughout Virginia.

The results of the survey showed statistically significant support for three of the hypothesized roles: leader, accommodator, and change master. Meanwhile, the role of informer was found to be nearly universal and the role of integrator was found to be more dependent than the other hypothesized roles upon the structural characteristics of

the locality. Among the structural characteristics, the size of the locality and its government had a meaningful effect on the role perceptions of strategic planning managers. Characteristics which described the sophistication and standing of the locality's government had virtually no effect. Also, there was limited support for the concept that the degree to which strategic planning managers perceived themselves playing each role varied depending on the stage of the strategic planning process. Additional research is needed to investigate these relationships further and to define the tasks associated with the roles better.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I could not have completed this dissertation without the assistance of many individuals. First of all, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Richard E. Zody, chairman of my committee and my long-time academic advisor, who has not only guided me through this dissertation project but through my entire graduate school experience as well. I would also like to express my gratitude to the other members of my doctoral committee: Patricia K. Edwards, Minnis E. Ridenour, Jerald F. Robinson, and Max O. Stephenson Jr. They have provided me with invaluable counsel throughout the dissertation process and their input has helped to improve the overall quality of this dissertation immensely.

I would also like to thank my colleagues at the Institute for Community Resource Development, particularly Donald P. Lacy and Pamela D. Gibson. They have provided me with support and advice. Additionally, I would like to take this opportunity to thank the ninety-three local government chief executive officers who responded to my questionnaire. Without their assistance, the research for this dissertation would not have been possible. Similarly, I would like to thank the two town managers who pre-tested the questionnaire, Robert P. Mercure of Narrows and Kenneth F. Vittum of Pearisburg, as well as those individuals who helped me procure updates to the listings of local government chief executive officers, Janet C. Areson of the Virginia Municipal League and Linda W. Butterfield of the Virginia Association of Counties.

Last but certainly not least, I would like to thank my family, especially my parents William C. and RoseMarie Dougherty. They have provided the necessary words of wisdom and encouragement that allowed me to put this project into perspective and continue working until the dissertation was completed. Without their backing, this project would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

DEFINITION AND DISCUSSION OF STRATEGIC PLANNING

Strategic planning has come from relative obscurity to widespread acceptance in the public sector over the last quarter century. Public sector strategic planning started with the revision and application of a process that was initially developed and utilized in the private sector to examine potential futures for organizations and decide upon a desired course of action (Walter and Choate 1984). Initially, doubt existed as to the appropriateness of applying the strategic planning model to government because of differences between the public sector and the private sector (Moskow 1978). However, the application of public sector strategic planning has overcome these initial concerns and in the past decade strategic planning has become a major activity for many public administrators (Garrah 1992).

Interest in public sector strategic planning has resulted in the development of a body of literature on the subject. Most of the literature has been of the process or "how to" variety which lacks formally stated theories. Authors have utilized a model process similar to that put forth by Bryson (1988) and supported their claims with implicit normative theories of the strategic planning process. Generally the roles posited for the chief executive officer in the strategic planning process have been implicit rather than explicit.

Few instances in the literature specifically mention the roles played -- or to be played -- by the chief executive officer in the strategic planning process. The most explicit discussions of these roles have been offered by Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992). Their 1987 article listed the roles of analyst, facilitator, teacher, and politician to be played by "strategic planners," which they defined as the individuals charged with undertaking strategic planning. But they offered no other description of these roles. Their 1992 book contained a two-paragraph discussion of these four roles (with analyst also referred to as technician). In these roles, strategic planners provide and develop information for strategic planning, guide individuals through the process, educate individuals new to the process, and link the process to political considerations (Nutt and Backoff 1992: 164-165). Furthermore, Nutt and Backoff argue in both works that all roles must be played at each stage of the strategic planning process "to deal with the ambiguous and politically sensitive business of fashioning a strategy and promoting its use" (Nutt and Backoff 1987: 56; Nutt and Backoff 1992: 165).

Bryson and Roering (1987) argued that the person in charge of strategic planning will have to play a hybrid role during the process -- sometimes acting as a technician, sometimes acting as a politician, and sometimes assuming both roles simultaneously. These were the same roles ascribed to planners in general by Howe and Kaufman (1979). Also, they are similar to the roles assigned local government managers by Hale (1989): brokers, information agents, and administrators.

Zody (1984b) ascribed several roles to top management in strategic planning.

Those roles involved focusing, serving as in-house skeptic, effecting a sense of purpose, acting authoritatively, and testing, calculating, and developing commitment to new directions for the organization.

For the most part, though, the literature on public sector strategic planning has not fully examined this topic. This lack of empirical research concerning whether or not the process descriptions and their implied normative theories about the roles of the chief executive reflect reality has been criticized. Zody (1984a; 1984b) decried the absence of such studies at two national meetings in 1984: the Urban Affairs Association and the American Society for Public Administration. Still it continued to be a problem when Bryson (1988) conducted one of the few multi-jurisdictional studies of public sector strategic planning. And the lack of analytical studies of the roles executives play in strategic planning remains an issue even today, as was noted in a recent case study (Wheeland 1993).

There has been a paucity of general analytical studies on public sector strategic planning as well. It has been the source of much consternation among scholars since the beginning of research into the subject and has continued to be a problem ever since. Jones and Wortman (1981) observed that from 1961 to 1980, the literature on strategic planning in public organizations was full of models and concepts but lacked hypothesis development and testing. Similarly, Lyles (1990) found no instance of peer-reviewed research among strategic planning theorists on public policy or public sector issues during the late 1980s nor any plans for conducting major projects on the subject during the

1990s. Grewe et al. (1989) tried to fill a gap in the literature by examining how to accomplish steps involved in the strategic planning process. But despite these calls for research, Backoff et al. (1993: 127) found that "for the most part, the burgeoning strategic management [planning] literature has not been sufficiently attentive to the challenge of applying strategic management [planning] at specific levels of government." This dearth of research is even more glaring in light of the fact that public sector strategic planning has been described as a "hot topic" in the literature for most of the last decade (Bryson and Roering 1987; Backoff et al. 1993).

The lack of research-based literature concerning the strategic planning process at the local level is even more pronounced. What has been written about the work of local government executive officers in the strategic planning process does not discuss the specific nature of the roles these officials played as part of the process. Neither what these roles might be, nor when these roles might be played during the process, have received any meaningful treatment in the literature. General works have concentrated on normative axioms with anecdotes offered as evidence (see Gordon (1993)). Case studies have examined the application of the process, either providing an internal perspective (see Duff and Parker (1989)) or an external evaluation of a successful case (see Wheeland (1993)). But such studies have provided little information on the roles local government chief executive officers are seen as playing in the strategic planning process, either by reporting the perceptions of the strategic planning managers themselves or the perceptions of others.

Furthermore, the traditional differences between government and business mean that systematic *private sector* studies of strategic planning are not easily transferred to the public sector. So (1984) noted this problem in his survey of the early public sector literature, finding it to be too promotional and lacking in discussions of the difficulties of transferring the strategic planning process from business to government. Significant limitations exist on the decision-making powers of public sector executives that are caused by the organizational environment in which they operate (Pinfield 1986). Also, there is a lack of a single objective measurement of success in government, such as the "bottom line" of profit and loss found in business (Wiseman 1993). Overall, little is known about the roles public sector executives perceive themselves as playing during the strategic planning process.

Several characteristics of the strategic planning process are known. Most importantly, there are commonly-accepted definitions. In the early 1970s, Drucker (1974), distilling the earlier work of himself and others, put forth in his seminal work, *Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices*, a definition of the process that continues to provide insight into the requirements and responsibilities confronting those who undertake strategic planning (Drucker 1974: 125 [emphasis in original]):

the continuous process of making present entrepreneurial (*risk-taking*) decisions systematically and with the greatest knowledge of their futurity; organizing systematically the *efforts* needed to carry out these decisions; and measuring the results of these decisions through organized, *systematic feedback*.

Strategic planning emerges as an activity that requires someone (or some group) to act

in order to bring about a desired state. There are decisions to be made, risks to be taken, efforts to be organized, and results to be measured. The process is forward-looking and participatory. The future is not something to be forecast. Rather, it is something to be acted upon and brought about.

About a decade later, Olsen and Eadie (1982) provided an action-oriented definition for the strategic planning process in the public sector, defining it as "a disciplined effort to produce fundamental *decisions* shaping the nature and direction of governmental activities within constituted bounds" (Olsen and Eadie 1982: 4 [emphasis added]). Bryson (1988) acknowledged the importance as well as the acceptance of the Olsen and Eadie definition of public sector strategic planning when he employed it in his own widely-cited book on the subject.

However, even after a definition for the process was formulated, much work still was needed to develop fully the concept of strategic planning in the public sector. Eadie (1983) noted that the lack of critical theory on the subject showed how the process had barely penetrated the collective consciousness of the public sector. And Bloom (1986) decried the lack of agreement on a uniform terminology to be used to discuss the process.

The evolution of a public sector strategic planning perspective was abetted by a special symposium at the 1986 annual conference of the American Planning Association. Several of those papers were later published in an issue of the *Journal of the American Planning Association (JAPA)* in a special section edited by Bryson and Einsweiler (1987).

The lead article in the special section presented a model for public sector strategic planning (Bryson and Roering 1987). The eight-step model was a framework to be used to guide thought and action in the process:

1. Internal Agreement for Planning
2. & 3. Identification of Mandates
Clarification of Mission and Values
4. & 5. Identification of External Opportunities and Threats
Identification of Internal Strengths and Weaknesses
6. Identification of Strategic Issues
7. Development of Strategies
8. Description of the Organization's Future

This model, a public sector adaptation of the Harvard Policy model commonly used in the private sector (Bryson and Roering 1987), has become the dominant action-based framework for governmental strategic planning efforts.

The *JAPA* symposium also included a discussion of the merits of using strategic planning in public sector settings (Kaufman and Jacobs 1987), examples of strategic planning efforts in Ohio and Minnesota (Wechsler and Backoff 1987; Nutt and Backoff 1987), and a discussion of a new tool for public sector strategic planning: external scanning -- an examination of the environment in which the organization operates (Pflaum and Delmont 1987).

Along these same lines, the most recent series of articles on public sector strategic planning, a symposium in *Public Administration Quarterly (PAQ)* edited by Halachmi (1993), presented a strong case for utilization of the process. In the *PAQ* symposium, Backoff et al. (1993) described the appropriateness of strategic planning to local

governments in general while Wiseman (1993) examined the process in small local governments in particular. The other two articles discussed methodological techniques: demographic analysis (Halachmi et al. 1993) and employee surveys (MacManus and Strunz 1993).

To summarize, existing examinations of public sector strategic planning tend to be studies aimed at suggesting how the process "should be done," including many studies which consist of a specific case (or cases) which are of uncertain generalizability. What has not been analyzed carefully are what roles public sector executives see themselves playing in the strategic planning process, particularly at the local level.

It is one thing for theory to imply that executives *should* be performing certain roles in strategic planning. But it is an entirely different matter to ascertain whether executives *perceive* themselves as playing these roles. This study will begin to address this gap in the literature by asking local government chief executive officers what roles they see themselves playing during the strategic planning process.

STRATEGIC PLANNING AND STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

For the purposes of this research, strategic planning and strategic management are treated as the same process. The extension of strategic planning models to include implementation steps as part of the planning process makes this acceptable.

The traditional difference between strategic planning and strategic management has been whether or not implementation activities -- action steps -- are part of the

process. The most basic definition of strategic management offered forth has been the combination of the steps of strategic planning with the action of implementation (Jones and Wortman 1981; Backoff et al. 1987). Other models have included implementation and evaluation with planning in the formation of strategic management (Montanarri and Bracker 1986; Halachmi et al. 1993). Still other frameworks have characterized strategic planning as one link in a chain of processes that make up strategic management (Hollis 1986a). This is similar to the way planning is associated with management as part of the POSDCORBE model (Gulick's (1937) model of Planning-Organizing-Staffing-Directing- COordinating-Reporting-Budgeting model plus Evaluation).

This traditional linkage of planning and management has led to the call for the coupling of the two strategic processes. Paine (1975) stated that only where a commitment to the strategic management processes existed would the strategic planning process have meaning. Jensen (1982) called for unifying the planning and management activities of public organizations. Considering implementation as part of the planning process is not a new concept. Faludi (1973) described implementation as the final step in the process during which plans are put into programs. Benveniste (1977) characterized implementation as the answer to the question "What should we do?" when examining alternatives and possible plans for the future. Friedmann (1987) found that planners had become increasingly concerned about the ability to transform plans into action as he reviewed the influence of the field of policy analysis on American planning theory. Eddie (1989) interpreted these works to mean that strategic planning with implementation

and strategic management were the same process. He arrived at this conclusion by reasoning that the logic of planning and the processes of management were essentially the same. Thus, in his later writings, he used the two terms interchangeably.

This research adopts a similar position. Strategic planning (when it includes implementation) and strategic management are used here as different terms to describe for the same process. For the purpose of clarity, the term *strategic planning* is be used here, except in those cases where *strategic management* is the preferred term of the author (or authors) whose work is being reviewed.

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH INTENT

The problem to be considered in this dissertation is to compare systematically the actual perceptions of local government chief executive officers of their roles in strategic planning with their expected roles based upon the implied normative theories found in the strategic planning literature. If the normative descriptions pertaining to the roles to be played by executives are accurate, then those roles should be reflected in the perceptions of local government chief executive officers regarding their roles in strategic planning. If not, the importance or conceptualization of the roles of the public sector executive in strategic planning theory becomes problematic. This study addresses this dilemma by focusing on *how* local government chief executive officers perceive the roles they play in the strategic planning process. The role perceptions of local government chief executive officers will be compared to a set of five expected roles derived from a

review of the strategic planning literature. The hypothesized roles follow.

- 1. Leader:** Supports and guides the entire strategic planning process.
- 2. Accommodator:** Tailors the process to fit organizational needs
- 3. Informer:** Provides (or ensures provision of) information.
- 4. Integrator:** Creates linkages between strategic plans and other plans.
- 5. Change Master:** Allows (advocates) consideration of new and different ideas.

These roles were developed through a review of both public and private sector descriptions of the strategic planning process. The specific research that supports the use of each role will be discussed as part of the literature review.

Main Hypotheses

The five roles will serve as the basis for the five main hypotheses of the research. For each role, a null hypothesis is developed. The hypothesis examines whether differences exist in the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers depending upon whether or not strategic planning has been or is being undertaken in a locality. For each specific role, the corresponding hypothesis will follow the same format: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no impact on the perception of local government chief executive officer on the (specific) role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The independent variable is the undertaking of strategic planning while the dependent variable is the perception of the roles played by the local government chief executive officer during the conduct of their duties.

The basis for these hypotheses is that strategic planning requires local government chief executive officers to become actively involved in the process. In particular, Bryson and Roering (1987) and Nutt and Backoff (1987) emphasized the need for those

undertaking strategic planning sometimes to be overtly political in order to assure that the process brings about the results desired.

Subhypotheses

Two sets of subhypotheses also are explored for each of the five roles. The first set examines the relationship among the perceived role(s) of local government chief executive officers and the characteristics of the locality itself. The localities are examined in terms of size (variables include population, budget, and staffing); sophistication (variables include type of locality, structure of government, and administrative capacity); and standing (variables include tenure of the local government chief executive officer, the turnover in the elected body, and the source(s) of policy initiative in the locality).

These subhypotheses use a null hypothesis format for testing: *The size/sophistication/ standing of a locality undertaking strategic planning has no effect on the perception of the local government chief executive officer on the (specific) role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Another set of subhypotheses examines the relationship between the stages in the strategic planning process and the perceived roles played by the local government chief executive officer. The hypotheses are based upon the assertion by Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992) that each role must be played throughout the process. It also follows the null hypothesis format: *The stage of the strategic planning process has no effect on the perception of the local government chief executive officer on the (specific) role he/she*

plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.

DISCUSSION OF METHODOLOGY

To test the hypotheses and subhypotheses, 168 local government chief executive officers in Virginia were surveyed. The population included the managers of all forty-one cities, the administrator (or equivalent) of all ninety-five counties, and the managers of the thirty-two towns which annually report their finances to the state auditor. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section was to be filled out by all local government managers and administrators. It opened with questions on the status of any strategic planning efforts in the locality over the last ten years. Next, it probed how the local government chief executive officer perceived himself/herself as acting while dealing with new initiatives. New initiatives were used as a proxy for strategic planning to allow responses from all local government officials, not just those who had undertaken strategic planning. Scaled-response questions operationalized each of the hypothesized roles and sought data on the percentage of time the administrator or manager perceived that he/she acted in a specific role. The section ended by gaining background data on the locality. The second section was to be completed only by the local government managers and administrators in localities where strategic planning had been undertaken. It was designed to discover if any connection existed between the perceived roles carried out by local government chief executive officers and the stages of the planning process. It also sought additional background data on the strategic planning effort itself.

The responses of the administrators and managers were analyzed and the hypotheses (the main and the subhypotheses) were tested to ascertain whether or not undertaking strategic planning affected the perceived roles played by local government chief executive officers, whether characteristics of the government structure of the locality affected those perceptions, and whether or not the strategic planning process itself influenced those perceptions.

The methodology will be discussed in detail in a separate section (Chapter III).

SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH

The study empirically explores what roles local government chief executive officers perceive themselves as playing in strategic planning efforts. This is accomplished through the construction of a typology based on the implicit roles found in the strategic planning literature and testing those roles against the self-perceptions of managers and administrators. This will permit research on roles played in the strategic planning process to begin to move from basic statements of involvement to descriptions of the type and level of involvement required from the local government chief executive officer as part of the process.

Importance of Main Hypotheses

The importance of the roles played by the chief executive officer of an organization cannot be understated. Executives are "those knowledge workers, managers, or individual professionals who are expected by virtue of their position or

their knowledge to make decisions in the normal course of their work that have *significant effect* on the performance and results of the whole" (Drucker 1966: 8 [emphasis added]).

For the local governments in this study, the chief executive officer is what has been termed "the local government manager" (Anderson et al. 1983). These individuals may have different titles but they are the operational head of the local government and serve at the direction and discretion of the elected governing body (Anderson et al. 1983). This individual would be defined as administrator in the traditional sense since "administrators are persons appointed to executive agencies to enforce laws and carry out policies and whose tenure and promotion depends on professional merit rather than political affiliation" (Ranney 1990: 321).

The traditional concept of the administrator, as defined by the politics-administration dichotomy developed by Wilson (1887), has lost much of its relevance. The traditional public administration paradigm included those activities involved in carrying out governmental programs and policies (Mosher 1982). But by the late 1940s, the problems with the politics-administration construct were evident. Waldo (1948: 128) termed the dichotomy "inadequate" and described governmental activity as "a seamless web of action." Eventually, this heterodoxy was confirmed at the Minnowbrook Conference of 1968 which formally rejected the concept of the separation of politics and administration (Fredrickson 1989).

Thus, public administration theorists argue that the roles played by

"administrators," the local government chief executive officers, have changed over time. "Administrators" have become the most influential persons for many decisions that are made in localities (Lucy 1988). They now can and do advocate change. They exert considerable influence on the decision-making process. And they can be committed to social and economic justice (Golembiewski 1989). They are now perceived as policy advocates, negotiators, and consensus builders (Nalbandian 1992).

These roles ascribed to local chief executive officers seem similar to the hypothesized roles played by the managers and administrators as part of the strategic planning process. This should not be surprising as the two activities often require similar efforts. Bryson and Roering (1987) noted in most cases, the person in charge of strategic planning would have to be a "hybrid" -- part technician, part politician.

But the divergence from the traditional concept of the public administrator, as characterized by the local government chief executive officers playing all these many different roles, continues to be confusing and problematic (Lucy 1988; Nalbandian 1992). An examination of the congruence between the roles that local government chief executive officers *perceive* themselves as playing in the strategic planning process and those roles which they are *thought* to be playing will provide an additional perspective into this analytical concern. This study provides insight into the degree to which current theoretical constructs now being used to define the field of public administration actually describe the reality experienced on a daily basis by local government chief executive officers.

Importance of Subhypotheses

The subhypotheses offer a deeper level of understanding of and permit control for factors others than whether or not the locality has undertaken strategic planning.

With respect to the first set of subhypotheses, those concerned with organizational structure, this research is important because of the more limited administrative capacities and level of sophistication which are often associated with smaller and more rural governments. Eckstrom (1989: 76) asserts, "[t]he decision-making process in a smaller unit of government is usually thought to reside in a limited number of individuals who have maintained control of the process for considerable lengths of time and are quite satisfied with the *status quo* in the decision processes." He then demonstrates the point in his study of budgetary practices in smaller units of government. Additionally, Wiseman (1993) specifically discusses the difficulties of using strategic planning in smaller units of local government because of their limited administrative capacity.

The variables selected are governmental equivalents of standard background measures common to social science research (de Vaus 1990). *Size* is examined in order to verify anecdotal evidence from case studies of the successful use of strategic planning by local governments of all sizes, shapes, and forms (Kemp 1992). *Sophistication* is examined because the availability of professional administration to handle complex governmental matters is a relatively recent phenomenon in many smaller and rural localities. Zody (1980) notes that in the late-1970s, almost three-quarters of the county governments in the United States had no professional administrator. This absence has

led to the widely-held belief that smaller governments do not innovate as much as larger governments that possess greater resources and more managerial expertise (Wanamaker 1981). *Standing* is being examined to determine the effects of politics on the strategic planning process. Most authors acknowledge the importance of being cognizant of the political environment. The most commonly-noted effect of the impact of political realities on the strategic planning process is the reduction of the long-range time horizon used to frame such efforts to about four years, the standard length of a term in office for elected officials (Zody 1984a; Bozeman and Straussman 1990).

With respect to the second set of subhypotheses, those concerned with at what stage of the strategic planning process different roles are played, this research is important because the literature provides virtually no insight on the matter. Only the brief statements by Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992) that all roles are played throughout the process indicate that any such connection has ever been considered.

Intuitively, however, it is quite easy to construct a conceptual model to support the idea that different roles are played at different stages of the strategic planning process. Each stage in the process involves a different activity and each such activity may require that different roles be played by the local government chief executive officer. Additionally, informal discussions with managers and administrators during this research indicated that uncertainty exists among them about precisely what is done and when it is done during strategic planning. This means how much the executive has to play each role may vary as the strategic planning process moves forward.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADDITIONAL RESEARCH

This study has at least two important limitations. First, it examines only the *perceptions* of local government officials concerning the roles they played in the strategic planning process. Second, it does not seek to ascertain whether or not chief executive officers increase the *effectiveness* of strategic planning efforts by playing the hypothesized roles.

The perception of administrators and managers of the roles they play in the strategic planning process is a good place to start research on the subject. Case studies have found a particular role being played in a particular situation in a particular locality during the process. Many authors have described the roles that *should* be played during the process. But no study has looked carefully at a variety of local governments to see what roles the local government administrators and managers perceive themselves as playing. This study will do that.

Of course, there are others besides the chief executive officer involved in local government strategic planning efforts. Further research could ask council or board members for their perceptions of the roles they perceived the manager or administrator to be playing during strategic planning, as well as perceptions of their own roles during the process. This would provide other participants in the process an opportunity to discuss and distinguish the roles played -- and not played -- by the chief executive officer in their locality.

No attempt is made to correlate the roles played by the chief executive officer

with the effectiveness of the strategic planning process because of the difficulty of measuring the "success" of strategic planning. Objective standards often do not exist for evaluating public sector strategic planning. Unlike business, there is no ultimate "bottom line" for government.

This absence has led to case studies being the research method of choice for evaluating strategic planning efforts. Further research could select a subset of the localities included in this study which have undertaken strategic planning, use the data gathered about the roles chief executive officers perceived themselves as playing, and examine in detail the effectiveness of the processes that each used.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The strategic planning process has been the subject of scholarly research and discourse since the 1960s. As corporate planning became a formalized process after World War II, a literature on the subject soon followed. Chandler (1962) began this discussion in earnest with his epic work, *Strategy and Structure*. In this book, Chandler examined the process used by American corporations to address their planning needs and the changes in the overall business strategy which resulted from these planning efforts through a series of case studies.

The discussion of public sector strategic planning in the literature dates back almost as long as the consideration of its corporate counterpart. The first research articles and books on the application of strategic thinking and strategic planning in government began less than a decade after the publication of Chandler's text. Jones and Wortman (1981) reported on twenty-eight studies which addressed at least part of the strategic planning puzzle in the public sector from 1961 to 1980. Throughout the 1970s, though, many scholars argued that the differences between the private and public sectors made the use of strategic planning nearly impossible (or at least impractical) for governments. Despite these concerns, the use of strategic planning in the public sector continued to grow. And during the 1980s, a meaningful literature that described and

prescribed strategic planning for governments at all levels developed.

Therefore, reviewing the literature relevant to public sector strategic planning is a daunting task. To provide structure for this undertaking, a framework has been developed which divides the literature to be examined into three parts. First, the literature characterizing the "generic" strategic planning process, the process associated with the business world, will be examined. These works explore the development and use of "corporate planning" to affect organizational strategy throughout the private sector. Next, the literature pertaining to public sector application of strategic planning will be discussed. These works detail how a management tool developed for the private sector has been refined and applied by governments. Lastly, the importance of the head of the organization with respect to the strategic planning effort will be probed. A major premise of strategic planning in both business and government is the need for the person "in charge" -- the chief executive officer, the director, the general manager, the administrator -- to "buy in" and become involved in the planning process.

STRATEGIC PLANNING IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Introduction

As long as there have been businesses, there have been questions about the nature of that business that have had to be answered. For example, Porter (1980: xix-xx) listed three important questions for the process of formulating a strategy: "What is the business doing now?", "What is happening in the environment?", and "What should the business

be doing?"

Corporate history throughout the first half of the twentieth century is replete with accounts of strategies being formulated and planned by leading industrial enterprises. The corporations were doing what is today called strategic planning, even if the effect of their activities was not fully realized by the persons carrying out the plans.

For example, Chandler (1977), in his history of corporate management in America, describes the role of the board of directors of Standard Oil (of New Jersey) in the early 1900s as setting goals and selecting strategies while hired managers oversaw the day-to-day operations of the corporation. In essence, the top executives developed and oversaw what today would be called the corporation's strategic plan.

And Standard Oil was not alone. Chandler (1962) examined strategy formulation in the chemical, automobile, merchandising and oil industries from the 1920s through the 1950s, with particular emphasis on Du Pont, General Motors, Sears and Roebuck, and Standard Oil. Similarly, McNichols (1983) presented how changes in the executive philosophy and structure of Ford, General Motors, and other auto-makers played a key role in the development of corporate strategy from the founding of the industry into the post-World War II period and beyond.

The Formal Development of Corporate Strategic Planning

Strategic preparedness, however, remained the exception rather than the rule for more than five decades. Eventually, though, strategic planning became the dominant framework in the corporate world as businesses found it useful to assess the internal and

external conditions and adjust their competitive approaches accordingly. Historical accounts trace the origin of corporate or strategic planning as a formalized process to the 1950s and 1960s (Andrews 1971; Ansoff 1984; Taylor 1986; Streib and Poister 1990; Bruton and Hildreth 1993). This is the same time period during which Chandler (1962: 13) offered his definition of strategy, describing it as "... the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals."

Shortly after Chandler defined the process, Sweet (1964) offered a model of it. Strategic planning involved "an organization planning for the future on the basis of the total organization without any specifications as to the particular length of time" (Sweet 1964: 1). He described an eleven-step process for strategic planning which involved reaching an agreement to plan, examining the current situation, comparing alternatives, and deciding on a course of action for the future. The process also included implementation and continual review and reworking of the plan as needed.

1. Strategic comprehension.
2. Competitive orientation.
3. Directional dimensions.
4. Organizational adaptation.
5. Environmental predictions.
6. Strategic postulates.
7. Stratagem formulation.
8. Stratagem evaluation.
9. Strategic implementation.
10. Strategic control.
11. Strategic renewal.

Other definitions of strategic planning soon followed. Anthony (1965: 24)

described strategic planning as a "... process having to do with the formulation of long-range, strategic plans and policies that determine or change the character or direction of the organization." His formal definition of the process included both deciding on organizational objectives and determining the policies which govern the acquisition, use, and disposition of resources. Thus, to Anthony, strategic planning was an internally-oriented process for organizations.

Anthony also distinguished strategic planning from long-range planning. The two differ because the effect of strategic planning decisions may be felt in the near-term and because long-range planning more closely resembled a control process rather than a planning process.

At about the same time, Steiner (1965: 436) noted that "[l]ong-range planning deals with the futurity of present decisions." However, by the late-1960s, Steiner was using the term corporate planning to describe the same process. In his epic work, *Top Management Planning*, Steiner (1969) outlined a model for business planning. Its premises were the organizational purpose, the values of top management, and the results of external and internal analysis of the situation. Its planning stages included strategic planning, complete with the organizational mission and long-range objectives, policies, and strategies, medium-range programming, and short-range planning. And the process concluded with plan implementation and subsequent review.

During this era too, strategic planning was set apart from tactical planning (Ackoff 1969). Although both terms are relative, Ackoff defined strategic plans as

having a longer time frame and a broader organizational scope than tactical plans as well as being oriented toward both ends and means. Ackoff also touched on two subjects related to strategic planning that were addressed more fully by later scholars. The first was a need for planning to be adaptive rather than optimizing. The second was the use of scenarios to select the course of action for an organization.

Andrews (1971) then tried to bring everything that had been postulated regarding corporate planning into focus. The formulation of strategy was based upon four factors: opportunities and risks, company resources, managerial values, and societal responsibility. Strategy would be implemented through the organization structure and relationships, through organizational relationships and behavior, and through top leadership. Andrews saw strategy formulation as important because it gave the corporation a meaning beyond the intent to maximize profits, the planning acumen for undertakings with long lead times, the ability to influence and change the operating environment, and a mechanism to gain organizational cooperation and inspired effort. In addition, Andrews said it was important for strategy formulators, particularly general managers, to be the balancing generalists in a world of specialists.

Strategic Planning Broadens In Scope

In the 1970s, strategic planning overwhelmed American corporations -- literally. The over-application of the process led to disillusionment among many users. There were too many issues to plan thoroughly and too many critical issues were being missed (Lorange et al. 1986). It was during this time that strategic planning became strategic

management in the corporate world.

Ansoff (1972) made the first, widely-recognized call for strategic management more than two decades ago. In his essay, Ansoff reasoned that there were two distinct management processes -- operations management and strategic management -- and that both were in simultaneous demand for the first time, leading to a shortage of strategic managers. He described the activities of the two managerial styles as being incremental and entrepreneurial. Also, Ansoff (1972: 5) provided the first definition of strategic management:

The strategic management activity is concerned with establishing and maintaining a set of relationships between the organization and the environment which (a) enable it to pursue its objectives, (b) are consistent with the organizational capacities, and (c) continue to be responsive to environmental demands.

Ansoff refined the concept of strategic management throughout the 1970s. One way he did this was by serving as one of three editors for *From Strategic Planning to Strategic Management* (Ansoff et al. 1976). The book stressed how the management process was an improvement over the planning process. Strategic planning had problems whenever the focus shifted to unfamiliar, different alternatives (Ansoff et al. 1976). Still, strategic planning was seen as part of the solution to problems. But the scope of everything that needed to be considered included all managerial problems and their associated processes and variables. That was what strategic management was said to encompass (Ansoff and Hayes 1976).

Others expanded on the arguments made by Ansoff. Davous and Deas (1976)

described the term strategic planning as misleading. They regarded planning, along with strategy analysis, strategic decisions, and strategic behavior, to be part of the strategic management process. Tabatoni and Jarniou (1976) stressed the need for flexibility to bring about change. They stated that planning systems, structures and social control practices must work together to promote such change. And that with this rationale as the basis for strategic management, the organization would need new planning, information, and control systems.

Ansoff crystallized his perspective in *Strategic Management* (1979). He suggested a generic formula applicable to both "for-profit" business firms and "not-for-profits" with publicly-owned assets. He categorized both of them as "environment-serving" organizations (ESOs) and categorized their work as being either entrepreneurial, operations, or marketing. He examined the influences on the behavior of the ESOs and factors which affect their ability to manage strategically, including organizational capacity and resources, corporate culture and environment, and leadership power and choices. All of these factors were used to construct a model of effects on transitional behavior. His model showed how strategic management can and cannot change an organization.

Later authors have defined strategic management similarly to Ansoff (1979). Schendal and Hofer (1979: 11), described the process as "the entrepreneurial work of the organization, with organizational renewal and growth, and more particularly, with developing and utilizing the strategy which is used to guide the organization's operations." Bracker (1980) referred to it as the direct application in an organization of

the concepts of business strategy developed by academicians. The process included analysis of the internal and external environment and maximizing the utilization of resources in relation to organizational objectives.

Despite these steps toward a greater measure of consensus on what constituted strategic planning, the purposes and boundaries of strategic management continued to be the subject of debate. Gluck et al. (1982) argued that no agree-upon definition existed of the process. They concluded, "strategic management should refer to some special kind of management process or system that links strategic planning and decision making with the day-to-day business of operational management" (Gluck et al., 1982: 9-10). They proposed an integrated system which "welds strategic planning and management into a single process" (Gluck et al. 1982: 16). In the same fashion, Rowe et al. (1982), described strategic management as the hub of a wheel which supports strategic planning, organizational considerations, strategic control, and resource requirements. Thus, strategic management is the process that includes all of these operations.

Strategic Planning Matures

As scholars were busy defining and developing strategic management, both it and strategic planning continued to develop and mature. Among the biggest changes in strategic planning was the linking of strategic plans to operations and the realization of the importance of the executive in planning efforts.

Steiner (1977) described a strategic planning process that stressed the needs of the chief executive officer and included methods for translating the plan into decisions. In

the monograph *Strategic Managerial Planning*, Steiner included a list of questions to evaluate the effectiveness of planning efforts in meeting the needs of the chief executive.

Lorraine (1980) argued that strategic planning was an aid to management for strategic decision making and thus its purpose was to allow for change and innovation in the firm. To him, this was accomplished by creating connections among the various stages of the planning process: objectives setting, strategic programming, budgeting, monitoring, and linking to managerial decisions. The first three stages were characterized as chronological in nature; the last two as continuous and simultaneous.

In an effort to increase the effectiveness of strategic planning, Ansoff (1984) analyzed a number of factors that caused problems in the process. He developed five categories of reasons for unsuccessful planning efforts. The first three were systemic problems: strategic planning was not a complete system, strategic activity was placed in competition with other activities, and strategic information was not made available to those undertaking the planning. Persons involved in the planning process lacking the necessary strategic management skills were seen as partly a systemic and partly a behavior problem. A final reason for the failure of strategic planning was the behavioral-based problem that the process was often perceived as a threat to organizational culture and/or power structure. Ansoff called for changes in training, both to teach better techniques and to change attitudes within organizations.

Additionally, in strategic management and strategic planning, the literature began to discuss the techniques and tools necessary to succeed as well as methods to measure

the success of strategic efforts.

McNamee (1985) catalogued several notable methods for strategic management. Hamermesh (1986) also discussed the utility of these tools. The techniques are frequently associated with portfolio analysis as a corporation examines its core mission and the businesses in which it is involved. The more common of these tools are matrix displays, PIMS (profit impact of market strategy), and scenario planning.

Several common matrices have developed. The four-cell growth-share matrix classifies business units as either "Stars," "Cash Cows," "Dogs," or "Question Marks" depending upon the market share held and the potential for growth in a particular industry. Using similar criteria, the nine-cell company position/industry attractiveness screens, the most common being the General Electric matrix and the Shell matrix, instructs corporations to make additional investments, hold existing investments, or divest all current investments in a particular business area.

PIMS systems are financial indicators for looking at the performance of business units. Profitability, quality, market share, and return on investment are among the measures used to gauge business performance. This and other "bottom-line" methods of analysis have been utilized because of the connection made between strategic planning and management and the firm performance (Rhyne 1986; Pearce et al. 1987; Farley and Hulbert 1994). Alternative measures of strategic performance have also been suggested, including a composite measure of financial performance and a stakeholder satisfaction rating (Chakravarthy 1986).

Current Status and Direction of Strategic Planning

Strategic planning has become the dominant planning framework in the corporate world as businesses have found it useful to assess internal and external conditions and adjust competitive approaches accordingly (Rue and Holland 1989). As part of the continued development of the process, newer, non-traditional methods of analysis have come into use over the past few years. These new techniques ensure the consideration of possibilities for the future of the organization as well as the utilization of previously unconsidered talents of the chief executive officer and others in the top management team.

An examination of the current situation of an organization has always played a part in the strategic planning process. Traditional SWOT analysis has been used to examine the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats of an organization. However, the processes have generally not been standardized and different procedures have been used in different circumstances. Narchal et al. (1987) sought to improve that situation through environmental scanning. They concluded that application of environmental scanning would formalize SWOT analysis and transform it into a continuous process through the use of diagrams and influence charts, constant monitoring of the situation, and the generation of scenarios.

The use of scenarios also has been suggested as a way to improve the investigation of possible alternative courses of action. Brauers and Weber (1988: 45) concluded that scenario analysis, "determines possible alternative main themes and the

predictability of the scenarios developed as starting points for further investigation in the strategic planning process." Along similar lines, Bates and Dillard (1991) advocated the use of a "Desired Future Position." This "snapshot" into the future would show what is expected to happen, who is expected to make it happen, and how it will affect the organization. It also provides a criterion for judging the actions of those involved in the strategic planning process.

Several authors have looked at ways of structuring strategic planning to increase its ease of use. Schmidt (1988) developed a strategic review process which would permit top management to be involved in a more decentralized planning process. Webster et al. (1989) catalogued thirty different tools that could be used in the strategic planning process and provided a brief synopsis of how each technique is used and what resources each requires. Scharf (1991) boiled strategic planning down to two core elements: mission and action. Wu and Wu (1991) suggested the use of an analytical hierarchical process to evaluate alternative courses of action. This would be accomplished by examining how well alternatives connected to the mission of an organization as well as the main criteria and sub-criteria being used to judge the alternatives. Sokol (1992) recommended making strategic planning simpler and quicker. He advocated using no more than five planning tools to perform both analysis and synthesis tasks. Sokol called for the objectives of planning to be dynamic instead of static points-in-time. By doing this, the plan would stay up-to-date longer and only need to be updated periodically.

McGinnis (1984) and Agor (1989) suggested that strategic planning move beyond

the exclusive use of the standard analysis processes that have normally been used for developing the future direction of a business. He urged that the intuition of those in the organization, their innate understanding of the business, should also be given consideration when planning for the future.

All of this led to a reexamination of the basic tenets of strategic planning. Yip (1985) observed the need to remember that differences exist between organizations and that qualities unique to individual institutions should be considered during the planning process. "The strategic situation of a business is what should primarily determine the nature of its strategic planning" (Yip 1985: 43). Langley (1988) examined three businesses and how they used strategic planning and defined four organizational roles for the process. In these firms, strategic planning is used for public relations purposes, for internal information dissemination, for group therapy within the organization, and for direction and control through planning and implementation.

Mintzberg (1994) has offered perhaps the most meaningful observation on the current status of strategic planning: "Three decades of experience with strategic planning has taught us about the need to loosen up the process of strategy making rather than trying to seal it off with arbitrary formalization" (Mintzberg 1994: 114). Mintzberg reached two of the same conclusions discussed above -- that strategic planning must be flexible to fit the needs of the organization and that "hard data" must be synthesized with "soft data" in the planning process. The ritualistic planning process being used in many organizations was termed "strategic programming" by Mintzberg (1994: 107).

STRATEGIC PLANNING IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Initial Utilization of the Process

At the same time the corporate planning movement began to make a significant effect in the private sector, the public sector also was beginning to experiment with its planning processes as well. Among the first public agencies to attempt a full-scale use of strategic planning was one of the largest federal government agencies -- the United States Department of Defense.

A precursor to strategic planning was introduced in the Defense Department by Secretary Robert McNamara through the use of PPBS -- Planning, Programming, Budgeting System. A former U.S. Air Force officer and Ford Motor Company executive, McNamara, in his role as a cabinet secretary, along with Charles J. Hitch, the controller, put in place this new financial system which enabled top management to make decisions based upon program packages (Roherty 1971). The installation of such a new system was possible because the change of administrations and the resulting change in the power structure of government created a climate in which experimentation was accepted (Trehwitt 1971). PPBS was defined by the following characteristics (Novick 1973a):

1. Definition of organizational objectives
2. Determination of programs, including alternatives, to meet the objectives
3. Identification of major issues to be resolved
4. Annual cycle for planning, programming, and budgeting
5. Continuous reexamination of program results
6. Recognition of issues and concerns that need long-term attention
7. Analysis of programs and alternatives in terms of outcomes and costs
8. Development of necessary tools for cost-benefit analysis

9. Annual development of multi-year program and financial plans
10. Adaptation of existing accounting and record-keeping procedures

After being used in the Department of Defense for four years, PPBS was made the standard budgeting process for the entire federal government in 1965. The system received praise from renowned scholars. It incorporated planning into budgeting in an attempt to bring rationality to the previously peculiar process (Schick 1966; Mosher 1971). Despite a less than smooth transition, high hopes still existed for the eventual utilization of PPBS throughout the government (Botner 1970; Levine 1973).

However, this praise and optimism did not help PPBS overcome its problems and it fell under the weight of its own program memoranda. The FY1972 budget preparation documents continued to use a similar format to PPBS, but specific mentions of the process did not appear anywhere in the explanatory text (Novick 1973b). PPBS did lead to the establishment of permanent linkages between budgeting and planning. First, it helped to make analysis part of budget formulation (Webber and Wildavsky 1986: 512).

If the "McNamara Revolution" failed to achieve dramatic improvements in defense management and organizational control, however, it did leave a legacy of explicit analysis that has continued to shape national-security policies and civil-military interactions

Second, and more important to the discussion herein, PPBS underscored the need for planning in government (Levine 1973: 8).

The point is that though planning such as that represented by the PPB system [PPBS] is generally considered not to have worked well, to have worked less than well specifically in terms of failure to fill the reasonable expectations of plan engineers, the general thrust continues to be toward trying more and better planning rather than stepping back and questioning the whole process.

The Department of Defense recognized the importance of strategic planning in other ways during the 1960s as well. The Industrial College of the United States Armed Forces taught that "long-range, strategic, or comprehensive planning was still developing" (Brown 1963: 63). This type of planning included activities such as considering the long-range effects of decisions; making long-range forecasts because of that change; and developing a comprehensive, unified, long-range plan for the organization (Brown 1963).

The first signs of strategic planning at the local level could also be found at the local level in the 1960s -- in Great Britain. After studying the Coventry City council from 1964 to 1967, Friend and Jessop (1969) proposed a method for strategic decision-making that was an alternative to planning as it had been traditionally practiced -- a process of strategic choice. *Choice* indicated that all areas of discretionary action were to be considered. *Process* suggested the property of continuity over time. And *strategic* hinted at the fact that the level of choice involved in process required facing difficult challenges (Friend and Jessop 1969: 97).

In the early 1970s, more formal strategic planning processes were being utilized in local government in England. The Kent County Council (Rugman 1973) and the Metropolitan Borough of Stockport (Paine 1975) implemented strategic planning processes during the government reorganization in the early 1970s. In Kent County, corporate planning was put into full-scale use in the public sector at the local level for the first time (Rugman 1973). A Corporate Planning Group for the county was

established. Its responsibilities included the identification and review of objectives; the evaluation of short-term programs to meet those objectives; the consideration of priorities within programs; the formulation of proposals for linking objectives, programs, and budgets; the development of long-term plans; the monitoring and review of progress against the plans; and the provision of guidelines for the working parties. Thus this central group served as a filtering mechanism between the program-based working groups and the county council (Rugman 1973).

By 1974, the Borough of Stockport had a five-year plan in place, updated the plan annually, linked the plan to the budgetary process, and had started the process of fully assessing community needs. Concluded Paine, the head of corporate planning for the borough (1975: 54): "Corporate planning is still in its infancy; if it is to contribute to more effective policy making by the local authority and through that to better lives for the community, it must be flexible enough to cope with the rapidly changing environment."

Several years later in the United States, Moskow (1978) reopened the debate about the appropriateness of strategic planning for government. His study described the corporate (strategic) planning process as consisting of five steps:

1. Setting goals and objectives;
2. Assessing and forecasting the external environment;
3. Designing and assessing alternative courses of action;
4. Selecting the best course of action; and
5. Evaluating results.

Moskow concluded that planning activities, including strategic planning, should

be undertaken by government. But he warned that directly applying the corporate planning model was not considered appropriate because of the inherent differences between the public and private sectors (Moskow 1978).

Conversely, Summer (1980) stressed the commonalities between the two sectors. His examination of strategic planning caused him to surmise that certain characteristics had to be present in the leadership of the organization for strategic planning to succeed. And this was true regardless of whether that organization was in the private or public sector.

During this time period, the late 1970s and the early 1980s, strategic planning activities were becoming more common in the American public sector. Jones and Wortman (1981) cited examples of research in strategic management at all levels of the public sector -- federal, state, local, and military. Only four of the studies dated from before the 1970s. Strategic planning continued to become more common. In the early 1980s, Stuart and Weaver (1981) listed a wide-range of federal agencies that had undertaken strategic planning. Some of these were the Department of Agriculture, the National Bureau of Standards (Commerce Department), the Fish and Wildlife Service (Interior Department), and the Army Corps of Engineers (Defense Department).

Beginnings of a Theoretical Framework

While strategic planning had begun to be used in the public sector fairly widely, it was a tool or technique without a theory behind it. Jones and Wortman (1981: 216) closed their review of extant public sector strategic management studies by stating:

"Moreover, conceptual papers which would outline hypotheses are badly needed for the theoretical development of the field."

Meanwhile, Hatten (1982) called for the utilization of strategic management processes by not-for-profits organizations, which by her definition, included governments. The process she recommended was the corporate model. The benefits of strategic management included the determination and maintenance of available sets of relationships between an organization and its environment, the setting of strategic goals for the organization, and the designing of functional plans and policies to achieve those aims (Hatten 1982).

This served as a precursor for Olsen and Eadie's 1982 book entitled *The Game Plan: Governance with Foresight*. The book's introduction makes its purpose clear, "The conditions for applying strategic planning in the government have long been inviting; now the reasons to do so are compelling" (Olsen and Eadie 1982: 3) Olsen and Eadie (1982: 4) define strategic planning as "a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions shaping the nature and direction of governmental activities within constituted bounds." The authors discussed the need for strategic planning at the state level and how it was the responsibility of the governor to articulate a vision, mission, and goals which would then be shared throughout all of state government. They also described a five-step model of the strategic planning process specifically meant for the public sector:

1. Target setting;
2. Environmental scan;
3. Internal analysis;

4. Plan formulation and evaluation; and
5. Implementation.

Eadie refined these views in subsequent articles that he authored or co-authored throughout the 1980s. Guidelines for the application of strategic planning were developed (Eadie 1983: 449):

- Strategic planning is a multi-year process, starting slowly and gradually widening;
- Strategic planning is to be incorporated into a broader framework of planning; and
- Strategic planning applications should have a game plan, setting out desired outcomes, methodology, schedule, and responsibilities.

For internal agency strategic planning uses, Eadie proposed what he termed strategic agenda management (Eadie 1985; Eadie and Steinbacher 1985). "What distinguishes these agenda building processes from the more global approaches is not the identification of issues, but the management activities that follow, particularly the intense collective involvement of managers in detailed strategy formulation and implementation" (Eadie 1985: 19).

Lingering reservations about the applicability of strategic planning for the public sector were also overcome during this time period. Preble (1983: 140) pondered this point and determined that "[t]he relevant question here is to what extent can these ideas and planning processes developed in the private sector be transferred to the public sector?" Preble (1983: 149) later answered his own question, stating "that parts of the planning system such as futuristic methodologies and a futuristic orientation can be

expeditiously applied in the public sector."

Denhart (1985: 175) examined strategic planning and stated that "[c]ertainly precedents for such work at all levels of government are now being established." He noted that strategic planning was different from long-range planning because it takes the future into account to improve present decisions through the development of a series of action steps. Denhart added that the planning process could be made consistent with the participatory process of democratic government by actively seeking citizen participation.

Sorkin et al. (1984) reviewed existing strategic planning efforts and developed an iterative, seven-step process to describe how the process was then being used by governments.

1. Scanning of the environment.
2. Selection of key issues.
3. Setting of mission statements or broad goals.
4. Undertaking of external and internal analyses.
5. Development of goals, objectives, and strategies with respect to each issue.
6. Development of an implementation plan to carry out strategic actions.
7. Monitoring, updating, and scanning.

The model was the result of a research project jointly sponsored by the federal Department of Housing and Urban Development, Public Technologies, Inc., and the International City Management Association. The call for this research took the form of a brief notice in a roundup of topics important to local government. First, strategic plans were described as, "realistic and action-oriented 'roadmaps' for achieving crucial goals and objectives" (Zimmerman and Wilson 1983: 229). Then, the notice explained that research was underway to collect information on strategic planning from various local

governments in an effort to determine the usage patterns and potential benefits of strategic planning.

Steiss (1985) sought to integrate the strategic planning process with the budgetary process. In one of the first academic books on the subject, Steiss described strategic planning as a process used for clarifying goals and objectives, selecting policies for resource use, and establishing a basis for turning policies into actions.

Jenne (1986) noted that strategic planning differed from comprehensive planning because it took into account how major social and economic trends would affect the community in determining both goals for the future and the steps necessary to achieve those aspirations.

Montanari and Bracker (1986) proposed a public sector version of the Ansoff (1979) strategic management process. They focused on the strategic public planning unit for environment serving organizations. Their model process had four phases: content analysis; unit strategy development; implementation of strategy; and evaluation of strategy. Montanari and Bracker anticipated that the more systematic approach to environmental analysis would cause governmental units to do more than just react to resource constraints when planning strategy.

Similarly, Zody (1984a; 1984b) actively called for strategic planning and management processes to be instituted in governments during this period. Zody (1984a) found that the problem in many places in the public sector was that the focus of activity had been placed on the work itself instead of the results of the work. Strategic

management, he concluded, would provide the necessary and proper focus. This would be accomplished by orienting the organization toward *major* goals and objectives (Zody 1984b). "Thus, strategic management gives full recognition to the *greater* use and value of *integrated* management and operating goals and objectives" (Zody 1984b: 2-3 [emphasis in original]).

The benefits of strategic planning were also becoming obvious. Hollis (1986a: 8) described strategic planning as focusing on major issues, having a long-term time horizon, looking outward from the organization and containing the statement of the actions needed to meet and achieve objectives. This would lead to better allocation of resources and more effective implementation, resulting in long-term financial stability that would balance any short-run cost (Hollis 1986b).

Scholars have also advocated using planning in less than ideal situations. Denhart (1985) noted that planning in general, and strategic planning in particular, were most appropriate in times of uncertainty. Mercer (1986/87: 462) was even more specific: "As the cost/revenue squeeze tightens on local governments, the need for new approaches, such as strategic planning, becomes more obvious."

It was during this period that Bryson's first work on strategic planning appeared (Bryson et al. 1986). Bryson, along with Freeman and Roering, authored a chapter in a collection of works on strategy and planning in the public sector. The review of existing models of strategic planning (the Harvard Policy Model, portfolio models, industrial economics models, stakeholder models, and decision process models) and the

review of existing public sector strategic planning efforts (the Ramsey County, Minn., Nursing Service, the Philadelphia Investment Portfolio, and the government of Hennepin County, Minn.) would serve as the starting point for future investigations by Bryson into the process. Additionally, the model which has become a standard for public sector strategic planning efforts first appeared (Bryson et al. 1986).

During this period, the use of strategic planning in the public sector became increasingly widespread. One reason for this was the publication of one of the first books that addressed the specific needs of government officials with regard to strategic planning -- *Thinking Strategically: A Primer for Local Leaders*. Walter and Choate (1984) emphasized action and argued that the process involved choosing goals, structuring the organization, and setting/establishing policies and practices. They set strategic planning within the framework of foresight, goal setting, planning, operations management, and evaluation. In that setting, Walter and Choate (1984) define strategic planning as a process which involves needs identification and resource allocation.

In their survey of governments, Sorkin et al. (1984) found more than 15 local governments, large and small, undertaking some form of strategic planning. Among the cities examined or discussed were San Francisco, Philadelphia, Dallas, Pasadena, Calif., Windsor, Conn., and Alexandria, Va. (Sorkin et al. 1984). Other examples of strategic planning conducted during this period include the state of California for natural resources planning; the state of Colorado and the cities of Memphis, Tenn., and Eugene, Oregon, for economic development; the state of Utah for capital investment (Eadie 1983); the

states of Virginia (Zody 1984a; 1984b) and New Jersey (Eadie 1985) for budgeting purposes; and the state of Ohio for high-level issue-oriented planning as well as for the state's Bureau of Employment (Eadie and Steinbacher 1985).

A few words of caution were expressed about the process, however. So (1984) noted that it was too soon to tell whether strategic planning was a meaningful new development or a fad. He also expressed dissatisfaction with the promotional nature of the existing literature on the subject and the profusion of processes being labeled "strategic." But So also suggested that strategic planning was different and could offer public planners a more purposeful alternative to traditional planning methods. He concluded by noting that strategic planners asked fundamental questions.

Ring and Perry (1985) revisited the dilemma of applying the private sector process directly to the public sector setting. The different set of constraints placed on public sector managers because of the environment in which they operated -- legal limitations, openness to the public -- were their reasons for the words of warning. To overcome this obstacle, Ring and Perry called for a general model of the strategic planning and management process that could be applied in the public sector.

Growth and Maturation of Public Sector Strategic Planning

At the 1986 annual conference of the American Planning Association in Los Angeles, public sector strategic planning received a great deal of attention. After all, strategic planning was being characterized as a "hot topic" (Bryson and Einsweiler 1987). It should not have been any surprise, therefore, that a large number of papers were

presented on the subject.

After the conference, several of those essays were turned into journal articles and the resulting symposium in the Winter 1987 issue of the *Journal of the American Planning Association* was "an attempt to present to JAPA readers some of the best thinking on what strategic planning is, how it might apply to public-sector situations, and how it is related to the public planning profession" (Bryson and Einsweiler 1987: 6).

The lead article in the symposium by Bryson and Roering (1987: 323-324) offered an eight-step model strategic planning process for the public sector.

1. Seek the agreement, support, and commitment needed for success.
2. Confront the "musts" of the organization.
3. Confront the "wants" influencing the identification and resolution of strategic issues.
4. Examine the outside environment -- political, social, economic, technical.
5. Examine the inside environment -- input, processes, outputs.
6. Use the knowledge gained from the previous five steps to expeditiously identify strategic issues.
7. Develop practical alternatives for resolving those issues.
8. Develop a vision for future success.

Bryson and Roering (1987) developed their model after reviewing six strategic planning methods used in business to determine their applicability for government. They examined the following:

1. The Harvard Policy Model
2. Strategic Planning Systems
3. Stakeholder Management
4. Content Approaches
 - a. Portfolio Methods
 - b. Competitive Analysis
5. Strategic Issues Management
6. Process Strategies
 - a. Strategic Negotiations

- b. Logical Incrementalism
- c. Framework for Innovation

The Harvard Policy Model was the strongest influence on the model strategic planning process that Bryson and Roering (1987) proposed for the public sector. But they were careful to note that "corporate strategic planning is not a single concept, procedure, or tool" (Bryson and Roering 1987). They added that such a process must be tailored to fit each specific planning situation. And Bryson and Roering (1987) concluded that the strategic planning process should be commonly used by public planners.

Kaufman and Jacobs (1987) reviewed the planning literature to see how strategic planning fit into the on-going debate about the merits of planning. They noted that the criticisms of public planning by the proponents of strategic planning had merit, if comprehensive or master planning was the target of the critique. But they contended that the distinctions between the different types of planning were much less pronounced than others had suggested. They also acknowledged that strategic planning might exist under a different process. "Even if planners embrace strategic planning, however, it is possible that, although they may become more integrated into decision making, the planning they do may be little different from the management-type planning undertaken by public administrators" (Kaufman and Jacobs 1987: 31).

Furthermore, Kaufman and Jacobs (1987) found that non-traditional planners were more likely to embrace strategic planning. Through interviews with planners, they determined that planners who were educated in the planning field or who worked in a

locality where planning was held in high esteem were more likely to eschew strategic planning than their counterparts who came from other fields or who worked in places where planning was not as highly regarded. This could be viewed as an early sign of what has become the shift of strategic planning from a planning task to a managerial activity within the public sector.

Wechsler and Backoff (1987) examined how strategic planning had been applied in three state agencies in Ohio -- the Department of Natural Resources, the Department of Public Welfare, and the Public Utilities Commission. They found that change in the strategic environment or in the strategic management group led to changes in strategies by the organizations.

Nutt and Backoff (1987) offered a strategic management process which included implementation as well as strategy formulation as a way to address the unique problems facing the public sector. Their process had six stages:

1. Placement in historical context (trends and events; directions; ideals);
2. Situational assessment (strengths; weaknesses; opportunities; threats);
3. Development of strategic issue agenda;
4. Development of strategic options (sets of action(s); strategic themes);
5. Feasibility assessment (stakeholder analysis; resource analysis); and
6. Implementation (resource mobilization; stakeholder management).

Also, within each stage, there would be three basic steps. These steps involved the *search* for information, the *synthesis* of that information into generalizations, and the *selection* of priorities and actions and movement. After the completion of the three steps, movement to the next stage occurs.

In short, Nutt and Backoff (1987: 56) called for "planners to combine *thinking*

about action with acting thoughtfully as they support a process to formulate and implement strategy."

Pflaum and Delmont (1987) examined the use of external scanning as a tool for strategic planning in ten local, state, and federal agencies. They found it to be a tool to offer qualitative information and "such insights are being used more and more to help the planner synthesize discrete pieces of information into a larger framework, frequently as a part of strategic planning" (Pflaum and Delmont 1987: 67).

Bryson and Roering (1988) followed the symposium with an article that tracked the strategic planning efforts of eight governmental units in the Minnesota Twin Cities area: five cities, one county, and two agencies within a second county. The study used the same model the authors offered in their symposium article (Bryson and Roering 1987). The article had two purposes (Bryson and Roering 1988: 995):

(1) to document what happens when units of government work through a strategic planning process (when the process represents an innovation for the units) and (2) to uncover the conditions necessary for successful initiation of a strategic planning process by government units.

Bryson and Roering (1988) reached several conclusions on this study. First, strategic planning is not an easy-to-apply panacea. It is least likely to be found in governmental units where it is needed most. Second, strategic planning needs to be championed and be flexible to meet the needs of the government unit. A unit should be cautious about how it institutionalizes strategic planning. Governmental strategic planning should be judged differently than business strategic planning. Third, Bryson

and Roering (1988) concluded that further research was needed on the subject.

That called for research soon followed. And it discussed a wide variety of issues. McGill (1988) sought to translate the results of the strategic planning process into improved governmental performance. He found that policy and evaluation had to be linked to the annual budget cycle and relate to explicit client groups for successful strategic planning performance (McGill 1988: 80).

Neu (1988) examined the use of strategic planning as an instrument of governance. He argued that since strategic planning involved substantial citizen participation, it should be considered a community governance tool. From this starting point, Neu reached the conclusion that municipal governments were in a position to integrate the policies of different groups into a single plan and thus derive cooperation out of conflict.

In a similar vein, Grewe et al. (1989) looked at the use of strategic planning as a tool for gaining participation in the strategic planning process. The authors supported a process which involved a wide range of individuals from throughout a governmental organization in the planning process. "Strategic planning promotes examination of both the fit between agency goals and the environment and potential improvements. In addition, the tool can be used to foster a participative consideration in these areas" (Grewe et al. 1989: 110).

Eadie (1989) and Skok (1989; 1990) both proposed the use of strategic management systems for the public sector. To Eadie, the key element in such an

undertaking would be the design of the system. He said a strategic management system would have to be tailored to the particular situation. But that it would link the implementation of plans with their formulation to avoid plans becoming what Eadie (1989: 38) termed "a shopping list of aspirations."

Skok (1989; 1990) also endeavored to formulate a strategic management process for the public sector. His approach was to look at governmental activity as the business of government and then apply the appropriate private sector techniques (as they would fit) in the public sector. He defined strategic management as "purposeful action through which agency managers identify and realize their organization's objectives within their operating environments" (Skok 1989: 136). This meant that public agencies had two major concerns -- to accomplish their policy objectives and to maintain the power or effectiveness of the organization and agency actions sought ways to meet one or both of these two concerns (Skok 1990: 79).

Kovach and Mandell (1990) advised that the differences between government and business must be taken into account. "These differences cannot be ignored, and *must form an integral part of any model of strategic management in the public sector*" (Kovach and Mandell 1990: 29 [emphasis in original]). The difference between their model and the standard model of strategic management is the inclusion of several "Mobilization Behavior" steps and even this appears to be a matter of whether or not the political process is considered to be a direct part of the strategic planning process, not whether or not it takes place. "Thus, the politicking that is viewed in the business sector as a

separate and non-integrated part of strategic management must in the public sector be incorporated into any strategic management model" (Kovach and Mandell 1990: 32).

Along those same lines, Kemp and Kemp (1991/92) noted that unique situations found in the public sector must be taken into account in strategic planning. These included fiscal strain caused by reduced federal grants, tax aversion, and the need for fiscal self-reliance, great competition between localities, and the increasing need for multi-year forecasts, capital investment, and plans. That leads them to contend that "[w]hile public officials can learn from private-sector practices, a new strategic planning model is necessary for local governments to fully take advantage of this modern planning technique" (Kemp and Kemp 1991/92: 276). The difference between their model and others is the additional emphasis placed on program design and program implementation because of their importance to the success of the process (Kemp and Kemp 1991/92).

Garrah (1992: 8) considered that strategic planning could be made to work in smaller localities if a balance between needs and resources was struck: "A strategic planning process must be developed with an appreciation for the limited resources available to the municipality."

Bruton and Hildreth (1993) examined the relationship between the orientation of planning team members and the results of strategic planning efforts. They demonstrated that a positive relationship existed between external orientation and planning commitment and judged that this knowledge would be helpful to practicing managers.

Innovative approaches to examining and implementing the process were the

subject of a symposium on public sector strategic planning in *Public Administration Quarterly* (Halachmi 1993). Backoff et al. (1993) focused on general agencies of local government. They developed public sector equivalents for the elements of business sector strategic management models. The setting and context involved the services provided, the goals established, the controls in place, and the resources available. The structure included both an internal and external environment. The internal environment depicted the governmental entity. The external environment depicted the political authority, the other governments in the area, the important institutions, the private sector, and the citizens. After reviewing this, Backoff et al. (1993: 142) determined that "[a]gency management must face up to decisions about, if, when, and how to engineer changes in strategy and how to keep their balance when the necessity for a change occurs."

Wiseman (1993) looked at whether and how strategic planning could be applied to small local governments. Like Garrah (1992), Wiseman concluded that the process was applicable to smaller localities. He found that successful strategic planning in such places depended upon the degree of sophistication in administration. Places that have no chief executive officer, that have fragmented management, that lack a personnel system, that use incremental budgeting, that have little in inventory and purchasing controls are not likely to be able to implement strategic planning. "But, if a government got its administrative and structural house in order, then strategic planning may be a worthwhile endeavor" (Wiseman 1993: 153).

Halachmi et al. (1993) determined that demographic data was an important tool in strategic planning efforts. The knowledge and understanding of demography better allows managers and administrators to understand their communities. This leads to a common frame of reference which fosters coordination and consistency in decision-making processes. Thus, Halachmi et al. (1993: 168) contended that a demographic study should be done before strategic planning and "[o]nly with the results of this study at hand can the organization be in position to proceed with the strategic planning process." Additionally, MacManus and Strunz (1993) analyzed how a different type of tool -- employee surveys -- can be used for strategic management purposes. Their major concern was employee retention.

The uses of strategic planning also have been extended as well. Nutt and Backoff (1994) suggested that strategic planning could be used as a tool for organizations to cope with unwelcome change and organizational turbulence.

General acceptance of strategic planning in the public sector has led to its widespread application by all levels of government for a variety of purposes in recent years. The literature is literally filled with examples. Strategic planning has been used by cities of all sizes across the country for improving internal operations and community-wide planning efforts (Poister and Streib 1989; Streib and Poister 1990). Only 4 percent of those cities which have used strategic planning reported it to be ineffective. This was a strong showing for a tool that had not been included in previous five-year government management surveys (Poister and Streib 1989). Similarly, Streib and Poister (1990)

found that 63 percent of cities with a population between 25,000 and 1,000,000 have used strategic planning when conducting a nationwide survey in 1987-88.

At the local level, there are examples of strategic planning in a rural county in South Carolina (Young 1993), in local economic development agencies in the North Central states (Fladeland 1991), in small cities and towns in Nebraska (Turner 1989), in a small city in California (Duff and Parker 1989), in a medium-sized city in South Carolina (Wheeland 1993), and in large cities like Portland, Oregon, and Buffalo, New York (Reinhard and Scott 1993)

Strategic planning has also been used for substate regions in Massachusetts (Hochberg 1990), state enterprises in California (Karagozoglu and Seglund 1989), and the state government of New York (Miesing and Andersen 1991). In the federal government, strategic planning has been employed by the Department of Defense (Cox 1988) the Bureau of Public Debt (Gair 1987), and the Internal Revenue Service (Shaughnessy 1992).

And finally, public sector tasks found appropriate for strategic planning run the gamut from information system planning (Wold 1989) to economic development (Wolf 1987; Reed et al. 1987) to environmental regulation (Cohen and Kamieniecki 1991), to extension services (Fitzsimmons and Campbell 1992), to police operations (Wells and Blau 1994), to public health services (Venable et al. 1993), to library planning in higher education (Gee and Williams 1993), to public housing services (French 1992; French 1993).

Since the *JAPA* symposium, several major books have been written about the strategic planning process in the public sector. They generally fall into two categories: academics writing for academics and practitioners and practitioners writing for practitioners.

Among the major works by academics, Bryson (1989) of the University of Minnesota, and Nutt and Backoff (1992) of Ohio State University, each expanded on points made in articles they had previously authored and make those points more applicable and accessible to the typical government manager and administrator. Bryson develops chapters for each of the steps in the planning process that he, Freeman, and Roering (1986) adapted from reviewing strategic planning mechanisms used in the Minnesota Twin Cities region by Hennepin County and two private foundations: the Amherst M. Wider Foundation in St. Paul and the Institute for Cultural Affairs in Minneapolis. Nutt and Backoff used their findings to develop an instructional mechanism for use by governments leaders. Both books were replete with citations from the strategic planning literature and examples of tools to be used in the strategic planning process.

Meanwhile, Bozeman and Straussman (1990) of Syracuse University provided a thorough review of the public sector strategic planning process. They incorporated some of their previous works on public administration topics into the book where it was appropriate. The result was a synthesis of existing and new ideas about the process.

Meanwhile, Koteen (1989), Mercer (1991), and Gordon (1993) used their experience as consultants, government managers, and trainers to offer models of the

strategic planning process. Koteen had served in the U.S. Agency for International Development. His area of expertise was the teaching of public administration in developing countries. Mercer worked as a consultant whose specialty was public management and had written on that subject previously. Gordon was a local economic development specialist and had previously worked as a labor needs assessment expert for the federal government. He gave the perspective of a practicing planner to the strategic planning process.

Compendiums of articles have also been published. Bryson and Einsweiler (1988) edited a collection of personal experiences and models of strategic planning in the public sector for the American Planning Association. The association later published a series of case histories of local government strategic planning efforts (Kemp 1992). From a more academic perspective, a collection of commissioned essays and research reports on the strategic planning process was published in a volume entitled *The Handbook of Strategic Planning* (Rabin et al. 1989).

Overall, these works have stressed a generally positive outlook for strategic planning in the public sector. However, several words of caution about the process have been offered.

Swanstrom (1987) ascertained from his examination of strategic planning efforts in cities that there are limits to what the process can accomplish. "Strategic planning is not wrong, it is simply incomplete. The problem comes when it is oversold, when it is promoted as a technique that can improve, or even transcend, the political process"

(Swanstrom 1987: 151). These words of caution are similar to those offered by other researchers, just more direct.

Javidan and Dastmalchian (1988) found in their examination of corporations owned and operated by the governments of various Canadian provinces that strategic planning efforts fail in the public sector when there are vague organizational objectives, a lack of market exposure, little regard for the severity of the problems facing the organization, and limited support by top management.

THE IMPORTANCE AND ROLES OF THE CEO IN STRATEGIC PLANNING

The Chief Executive and Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is characterized as a top management activity throughout the literature, both in the private and public sectors. Hitnterhuber and Popp (1992) posed the question "Are You a Strategist or Just a Manager?" to private sector managers in an article in *Harvard Business Review*. The relevance of that question to public sector managers was evident six months later, when the article and the ten-question profile that accompanied it (asking managers to examine themselves in terms of vision, philosophy, interests, and their relation to the organization) were reprinted in *Public Management*.

So while the chief executive officer may not be involved in every strategic planning activity, the ultimate disposition of the plan will become his or her responsibility because of the significant effect it has on the entire organization. The chief executive will be held accountable for the success, or the failure, of the strategic plan.

In the private sector, the significance of the chief executive officer to the planning process has become an accepted truth. A collection of essays on strategic planning and management published by the *Harvard Business Review* devoted its final section to the importance of top management in the planning process (Hamermesh 1983). The differences between managing and leading (Zaleznik 1983; Smith 1983), between fiction and fact about managers (Mintzberg 1983; Wrapp 1983), and between expected response and actual results from management actions (Hayes and Abernathy 1983) were discussed. Additionally, Andrews (1983) stated that board of directors should serve as an advisory and review board and require the chief executives to develop strategy for the enterprise.

Over the last decade, the literature has continued to reflect the importance of top management involvement in strategic planning as well as the influence of top management in the process. The most striking of these have been the direct calls that researchers have made for the chief executive officer to become an active participant in the planning process (Gluck 1985; Harrison 1991; Reid 1993). These assessments were similar to what Andrews (1983) had sought. "In most cases, the responsibility of the development of the corporate strategy rests with the CEO [chief executive officer] with varying amounts of oversight from the board" (Harrison 1991: 78).

Because of their position in the organization, chief executive officers have a strong influence on the strategic planning process, either directly or indirectly. Benningson and Schartz (1987) determined that chief executive officers used their own change agendas when working to transform organizations. Noël (1989), in his case study

study of three Canadian firms, found that the main interests of managers, what he termed their "magnificent obsessions," played a major role in the strategy they formulated. As a result of their review of the literature, Lyles and Schwenk (1992) concluded that an increased emphasis was being placed on the top management team and its impact on the strategic behavior of the firm in strategic planning efforts. Furthermore, Hambrick and Mason (1984), Finkelstein and Hambrick (1990) and Wiersman and Bantel (1992) all have concluded that the characteristics of the chief executive and of the relationship between the CEO, the top management team, and board of directors played an important factor in the types of strategies undertaken by companies.

Additionally, where strategic planning has not succeeded, the problems have been found to be with the chief executive not with the process itself. Reid (1990), in his survey of ninety-five Scottish companies, found that problems arise in strategic planning when it is a "remote" activity for chief executives and they lack involvement in, and commitment to, the process. Robert (1991) observed that chief executives have difficulties with strategic planning efforts when their vision was not explicit, when they failed to communicate, when they did not encourage others in the process, when they were not directly involved, and when they did not correctly identify the problems in the organization.

Meanwhile, public sector researchers have adopted a similar perspective. The governmental equivalent of a chief executive officer, the administrator or manager for local governments, has been accorded as important a function in the strategic planning

process as their business counterparts. Zody (1984a; 1984b) was among the first to recognize this important role for governmental chief executives. He reached the conclusion that the top manager was a focal point in strategic planning and management but that the importance of that fact had been virtually ignored in public sector perspectives on the process (Zody 1984b). Ring and Perry (1985) also acknowledged the importance of the top manager to the success of the process in the public sector. But they also pointed out that different constraints in the public and private sectors made the respective roles and responsibilities of chief executives in each sector distinct from one another.

More attention began to be paid to the importance of the chief executive in the public sector with the publication of the *JAPA* symposium. Bryson and Roering (1987) argued that top management needed to be part of the process. "Given the dramatic changes in the environments of public organizations in recent years, we expect elected public officials, public managers, and planners to pay increased attention to the formulation and implementation of effective strategies to deal with the changes" (Bryson and Roering 1987: 20). Wechsler and Backoff (1987) went even further with the assignment of duties to the chief executive: "Our research shows that the work of strategic planning and management typically engages general managers rather than staff planners" (Wechsler and Backoff 1987: 41).

Thus, when Grewe et al. (1989) examined the process, the need for top management to play a major part in the process was an accepted fact. "Many public

managers realize that if they do not accommodate their agency to a changing environment, organizational change will be on someone else's plan" (Grewe et al. 1989: 110).

The Roles Played by the Chief Executive

The literature is very explicit that the chief executive officer of an organization -- private or public -- should be significantly involved in the strategic planning process. However, precisely how the chief executive should be involved is implicitly expressed, at best. As Grewe et al. (1989: 110) expressed it: "Only the steps in developing a strategic plan receive attention. How to accomplish the steps is not discussed."

In the private sector, a few authors have briefly examined the roles played by executives in strategic planning. Houlden (1986) outlined six roles for those undertaking strategic planning based upon his study of 105 organizations in the United Kingdom. He described the work of the corporate planning officer but these conditions could be applied to whoever is in charge of the planning process, namely the chief executive. The first role was to serve as a change agent or catalyst to cause the future of the organization to be examined. The second role was to design, establish, and run the planning process. The third role was to develop the abilities of those involved in the planning process. The fourth role was to coordinate the process making sure that resource decisions were not made in isolation from other important considerations. The fifth role was to provide information and expertise to the process. And the sixth role was to help to guide the participants in the decision-making process through the consideration of alternatives.

Shrivastava and Nachman (1989) used the facets of strategic leadership patterns to develop their set of roles. They classified twenty-seven cases based on seven different categories: embodiment of leadership, sources of influence, leader-member relations, leader-role orientation, unit of analysis, leader-system orientation, and activities to strengthen leadership. From this, they developed a four-cell typology for strategic leadership patterns -- political, bureaucratic, professional, and entrepreneurial.

Zody (1984b: 14-15) made one of the earliest references in the public sector literature to the roles played by government managers in strategic planning efforts.

I make no conclusions about public strategic management [planning] now but summarize my exposition by stating that public strategic management includes the top management roles of conceptualization, scanning, commitment, focusing, skepticism, winnowing, resource authoritativeness, testing, calculating, and other-commitment in formulating and implementing major goals and objectives to effect purposeful public organizations.

Unfortunately, no researchers have subsequently thoroughly investigated these roles. And with the exceptions of Bryson (1987) and Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992) discussed above, no scholars have even offered theories of the possible or potential roles to be played by chief executives during the strategic planning process in the public sector.

Still the literature does provide clues as to what roles the administrator or manager should be playing when undertaking strategic planning. By seeking common activities described within major texts found in both the private and public sector literature, five roles for chief executive officers were discerned: leader, accommodator,

informer, integrator, and change master. The central purpose of this study is to determine whether or not local government managers and administrators perceive themselves as playing these hypothesized roles.

Leader

The role of *leader* emerges from the importance placed on strategic planning as a top management task. Moskow (1978) saw the primary role for the organizational leader as that of the champion who must find ways to overcome anti-planning forces. Summer (1980) discussed organizations in terms of leadership, particularly with respect to strategic decision-makers and how they can increase the importance and relevance of the organization through their decisions. Olsen and Eadie (1982) emphasized that strategic planning is a task that cannot be delegated. Additionally, Steiss (1985) noted that strategic planning was a top management task.

Later authors stressed the importance of involving the chief executive officer in the strategic planning process. Bryson (1988) discussed the direct connection between the role of the leader and the ability of an organization to undertake strategic planning. Koteen (1989) argued that the commitment and the involvement of top management in strategic management systems and planning were crucial. Bozeman and Straussman (1990) stressed that top managers must be part of the strategic planning effort. Nutt and Backoff (1992) even went so far as to subtitle their book *Strategic Planning for Public and Third Sector Organizations: "A Handbook for Leaders"* to underscore the importance of significantly involving individuals holding leadership positions within the organization

in the strategic planning process.

The important role played by the organizational leader in strategic planning is widely acknowledged in the private sector as well. Ackoff (1970) indicated that the value in strategic planning to top management officials was through their participation in the process and the requirement that they make anticipatory decisions. Steiner (1977) noted that strategic planning must become a managerial philosophy, a way of life for an organization. He also reiterated Drucker's axiom that strategic planning must deal with the futurity of decisions rather than trying to make future decisions. Lorange (1980) stated that it was particularly important that top management be fully involved in the strategic planning process. Hamermesh (1986) recognized that formulating change is a focal point for decision-makers within an organization.

Thus, by acting as a *leader*, the local government chief executive officer provides guidance throughout the process by being committed to the undertaking, by taking an active part in its planning, and by being supportive of others working on the strategic plan. This leads to the null hypothesis to be tested for this role: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the leadership role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Accommodator

The role of *accommodator* comes from the need to create goals and measures that are equivalent to those common to the private sector -- such as profitability. Summer

(1980) inferred this when he described the need for organizational decisions to be utilitarian and optimal as well as to adhere to the restrictions created by the organization itself. Olsen and Eadie (1982) noted that there existed in the public sector the need to create a "bottom line." Steiss (1985) observed that it was important for managers to create goals and to take into account any existing effectiveness measures.

Eventually, this focus shifted to making the strategic planning process fit the organizational environment. Bryson (1988) developed a five-part process for considering the feasibility of strategic alternatives within the context of a given organization. Koteen (1989) contended that public sector managers must be flexible when engaged in strategic planning. Bozeman and Straussman (1990: 30) noted that "strategic thinking must be cognizant of the existence of political thinking." Nutt and Backoff (1992) stressed the importance of being able to facilitate the process, of tailoring it to meet the needs of the organization.

The private sector literature treats the concept of adapting to the environment as something that must be done as well. Ackoff (1970) and Steiner (1977) observed that the strategic planning process must be tailored to fit the organizational environment and culture. Porter (1980) stated that strategic plans must take into account not only the environment within an industry, but the power of customers, the power of supplies, the threat of substitutes, and the ability of others to enter the market, as well. McNichols (1983) stressed the need for management to be flexible and constantly alert to changes in the decision-making climate. Pfeiffer et al. (1989) depicted these adaptations as part

of the process they termed "downboard thinking."

Thus, by acting as an *accommodator*, the local government chief executive officer allows the strategic planning process to move forward while considering the special needs of the organizational environment and the problems which must be overcome in the organizational context. This leads to the null hypothesis to be tested for this role: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the accommodation role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Informer

The role of *informer* develops out of the need for information to serve the strategic planning process, reduce uncertainty, and evaluate alternatives. Moskowitz (1978) pointed to the need for the organization to have information to evaluate the goals it sets. Summer (1980) described a process which includes as phases "Environmental Analysis" and "Compatibility Analysis" -- analyses of the situation outside and inside the organization, respectively. Olsen and Eadie (1982) argued that the information requirements of the chief executive must be met for strategic planning to be successful. Steiss (1985) advocated the creation of a decision-making system to provide information on potential risks and gains of an action, the wisdom and timing of an undertaking, and any relevant resource limitations and areas of uncertainty that might exist.

As the process developed in the public sector, the value of information became increasingly evident. Bryson (1988) incorporated private sector "SWOT" analysis

(internal Strengths and Weaknesses; external Opportunities and Threats) into his model. Meanwhile, others have noted what can be done with -- and what cannot be done without -- good information. Koteen (1989) termed taking advantage of the gathered information in plans "informed opportunism." Conversely, Bozeman and Straussman (1990) noted that an examination of the outcome of strategic planning efforts is made more difficult because of the paucity of performance management information. Also, Nutt and Backoff (1992) stressed the importance of being an analyst, of being able to gather, analyze, and communicate information as part of the strategic planning process.

In the private sector strategic planning literature, information is considered equally important and is even more plentiful, likely because of the emphasis placed on financial indicators. McNamee (1985) outlined many of these indicators and evaluation systems which have long histories in the private sector -- financial analysis, portfolio analysis, environmental scanning, and scenario analysis. As for the usefulness of information, Ackoff (1970) was particularly clear. He discusses both the chief executive's need for the right information (quality) and the right amount of information (quantity) for effective strategic planning. Steiner (1977) discussed the need for strategic analysis to be conducted for planning purposes. McNichols (1983) noted that top management must be constantly alert to the potential effect of the course of action decided upon for the organization. Pfeiffer et al. (1989) discussed the need to determine the difference between actual and desired position -- gap analysis.

Thus, by acting as an *informer*, the local government chief executive officer

assists the strategic planning process by providing relevant data and analysis for consideration when examining potential needs and courses of action. This leads to the null hypothesis to be tested for this role: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the informational role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Integrator

The role of *integrator* arises out of the need to connect the strategic planning process with other planning activities in the locality. Summer (1980) described a six-step process for planning for new strategies which included demonstrating the need for change, detailing the resources needed to bring about that change, and designating a person responsible for assessing its attainment. Olsen and Eadie (1982) specifically recognized the link which must be formed between the strategic plan and the budget. Steiss (1985) stressed the connection between plans and programs.

Later authors continued to build on the connection between the strategic plan and the budget as the primary operating plan for an organization. Bryson (1988) concluded that the strategic plan should be completed before the budget is adopted so operating needs will be supportive of the strategically-defined mission and goals of an organization. Meanwhile, others have emphasized the need to assure congruence between the strategic plan and other organizational operating plans. Koteen (1989) called for management on a program level so outcomes would conform to the desired states for those programs outlined in the strategic plan. Bozeman and Straussman (1990) recognized that cost,

resource availability and adequacy, and regulatory and time constraints need to be taken into account when planning. Similarly, Nutt and Backoff (1992) stated that "playing the politician" and linking strategic planning with real world considerations were responsibilities of the strategic manager.

The private sector has a much longer history of linking strategic and operating plans together than does the public sector. Ackoff (1970) alluded to these linkages with his argument that chief executives must determine the needs of an organization and how best to meet them. Steiner (1977) depicted the linkage as part of the process of integrating strategic plans with the other plans of an organization. Lorange (1980) stated that budgeting needed to be incorporated as a stage within the planning process to ensure a consistency in the development of programs. Hamermesh (1986) cited examples of how corporations such as Dexter, General Electric, and Memorex operationalized their strategic plans for resource allocation and portfolio planning. Pfeiffer et al. (1989) argued that the budget should be an operational reflection of the strategic plan.

Thus, by acting as an *integrator*, the local government chief executive officer enables the strategic planning process to be connected to program and operational planning processes and thus linked to budget-allocation and decision-making mechanisms within the organization. This leads to the null hypothesis to be tested for this role: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the integration role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Change Master

The role of *change master* follows from the need to translate the efforts of the strategic planning process into actions which produce results (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Steiss 1985). Moskow (1978) asserted that strategic planning must focus on broad policy questions facing an organization. Summer (1980) stated the end result of strategic planning as creating a new strategy for an organization. Olsen and Eadie (1982) described the result of strategic planning as major organizational change. For Steiss (1985), strategic planning provided an opportunity to translate policies into action commitments.

Later authors stressed the importance of actions necessary to bring about change as a part of the strategic planning process. Bryson (1988) described strategic planning as an opportunity for leaders to change the rules of the game and focus on questions of values instead of methods. Koteen (1989) characterized strategic planning activities as a way for the organization to change its orientation to the future. Bozeman and Straussman emphasized that the vision of the future had to be reshaped as the future unfolded. And Nutt and Backoff (1992) advocated teaching about the need for change and about the processes used to create change as a function of the strategic manager.

In the private sector, strategic planning is also recognized as a means for bringing about change in an organization. Ackoff (1970) perceived this as part of the process of bringing about the defined desired futures for an organization. Tregoe and Zimmerman (1980) discussed how strategic thinking must be different from long-range thinking in

order to change the status quo. Pfeiffer et al. (1989) argued that the focus of the effort must be on action -- rather than on the plan itself.

Thus, by acting as a *change master*, the local government chief executive officer works to create a meaningful contribution to the improvement of the organization through the strategic planning process. This leads to the null hypothesis to be tested for this role:

The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the change master role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.

Conclusions

These five roles for local government chief executive offices in localities which have utilized strategic planning -- strategic planning managers -- have been identified through an examination of the relevant literature. In the role of leader, strategic planning managers guide the overall operation of the process. In the role of accommodator, strategic planning managers adjust the process to consider the special needs of the environment. In the role of informer, strategic planning managers provide data for analysis and deliberation. In the role of integrator, strategic planning managers connect the process to existing programs and planning efforts. And in the role of change master, strategic planning managers work to bring about fundamental philosophical shifts. These roles are hypothesized. To determine whether they are, in fact, performed by strategic planning managers, and if so to what degree, it is necessary to examine what occurs in the strategic planning process.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

AN OVERVIEW

This research served as the starting point for the exploration of the roles played by local government chief executive officers during the strategic planning process. As noted previously in the Introduction (Chapter I) and the Literature Review (Chapter II), information evaluating the roles administrators and managers actually play when undertaking strategic planning has been limited, at best (Zody 1984a; 1984b; Bryson 1988; Wheeland 1993). Other than a few normative descriptions of the roles that should be played by local government chief executive officers during the process (Bryson and Einsweiler 1987; Nutt and Backoff 1988; 1992), the literature has been silent on this subject. This research took the first steps in the direction of understanding what unique roles, if any, administrators and managers play when undertaking strategic planning in their localities.

The roles examined were synthesized from a review of the literature and have been previously discussed (see Chapter II). To test the resulting hypotheses, these roles were broken down into specific actions. Like the roles themselves, these action statements were developed based upon descriptions of the strategic planning process, found in the literature, particularly in those works which emphasized efforts in the public sector. These are described in detail below.

The basic methodology used for this study was similar to the process Steiner

(1977) developed for evaluating strategic planning in private sector firms. He created an evaluation questionnaire for key participants involved in strategic planning to rate different aspects of the process using Likert scales. Steiner's questions included whether or not the strategic planning process was useful in generating ideas; in meeting long-range objectives; in developing long-range strategies; in serving the needs of the chief executive officer; in projecting future events; in creating indicators for measurement and evaluation; and, in avoiding those problems Steiner defined as the pitfalls of planning.

This research consisted of two distinct parts. In the first section, the roles administrators and managers perform while working on "new initiatives" were examined from the perspective of the local government chief executive officer. The concept of "new initiatives" was used to facilitate comparative research. It enabled the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers in localities which had not undertaken strategic planning to be contrasted with the perceived roles of administrators and managers in localities which have done or were doing strategic planning. "New initiatives" was selected for this portion of the research because it appears to be an appropriate substitute for strategic planning and dealing with such matters has become an experience common to localities. Strategic planning has been defined as a means to guide fundamental decisions and actions that shape an organization (Bryson 1988) and through which an organization attempts to control its own destiny (Gordon 1993). This process would have led to the creation of new vision and agenda to be used to move the locality in a new or different direction. Hence, since it would have caused something

new to happen, strategic planning would be considered a "new initiative."

Furthermore, dealing with "new initiatives" has become an experience common to virtually all local governments. Planning has become a nearly universal activity at the local level (Gerckens 1979; Anderson et al. 1983, Levy 1991). Virtually every locality has engaged in some type of planning, either formally or informally, because of legal requirements or because of the desire to meet future needs. In its fullest sense, planning has been defined as dreaming dreams and seeing them through (Anderson et al. 1983). Thus by this definition, any planning performed by local governments could, in a sense, be considered as dealing with "new initiatives."

The second part of the research examined in detail those localities where strategic planning has been undertaken. Specific questions pertaining to this planning process and about each of the hypothesized roles were asked of strategic planning managers. Direct inquiries of administrators and managers sought to ascertain if and to what extent they played each of the hypothesized roles during each stage of the strategic planning process. This permitted an examination of whether or not specific roles were associated with particular steps in the strategic planning process. It also provided additional data on the roles local government chief executive officers perceived themselves as playing. These data were compared to the self-reported actions of managers and administrators to ensure accurate reporting by administrators and managers.

Additional background data on the localities was collected from primary and secondary sources. This permitted localities with similar structural characteristics to be

grouped together for the examination of what effect differences in the size, the sophistication, and the standing of a locality and its government had on the perceived roles played by local government chief executive officers in strategic planning efforts. Also, these data were used to determine how much of the differences in the perceived roles of administrators and managers were the result of structural characteristics and how much were the result of the existence of strategic planning efforts.

UNIT OF ANALYSIS

The research focused on local government chief executive officers in Virginia. In mid-1994, the state had 325 active local governments -- 95 counties, 41 independent cities, and 189 towns (Virginia Review 1994). Over 200 localities had an appointed chief executive officer (Virginia Review 1994). And 168 of the localities were required by state law to *report* financial information annually to the Auditor of Public Accounts (*Code of Virginia* 1950). For the Fiscal Year 1992-93, this included all the cities, all the counties, and thirty-two towns -- those towns which had either a population of 3,500 or more or operated their own school system (*Code of Virginia* 1950; Auditor of Public Accounts 1994). All but one of these 168 localities have an administrator, manager, or executive (Virginia Review 1994). Thus, this study examined a subset of Virginia localities -- the 168 *reporting* localities -- and their chief executive officers.

The names given the positions held by these officials vary by locality. Despite the differences in titles, they meet the criteria for the chief executive officer. The

functions they fulfill have been compared to that of the chief executive officer in a business enterprise (Jones 1983; Judd 1984). Additionally, the local government administrators and managers have been described as the individuals most familiar with both the overall goals and the day-to-day objectives of the local government (Anderson et al. 1983).

This unit of analysis was selected for several reasons. Virginia localities have been cited in the literature as having developed strategic plans. These localities are as diverse as Roanoke (Wheeland 1993), a century-old traditional railroad and industrial city in the southwestern part of the state; to Prince William County (Kaufman and Jacobs 1988), a burgeoning urban county in the state's northern service sector-oriented belt; to Hampton (Weir 1992), the oldest permanent English-speaking settlement in North America and a city in the Hampton Roads Area that has been heavily dependent on outlays from the Department of Defense.

Interest in planning strategies for the future has been strong at both the local and state level. Representatives from eight-six of the state's ninety-five counties responded to a 1992 mail survey conducted by a private consulting firm for the Virginia Association of Counties on issues facing the state and its counties in the twenty-first century. (Timmons & Associates 1992). The executive director of the Commission on Population Growth and Development has called for a state-wide strategic plan (Imhoff 1994). In his first year in office, Governor George Allen divided Virginia into eighteen districts and charged each of these Regional Economic Development Councils with developing a

strategic plan. Also, units at state universities and agencies have been active in encouraging local governments to undertake strategic planning and assisting them with the process once it is undertaken. This list would include the Public Service Programs and the Institute for Public Management at Virginia Tech; the Weldon Cooper Center for Public Service at the University of Virginia; the Department of Political Science and Public Administration at Virginia Commonwealth University; and the Center on Rural Development within the Virginia Department of Commerce.

Additionally, Virginia was selected because of its location. Examining Virginia local governments enabled this research to take advantage of the geographic and structural links which exist between Virginia Tech, the state's largest university, and the 168 *reporting* localities within the state.

DESCRIPTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire Development

The chief executive officers of the 168 *reporting* local governments were sent a questionnaire to ascertain information concerning their experiences in strategic planning efforts. Two very similar questionnaires were used. One was specifically tailored for managers of the forty-one cities and thirty-two towns surveyed. The other was designed for the ninety-five county administrators or their equivalent (three executives, two managers, and the one county without any appointed chief executive officer).

To assure a high response rate, the basic tenets of the Dillman (1978) Total

Design Method were used to direct the development and administration of the research process. These included procedures on formulating, writing, and formatting the questions, testing the research instrument, preparing the mail-out packet, and scheduling follow-up contacts. When followed in full, this method typically produces response rates at or above 50 percent (Dillman 1978; Miller 1991). And the response rates have been generally higher with specialized audiences (Dillman 1978; Miller 1991).

Other guides for question construction included Lazarsfeld (1934) and Oppenheim (1992). The questions were written in such a manner as to follow the principles of "Specification," "Division," and "Tacit Assumption" developed by Lazarsfeld (1934). Thus, respondents could easily determine the meaning of the questions, formulate their answers, and operate from the same set of assumptions as the researcher. Also, the questions followed the rules specified by Oppenheim (1992) pertaining to question length, ambiguity as well as the avoidance of proverbs, double negatives, double-barrelled questions, jargon, and unintentional double meanings. In addition, the questions were asked in a specific order so that information necessary to the testing of the main hypotheses and information not available from secondary sources was collected first, then information to test secondary hypotheses was collected. This corresponds with the recommended ordering in the Total Design Method (Dillman 1978).

The questionnaire was pre-tested following the specialized procedures described by Dillman (1978) to ensure validity, reliability, and useability. The survey was reviewed by other researchers and experts in the field of public sector strategic planning

for possible ambiguities, inconsistencies, and omissions. After the instrument was refined, it was tested by two town managers who worked in localities which were not among those being examined as part of this research. The trials involved the managers completing the questionnaire in the presence of a researcher who could answer questions, note any problems, and establish a baseline for completion time of the instrument. The comments and concerns raised by the town managers were incorporated into changes made to the finished questionnaire.

The result was a questionnaire that provided a choice of answers for most questions and that took approximately thirty minutes for respondents to complete.

Questionnaire Administration

Once the questionnaire was finalized, it was prepared for distribution to the 168 local government chief executive officers included in the study. The package sent to these officials included a cover letter that included a name and telephone contact numbers for the researcher, a pre-addressed, stamped envelope, and the questionnaire itself.

Up-to-date lists of the administrators and managers of Virginia localities were provided by the Virginia Association of Counties and the Virginia Municipal League. Where needed, additional information was obtained from the Virginia Review's *Directory of State and Local Government Officials* (1994) or by contacting the localities directly.

The questionnaire was mailed to the chief executive officers in the reporting localities on June 1 with a return date of June 17 requested. This gave administrators and managers approximately two-and-one-half (2½) weeks to receive the questionnaire,

complete the instrument, and return it.

After one week (June 8), all 168 administrators and managers in the study were sent a postcard reminder. This included contact information, in case the local government chief executive had not received a questionnaire packet. Three localities reported that their administrator or manager had not received packets after receipt of postcards. Replacements were sent to the chief executive officers in these localities within one business day of their request.

After three weeks (June 23 and 24), the administrators and managers in the 110 reporting localities which had not returned their questionnaires (or indicated that they planned to do so) were telephoned. Messages, including contact information, were left when the local government chief executive officers could not be reached directly. As a result of these telephone calls, eleven replacement questionnaires were sent out.

Finally, after seven weeks (July 20), a second complete questionnaire package was sent to the eighty local government chief executives who had not yet responded or previously requested a replacement copy of the questionnaire.

Overall, 93 of the 168 chief executive officers in the localities surveyed responded at least in part to the questionnaire, a response rate of 55.4 percent. In addition, the chief executive officer in five localities indicated they would not be able to provide the information requested. (This included a telephone conversation with the county clerk in the one locality in the target population of this study without a chief executive officer during the second follow-up stage). If these five localities were added to the response

rate, the return rate would increase to 58.3 percent (98 of 168). Once these administrators and managers in these localities indicated that they would be unable to respond, no further attempts to them were undertaken.

Potential Biases

By their very nature, questionnaires generally suffer from at least some biases. Biases have been defined as results of a survey that are not representative of the population as a whole (Babbie 1989). Potential biases faced by this research include the problems of non-response, social desirability, and inexact memories. To address these potential problems, the questionnaire was designed to minimize their impact. Furthermore, a mail questionnaire was selected as the method to be used to gather information from local government chief executive officers because it had the fewest inherent bias problems.

Mail questionnaires have long been the least costly, most-efficient method for doing this type of research (Dillman 1978; de Vaus 1990; Miller 1991), even when the methodology itself was thought to be inferior to alternative methods of data collection (Black and Champion 1976). Over the last two decades, they have become as effective as other methodologies in collecting data as well. Dillman (1978) and Miller (1991) both reported mail surveys gaining a minimum of 50 percent response rate, and even higher when the Total Design Method is used in its entirety. A mail questionnaire offers more flexibility for respondents since it can be completed at any time convenient to them. Mail questionnaires have the added advantage of being able to reach people who are

difficult to locate and interview (Miller 1991: 141). Additionally, some types of biases have been shown actually to be reduced by the use of mail questionnaires, including social desirability bias and interviewer distortion (Dillman 1978).

The major problem associated with a mail survey is the bias caused by non-response. Wallace (1954) and Donald (1960) both noted that persons with an interest in the subject matter being surveyed are more likely to return their mail questionnaire. But Wallace (1954) also observed that non-respondents often had very similar responses to those who responded to the survey if the two groups had similar characteristics. Thus, this study should not suffer unduly from non-response bias. Generally, the local government chief executive officers have been presumed to be enough alike that they have been studied as a group based upon their job description (Lucy 1988; Nalbandian 1991) or their job tasks (Anderson et al. 1983) as local government managers. Additionally, the administrators and managers being surveyed should have had a shared interest in the planning methods used by governments (Gerckens 1979; Anderson et al. 1983; Levy 1991). Both of these assumptions were tested, at least to some degree, by this research.

These advantages led to the mail questionnaire being selected over the two other traditional methods of data collection used for this type of research: personal interviews and telephone surveys. Personal interviews were impractical because of the number of contacts involved and their geographic distribution would have been cost and time prohibitive (Dillman 1978; Miller 1991). In addition, these higher resource requirements

would not have resulted in much, if any, additional information. The response rates for interview surveys of the general public have fallen in recent years to nearly the same as the other methodologies (Miller 1991). Furthermore, the presence of the interviewer could have introduced bias into the data that would not otherwise be present (Dillman 1978; Miller 1991). These problems have resulted in a general disenchantment with the in-person interview method (Miller 1991).

Similar considerations precluded the use of a telephone survey. A telephone survey would have been a very expensive proposition. Costs included long distance telephone charges and the compensation for interviewers (Dillman 1978). This is particularly important to consider since often ten to twenty call-backs are necessary to achieve the desired 80 percent response rate (Lavrakas 1993). Furthermore, the advantages to a telephone survey were limited. Research has shown that when dealing with specialized target populations, such as managerial "elites," telephone surveys suffer from many of the same shortcomings as mail surveys as neither affords face-to-face contact between the interviewer and the subject (Frey 1983). Similarly, because of the daily time commitments and constraints faced by local government officials (Anderson et al. 1983), it would have been difficult for them to commit the time needed for a typical telephone survey when the interview call would have lasted approximately thirty minutes and perhaps much longer (Dillman 1978).

Another potential bias was that of social desirability which has been commonly defined as the tendency of a respondent to answer questions in a manner perceived to be

most favorable or desirable (Poister 1978). The structure and administration of the questionnaire helped to reduce this problem. Check lists are better able to retrieve information about the past and periodic activity of the respondent with less bias than are open-ended questions (Oppenheim 1992). Both are used in the questionnaire, the former for objectivity and the latter for detail and richness of explanation. The questions were phrased in such a way as to eliminate leading questions, making any response seem equally plausible (Oppenheim 1992). The directions stressed the need for accuracy, which diminished the tendency of respondents to misrepresent their actions purposefully. Also, the use of a mail survey as compared to in-person, on-site interviews, has been shown to decrease the incidence and thus the impact of social desirability bias (Dillman 1978; Oppenheim 1992).

A final bias problem could have resulted from inexact memories, as the perceptions of the persons being surveyed -- in this case local government chief executive officers -- can fade over time (Sheskin 1985). The same questionnaire structuring techniques which were used to overcome intentional misrepresentation also helped reduce unintentional errors (Dillman 1978; Oppenheim 1992). Also since it was often possible to use secondary sources of information to validate responses, a mail questionnaire offers respondents the opportunity to double-check their memories before they respond (Miller 1991) as well as the chance for the researcher to use more accurate information from other sources when dealing with factual data.

Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire was in the form of a sixteen-page booklet (see Appendix I). The pages were the size of half a legal page (7 inches by 8½ inches). Page numbers were placed at the bottom of every page, with the exception of the front cover and the back cover.

The front cover page contained the title, a preface, directions, and a contact name and telephone number. The preface explained the purpose of the questionnaire and the research. The directions provided general instructions for completing the questionnaire and closed by stating that specific instructions, where needed, would be provided.

Stated in the directions was that the questions were to have been answered only by local government chief executive officers. The analysis performed on the data collected from the questionnaire was undertaken on the basis of this assumption. However, there was no evidence in the completed questionnaires to support or refute this claim. Thus, it was not known if this part of the directions was followed.

The second page sought basic information about whether or not and why strategic planning had been employed by the local governments. The first question asked whether a locality had undertaken a strategic planning effort in the last ten years. The ten-year time period selected for examination was approximately twice as long as the standard time horizon for most planning efforts in the public sector. The election cycle often has forced strategic planning efforts to be limited to outcomes within a four-year time period. (Zody 1984a; Bozeman and Straussman 1991). Also, capital improvement plans, the

chief mechanism for future planning used by local governments, have tended to be four to six years in length (So 1983; Steiss 1991). Thus localities which have made a commitment to strategic planning should have revisited the task at least once over the last decade.

The second question asked at what stage the strategic planning process was currently. It used a check list format to provide appropriate categories with the stages in the process based upon the Bryson (1988) model. This question also permitted verification of the understanding of the concept of strategic planning by local government chief executive officers. While the questionnaire had no explicit definition of the process, the use of a standard typology to describe the different stages provided an implicit definition which had to be accepted by strategic planning managers in order to answer the question. Only four of the fifty-three strategic planning managers did not complete this question, suggesting a nearly universal acceptance of the tacit definition of the concept of strategic planning.

The third question sought to place the process within a time frame. It asked when strategic planning has last been undertaken. It used an open-ended structure because any other format would have been too cumbersome (Dillman 1978).

The fourth and fifth questions inquired about the rationale for, and results of, the process. These two questions were to be completed only by those local government chief executive officers whose localities have utilized strategic planning. Many different reasons have been used to explain why a locality embarks upon a strategic planning

process (Bryson 1989). These question uncovered some of those reasons.

The sixth and final question on the page was of a similar nature as the previous two queries. It sought information on why localities had not performed any strategic planning. It was to be answered only by the administrators and managers in those localities where strategic planning has not been undertaken.

The next twenty-five questions (Questions 7 through 31 on Pages 3 to 5) operationalized the five main hypothesized roles played by local government chief executive officers in the strategic planning process. As discussed above, the questions were asked with respect to dealing with "new initiatives" to make them relevant to all administrators and managers, regardless of whether or not their localities have committed to strategic planning. Each sought the percentage of time that the local government chief executive officer felt he or she was spending on a particular task that represented one of the five hypothesized roles. A scale ranging from 0 percent to 100 percent was provided with each question. The fourth question in each series was "negatively-formatted," where a lower value indicated the higher level of involvement and/or activity by the local government chief executive officer. This was to reduce the potential for patterned answering which result in an acquiescent response set (de Vaus 1990).

Questions 7 through 11 (Page 3) probed the leader role of local government chief executive officers. They provided administrators and managers the opportunity to assess their own level of involvement in the process of dealing with "new initiatives." The section examined commitment to the process through actions required of a process

champion (Moskow 1978). This was considered relevant because strategic planning must be done by the organizational leader (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Zody 1984a; Bryson 1988).

Questions 12 through 16 (Page 3) examined the accommodator role undertaken by local government chief executive officers. They provided administrators and managers the opportunity to demonstrate how they tailored "new initiatives" to fit their own localities. The section discerned whether allowances for constraints on decision-making, both internal and external, necessary to the completion of the strategic planning process have occurred (Summer 1980; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). It also enabled the discussion of the processes utilized to accomplish the "fit" between method and environment (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Steiss 1985; Bozeman and Straussman 1990).

Questions 17 through 21 (Page 4) considered the informer role of local government chief executive officers. They provided administrators and managers the opportunity to describe the means by which they met the information needs of "new initiatives." The section determined whether or not the problem with the lack of information for strategic planning efforts decried in the literature (Zody 1984a; 1984b; Bozeman and Straussman 1990) had been overcome. These questions probed the type and utility of the information provided in the process (Summer 1980; Steiss 1985; Bryson 1988; Koteen 1989) as well as whether or not the data needs of the process were met (Olsen and Eadie 1982).

Questions 22 through 26 (Page 4) inspected the integrator role of local government chief executive officers. They provided administrators and managers the

opportunity to explain how they have integrated "new initiatives" into the day-to-day operations of the locality. The section sought to determine the degree to which operating plans reflected an overall vision for the future. The existence of such a link (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Steiss 1985) and its evolution (So 1983; Zody 1984a; Steiss 1985; Koteen 1989; Bozeman and Straussman 1990) have been described as central to the strategic planning process.

Questions 27 through 31 (Page 5) explored the change master role of local government chief executive officers. They provided administrators and managers the opportunity to discuss the work they performed in bringing about significant change through "new initiatives." The section focused on the types of changes and the substantiveness of those changes that have occurred in the locality (Moskow 1978; Olsen and Eadie 1982; Zody 1984a; Steiss 1985; Bryson 1988). This was considered important because strategic planning can and usually does result in a fundamental change in the outlook of the locality (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Bozeman and Straussman 1990).

The next ten questions (Questions 32 through 41 on Pages 5 and 6) operationalized the hypothesized roles in a different manner. Questions 32 through 36 (Page 5) asked the administrators and managers what percentage of the time they act in each role. To accommodate all possible responses and to ensure that respondents gave thought and consideration to their answers, the questions were opened ended. Local government chief executive officers had to fill-in the appropriate value. Collecting this numerical data allowed for mathematical analysis (Oppenheim 1992). Questions 37

through 41 (Page 6) used a common social science technique: the five-point Likert-type scale (Poister 1978; Babbie 1989; de Vaus 1990). The five questions corresponded to the five hypothesized roles. Each measured the level of involvement of the local government chief executive officer in that area.

Each of the questions in this section were included for specific reasons. The questions on the leader role (Questions 32 and 37) measured the commitment of the administrator or manager to the strategic planning process (Koteen 1989). The questions on the accommodator role (Questions 33 and 38) examined constraints on the process described by Moskow (1978), Zody (1984b), and Bozeman and Straussman (1990). The questions on the informer role (Questions 34 and 39) measured what Koteen (1989) referred to as "informed opportunism" within the strategic planning process. The questions on the integrator role (Questions 35 and 40) sought quantification of the process of coupling strategic plans with other types of plans (noted by Steiss (1985) and Koteen (1989). And the questions on the change master role (Questions 36 and 41) underscored the emphasis placed on action in the strategic planning process by Steiss (1985) and Pfeiffer et al. (1989).

The next thirteen questions (Questions 42 through 54 on Pages 7 and 8) sought basic information about the government and policy process of the locality. In those questions that asked about structure, a checklist approach was used because it can be phrased to reduce social desirability bias by making many different alternatives seem equally plausible and acceptable (Oppenheim 1992). These included type of government

(Question 42), policy direction (Question 43), electoral cycle (Question 48), electoral districts (Question 49), and electoral turnover (Question 50). The other questions in this group required the administrator or manager to fill-in a number -- either an amount, a length of time, or a dollar figure -- which would permit numeric analysis of the data (Oppenheim 1992). These questions included length of his/her tenure (Question 44), executive turnover (Question 45), governing board or council size (Question 46), length of terms to board or council (Question 47), size of the local government budget (Question 51), and size and details about the local government work force (Questions 52 through 54). Many of these attributes are analogous to the characteristics of chief executive officers and boards of directors examined in research on private sector strategic planning efforts (Hambrick and Mason 1984; Finkelstein and Hambrick 1990; Wiersman and Bantel 1992).

The last question in this section (Question 55 on Page 9) offered respondents a chance to make any comment they would like in the space provided. This provided an opportunity for amplification and clarification (Dillman 1978).

The second part of the questionnaire was to be completed only by those administrators and managers in localities that had undertaken strategic planning. Most of the questions in this section (Questions 56 through 100 on Pages 10 to 14) were designed to determine whether local government chief executive officers perceived themselves as playing particular roles during particular stages of the strategic planning process.

These questionnaires used a technique recommended by Dillman (1978) to increase the ease of answering for the respondent. Each group of five questions was structured the same way with the same question used for each of the hypothesized roles for each of the eight stages in the strategic planning process. Additionally, the third question in each group was designed to elicit a negative response to prevent a response set from occurring (de Vaus 1990).

The questions were grouped according to the steps of the process identified by Bryson (1988). Questions 56 through 60 (Page 10) dealt with gaining agreement for strategic planning. Questions 61 through 65 (Page 10) dealt with identifying mandates. Questions 66 through 70 (Page 11) dealt with clarifying mission and values. Questions 71 through 75 (Page 11) dealt with external analysis. Questions 76 through 80 (Page 12) dealt with internal analysis. Questions 81 through 85 (Page 12) dealt with identifying strategic issues. Questions 86 through 90 (Page 13) dealt with developing strategies. Questions 91 through 95 (Page 13) dealt with describing organizational futures. And Questions 96 through 100 (Page 14) dealt with implementation issues.

The next five questions (Questions 101 through 105 on Pages 14 and 15) collected additional data about the structure of the locality in general and about the strategic planning process in particular. Again, these questions were similar to inquiries about organizational and executive characteristics found in studies about strategic planning efforts in the private sector (Hambrick and Mason 1984; Finkelstein and Hambrick 1990; Wiersman and Bantel 1992). The questions collected information on the participation

level of the governing board or council (Questions 101 through 103), the staff (Question 104), and citizens of the locality in general (Question 105).

The last question (Question 106 on Page 15) provided a second opportunity for unstructured comment by local government chief executive officers (Dillman 1978).

DATA ANALYSIS

The survey results were analyzed in a variety of ways. For the five main hypotheses, the independent variable was the status of strategic planning in the locality. The dependent variables were the role perceptions of the local government chief executive officers. Information for the five main hypotheses was collected in the first section of the survey (Pages 2 to 6).

For the various subhypotheses, the independent variable was the information collected on that specific topic -- the attribute of the strategic planning process being examined. For the subhypotheses on the structural characteristics of the localities (size, sophistication, and standing), data were collected in various places throughout the survey (Pages 2, 7, 8, 9, 14, and 15), as well as gathered from secondary sources. For the subhypotheses on the relationship between actions and stages, data were collected from the second half of the survey (Pages 10 to 14). For both sets of subhypotheses, the dependent variable was again the role perceptions of the local government chief executive officers.

The types of analysis performed depended upon the type of question and the data

related to it. Analysis of variance was the primary method used to analyze the data. The differences between the two groups were measured (Meier and Brudney 1987) -- those localities where strategic planning has been taken versus those localities where it has not been tried. The status of strategic planning was the independent variable for this testing. Meanwhile, the dependent variables were the role perceptions of the local government chief executive officers. Furthermore, this analysis permitted the examination of differences within the grouping of localities based upon structural characteristics as well (Smith 1985). These tests yielded a Fisher's F-statistic which indicated whether or not the responses were from the same or from different populations (Smith 1985).

In addition to analysis of variance testing, correlation and regression analysis were used to explore the subhypotheses. Correlation was used to examine the strength of associations between pairs of variables -- role perception indicators and structural characteristics and role perception indicators and stages of the process (Smith 1985). Regression analysis was used to examine the predictive ability of groups of variables as well as to isolate the individual effects of each variable (Smith 1985). For these tests, the aspects of the strategic planning process -- the structural characteristics of the process or the stage within the process -- served as the independent variables. Once again, the role perceptions of the strategic planning managers were the dependent variables.

A 90 percent confidence interval was used in this analysis. The non-standard interval was selected to minimize beta (β), the probability of a Type II error (Smith

1985). Because of the exploratory nature of this research, it was thought that there was a greater risk in accepting the null hypothesis (that strategic planning has no impact on the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers) in cases when it was incorrect than in rejecting a true null hypothesis. To reduce the probability of a Type II error, a trade-off with the probability of a Type I error was made (Smith 1985). Thus, the probability of a Type I error (α) was increased to 0.10 (instead of the standard 0.05). This resulted in the 90 percent confidence interval.

In those instances when local government chief executive officers did not answer a particular item on the survey, the non-response was not included in the analysis for that question. In such cases, only the available data were factored into the computation of role perception means for strategic planning managers or their non-strategic planning counterparts. Excluding missing data from consideration is one of two conventional ways of dealing with such non-responses (Babbie 1989). The non-responses are included in the data summary in Appendix II.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

FOREWORD

This study provides insight into the roles local government chief executive officers perceive themselves as playing in those localities where strategic planning has been utilized in comparison to their counterparts in places where the process has not been undertaken.

This section reporting the findings begins with a brief discussion of the population sent the questionnaire -- Virginia local government administrators, managers, and executives. Next, the perceived presence of each of the five hypothesized roles -- leader, accommodator, informer, integrator, and change master -- is examined. The underlying research questions for each of the five hypothesized roles are discussed. Then the information reported on the hypothesized roles is summarized. Finally, the subhypotheses associated with the perceived roles are explored.

(The question numbers noted in the text refer to the specific questions from the survey of local government chief executive officers. A copy of the questionnaire used to collect this data appears in Appendix I. A description of the responses for each question can be found in Appendix II. A presentation of the results of the statistical tests appears in Appendix III.)

DESCRIPTION OF THE SURVEY POPULATION

The survey population was the administrators, managers, and executives of the 168 Virginia local governments that filed financial reports with the state Auditor of Public Accounts for the fiscal year that ended June 30, 1993 (FY1992-93). This group consisted of all forty-one of Virginia's independent cities, thirty-two of the state's 189 towns, and all ninety-five of its counties.

Overall, ninety-three usable surveys were received. This resulted in a response rate of 55.4 percent. (The return rate was even higher -- 58.3 percent. This included five local government chief executive officers who reported they were unable to complete the questionnaire for various reasons). All ninety-three of the respondents answered Question 1: "Has your locality undertaken strategic planning in the last 10 years?" (see Table 1). Fifty-three of the ninety-three localities reported that their localities had done strategic planning over the period. The average of the values for each of the structural variables -- those variables which dealt with the size, the sophistication, and the standing of the localities -- for the localities which had undertaken strategic planning tended to be higher than the average values for localities which had not undertaken strategic planning (see Table 2). Analysis of variance testing showed most of the differences in the structural indicators to be statistically significant and the relationships demonstrated that, as expected, localities that had undertaken strategic planning would tend to be larger, more complex, and possess greater resources. The differences in the average population in 1990 and 1992 were significant at the 0.01-level. Meanwhile, the differences in the

TABLE 1
Profile of Respondents

	Number of Localities	Return Rate		Respondents Only Strategic Planning		
		Number	Pct.	Yes	Pct.	No
Cities	41	22	53.7%	18	81.8%	4
Towns	32	19	59.4%	11	57.9%	8
Counties	95	52	54.7%	24	46.2%	28
ALL	168	93	55.4%	53	57.0%	40

TABLE 2
Profile of All Localities

	Localities		
	SPP	Non-SPP	All
Number of Localities	53	40	168
Avg. Population (1990)	68,485	***18,702	38,268
Avg. Population (1992)	70,946	***19,219	39,554
Avg. Population Density (1990)	1,114	***644	875
Avg. Population Change (1980-1990)	18.1%	***6.8%	10.8%
Avg. Admin. Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	7.1	***34.4	61.4
Avg. Planning Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	21.5	***12.9	17.8
Avg. Total Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	566.5	***399.2	487.8
Avg. Local Government Officials (1994)	25.4	***21.2	23.2
Avg. Tenure for Manager (1989-1994)	4.19	4.30	4.29
Avg. Number of Managers (1989-1994)	1.83	1.58	1.67

NOTES: All refers to all localities surveyed and included both respondents and non-respondents. It is for reference only.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

These calculations include Highland County which does not have a County Administrator.

Population Density is in persons per square mile.

Average Tenure and Number of Managers are computed over the last six years. Thus the maximum value for Tenure is 6.

- * -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.10-level.
- ** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.05-level.
- *** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.01-level.

average population change from 1980 to 1990, average population density, the average number of local government officers, and the average spending per capita for planning, administration, and for all non-school functions were significant at the 0.05-level. This indicates that strategic planning is more common in larger and wealthier localities which have sufficient resources to expend on the process.

The only exceptions were the scores associated with the tenure and turnover of the chief executive officer. Based on available data from the six-year period of 1989 to 1994, localities where strategic planning has occurred as a group tended to have more managers and administrators (1.83 versus 1.58). Also, those managers and administrators have tended to hold their positions for a shorter period of time (4.19 years versus 4.30 years). This may be indicative of the need for innovation on the part of new executives leading to the undertaking of strategic planning. Or it may just be the result of incomplete data on the tenure of managers and the status of strategic planning in all localities. However, while neither finding was statistically significant, the difference does point to the supposition made above about the need for new local government chief executive officers to be in place before strategic planning can be undertaken.

Among the cities, twenty-two of the forty-one managers responded to Question 1. Eighteen reported that their cities had done strategic planning over the period. The average values for each of the structural variables for those cities which had undertaken strategic planning were higher than the averages for non-strategic planning localities in some cases, lower in others (see Table 3). The most notable difference between the two

groups came in the measure of population change from 1980 to 1990. Strategic planning cities grew by an average of 12.2 percent; non-strategic planning cities lost 1.7 percent of their population. This was the only difference that was statistically significant at a 0.05-level. Non-strategic planning cities appeared to be more bureaucratic in structure. Even though their average population (25,835 in 1992) was approximately one-third that of strategic planning cities (77,779 in 1992), they had more government officials (36.9 versus 30.7); spent more per capita on administration (\$87.7 versus \$77.6); spent more per capita on all (non-school) government operations (\$837.4 versus \$831.1); had managers with longer tenures (5.1 years versus 4.7 years); and had had fewer managers over the last six years (1.25 versus 1.56). However, neither these results, nor any other of the differences in the averages of structural variables between strategic planning localities and the population as a whole were statistically significant for cities.

Among the towns, nineteen of the thirty-two managers responded to Question 1. Eleven reported that their towns had done strategic planning over the period. The average values for each of the structural variables for those cities which had undertaken strategic planning tended to be higher than the averages for the non-strategic planning towns (see Table 4). The most striking exceptions were the values associated with the tenure and turnover of the town manager and the expenditures for governmental operations. Based on the available data, towns where strategic planning had been utilized tended to have more managers (1.73 versus 1.50). Also, the managers have tended to hold their positions for a shorter period of time (4.46 years versus 4.87 years) than their

TABLE 3
Profile of Cities

	Cities		
	SPP	Non-SPP	All
Number of Cities	18	4	41
Avg. Population (1990)	76,189	25,216	54,912
Avg. Population (1992)	77,779	25,835	56,292
Avg. Population Density (1990)	2,081	2,157	2,054
Avg. Population Change (1980-1990)	12.2%	*(-1.7%)	8.4%
Avg. Admin. Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	77.6	87.7	79.4
Avg. Planning Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	30.7	36.9	30.5
Avg. Total Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	831.1	837.4	793.0
Avg. Local Government Officials (1994)	29.9	27.8	28.6
Avg. Tenure for Manager (1989-1994)	4.72	5.06	4.54
Avg. Number of Managers (1989-1994)	1.56	1.25	1.68

NOTES: All refers to all localities surveyed and included both respondents and non-respondents. It is for reference only.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

Population Density is in persons per square mile.

Average Tenure and Number of Managers are computed over the last six years. Thus the maximum value for Tenure is 6.

* -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.05-level.

*** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.01-level.

TABLE 4
Profile of Towns

	Towns		
	SPP	Non-SPP	All
Number of Towns	11	8	32
Avg. Population (1990)	9,976	6,966	7,551
Avg. Population (1992)	10,239	7,714	7,883
Avg. Population Density (1990)	1,441	1,942	1,428
Avg. Population Change (1980-1990)	27.6%	12.6%	18.6%
Avg. Admin. Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	78.3	78.6	76.4
Avg. Planning Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	9.4	10.6	11.6
Avg. Total Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	440.6	415.8	434.1
Avg. Local Government Officials (1994)	11.5	11.3	11.2
Avg. Tenure for Manager (1989-1994)	4.46	4.87	4.50
Avg. Number of Managers (1989-1994)	1.73	1.50	1.56

NOTES: All refers to all localities surveyed and included both respondents and non-respondents. It is for reference only.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

Population Density is in persons per square mile.

Average Tenure and Number of Managers are computed over the last six years. Thus the maximum value for Tenure is 6.

- * -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.10-level.
- ** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.05-level.
- *** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.01-level.

non-strategic planning counterparts. This may be indicative of the need for innovation on the part of new executives leading to the undertaking of strategic planning -- particularly in more rural areas where many of the towns in Virginia are located. The expenditures per capita for administration (\$78.3 versus \$78.6) and planning (\$9.4 versus \$10.6) were lower in those towns that have done strategic planning than in non-strategic planning towns. But this could be evidence of a distribution of management and planning functions through the town government as a result of strategic planning. However, neither these results, nor any other of the differences in the averages of structural variables between strategic planning localities and the population as a whole were statistically significant for towns.

Among the counties, fifty-two of the ninety-five chief executive officers -- administrators, executives, managers and clerks -- responded to Question 1. Twenty-four reported that their counties had done strategic planning over the period. The relationship of the average values for the structural variables between strategic planning counties and those counties which had not undertaken the process resembled the analogous relationships found between all strategic planning localities and those localities which had not undertaken strategic planning (see Table 5). The only instances where non-strategic planning counties showed more structure was in the measures of stability associated with the tenure and turnover of the county administrator (or equivalent). Based on the available data, counties where strategic planning has occurred as a group tended to have more administrators (2.08 versus 1.64). Also, the administrators in those counties

TABLE 5
Profile of Counties

	Counties		
	SPP	Non-SPP	All
Number of Counties	24	28	95
Avg. Population (1990)	89,523	*21,124	41,431
Avg. Population (1992)	93,645	*21,716	43,016
Avg. Population Density (1990)	239	*57	179
Avg. Population Change (1980-1990)	18.2%	***6.3%	9.3%
Avg. Admin. Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	54.2	*42.7	48.6
Avg. Planning Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	20.0	*10.1	15.0
Avg. Total Spending (FY93 Per Capita)	425.6	*331.9	374.2
Avg. Local Government Officials (1994)	28.3	***23.2	24.9
Avg. Tenure for Manager (1989-1994)	3.67	4.04	4.17
Avg. Number of Managers (1989-1994)	2.08	1.64	1.69

NOTES: All refers to all localities surveyed and included both respondents and non-respondents. It is for reference only.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

These calculations include Highland County which does not have a County Administrator.

Population Density is in persons per square mile.

Average Tenure and Number of Managers are computed over the last six years. Thus the maximum value for Tenure is 6.

* -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.05-level.

*** -- Difference statistically significant at the 0.01-level.

have tended to hold their positions for a shorter period of time (3.67 years versus 4.04 years). This may be indicative of the need for new executives who can bring about innovation and, similarly, strategic planning, particularly in more rural areas of the state. While neither finding was statistically significant, the difference does point to the supposition made above about the need for new administrators to undertake strategic planning. Conversely, the differences in all of the other structural indicators were statistically significant. The differences in the averages of the population from 1980 to 1990 and the average number of local government officers were significant at the 0.05-level; the differences in the means of the other indicators were significant at the 0.10-level. These findings show that strategic planning is more commonly found in localities which are growing or are already large. In both cases, the locality appears to possess a sufficient governmental base for the development of the strategic planning process. Without such a base, the process is less likely to occur.

TESTING OF THE MAIN HYPOTHESES

Once a profile of strategic planning localities had been developed, it was necessary to examine the role perceptions of strategic planning managers in order to determine whether or not they believed that they actually acted in the five hypothesized roles during the planning process. The five roles explored were developed from an examination of the public sector and private sector literature on the strategic planning process. To perform statistical testing, null hypotheses were developed. "New

"new initiatives" was used in this study as a proxy for issues that would be raised through strategic planning efforts to permit a comparison of responses from administrators and managers in localities which had utilized strategic planning and the responses from chief executive officers of local governments which had not undertaken the process. To test each of these roles, seven questions were developed which allowed a comparison of the responses between those administrators and managers whose localities had undertaken strategic planning and the local government chief executive officers in localities that had not done so. The first five of these questions operationalized each specific role based upon the literature. Each asked the respondent to estimate what percentage of the time they performed a particular task associated with strategic planning while working with "new initiatives" in their locality. A 101-point scale (0 to 100) was used with tick-marks at every ten percentage points. The sixth and seventh questions asked respondents to gauge the percentage of their work that involved playing a particular role and their level of involvement in each role, respectively. The percentage of work question again asked for a percentage value (0 to 100), but it was open-ended as no scale was provided. The level of involvement question used a five-point Likert scale where a "1" indicated "Totally Involved" while a "5" indicated "Totally Not Involved."

Analysis of variance testing was used to evaluate these results. It was selected because of the need to perform hypothesis testing on a two-variable scenario, where the dependent variable was an interval variable and the independent variable was a nominal variable. The results were tested for significance and the means of the two groups were

tested (Andrews et al. 1981).

HYPOTHESIZED ROLE 1: LEADER

The hypothesized role of **leader** came about as a result of the emphasis placed upon the need for top management leadership of strategic planning efforts found in both the public sector and private sector literature on the process. For this role, the null hypothesis was: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the leadership role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The status of strategic planning in the locality was the independent variable while the role perceptions of the local government managers as leader served as the dependent variable in the analysis.

The five tasks examined for the leadership role were: (1) envisioning the future; (2) encouraging others; (3) creating a setting for action; (4) setting an example; and (5) controlling the process. The first four of these were presumed to be positively-associated with strategic planning activity. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the maximum were expected to be higher than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, it was expected that strategic planning managers would perform the tasks associated with strategic planning a higher percentage of the time than the administrators and managers from localities which had not undertaken strategic planning. Likewise, it was thought strategic planning managers would be spending more work time and be more involved

in the leadership role than non-strategic planning managers. Conversely, the question about the task of controlling the process was constructed in such a way as to be negatively-associated with strategic planning. This was a response set question and was placed in the middle of the list of task-related questions. It was designed to compel respondents to think about each question before answering. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the minimum were expected to be lower than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts (The complete statistical analysis for this role appears in Appendix III).

The first of the four positively-related, task-based questions for the role of leader sought information on the task of envisioning the future. Administrators and managers were asked "While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Work to create a common vision of the future?" (Question 7). The question was based upon the emphasis placed upon developing a vision found in the literature (Moskow 1979; Koteen 1989; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from places where it had not be utilized.

The results were mostly as expected and meaningful. The mean value of the responses to this question was higher for strategic planning managers. They reported creating a common vision for the future an average of 43.5 percent of the time whereas their non-strategic planning counterparts reported performing this task an average of 40.7

percent of the time. However, analysis of variance testing of this variable showed that the difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.21$). Furthermore, the responses of the strategic planning managers to this question did not have the expected higher median value. The median for the performance of the envisioning task for both strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts was 30 percent of the time. Still, it appeared that working toward a common vision was more often done by strategic planning managers. Both the average value described above and the maximum value -- 100 percent versus 80 percent -- for this task were higher for the group which had done strategic planning in their localities. Also, 25.8 percent of strategic planning managers report performing this task 80 to 100 percent of the time, compared to just 13.5 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts.

These results have several implications. Since both groups reported performing this activity an average of less than half the time, it can be concluded that consciously working to create a common vision of the future is not an established practice of local government chief executive officers, regardless of whether or not their locality has undertaken strategic planning. Also, since the means were not statistically significantly different and the medians were the same between the two groups, two things can be concluded. The first is that all administrators and managers sometimes have to work to create a common vision of the future, regardless of whether or not their locality has undertaken strategic planning. The second is that the strategic planning process itself may work to create a consensus and thus it is sometimes not necessary to devote time

specifically to this task. Since strategic planning managers work to create a vision of the future more often and some of them even report always working toward a vision, this task is apparently valuable to strategic planning managers.

The next positively-related question for the role of leader asked about encouraging others to act. Local government chief executive officers were asked "While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Encourage the involvement of interested parties?" (Question 8). This question was based on the techniques for involvement described in the literature (Bryson 1988; Bozeman and Straussman 1990; Nutt and Backoff 1992). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

This question yielded surprising and contradictory results. The mean value for the responses to this question was unexpectedly *lower* for strategic planning managers. They reported encouraging involvement an average of 48.3 percent of the time, compared to 50.1 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. The difference in this variable was not statistically significant ($F=0.08$). Also, approximately the same proportion of both groups reported performing the task 80 to 100 percent of the time: 29.4 percent of strategic planning managers and 27.0 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Conversely, the responses for strategic planning managers to this question had the expected higher median and maximum values. The median for

encouraging others to act was 50 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 40 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. The maximum for performing this task was 100 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 90 percent of the time for their strategic planning counterparts.

These results demonstrate how strategic planning can change the way local governments operate. The strategic planning process leads to involvement in the activities of government. Strategic planning managers reported involvement of about seven staff members and 150 citizens in the process. Thus, the planning process appears itself to do the work of encouraging interested parties to become involved. This could be a result of the consensus which the strategic planning process attempts to develop in a locality or the openness with which the process is applied in most settings, allowing concerned individuals the opportunity to make their feelings and opinions known. Meanwhile, the administrators and managers in localities without strategic planning do not possess such a catalyst for citizen participation. They may have to work harder to get interested persons involved. Additionally, since both groups reported performing this function an average of about half the time, it can be surmised that working to encourage people to get involved may be a task that gets performed for some issues and not for others, depending upon the circumstances.

The third positively-related question for this role inquired about actions relating to creating a setting for action. Administrators and managers were asked, "While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the

time do you ... Create a setting that enables others (such as board/council, staff) to act?" (Question 9). The question was based upon the concept of translating goals into action commitments described in the literature (Walter and Choate 1984; Steiss 1985; Bryson 1988). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

Most of the values of the responses to this question were higher for strategic planning managers. They reported creating a setting in which others could act an average of 57.3 percent of the time whereas their non-strategic planning counterparts reported performing this task an average of 54.9 percent of the time. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.13$). Still, 39.2 percent of strategic planning managers reported performing this task 80 to 100 percent of the time, compared to 29.7 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts. This included some strategic planning managers who reported they always performed this task, while no non-strategic planning manager reported performing this task more than 90 percent of the time. Interestingly though, the responses of the strategic planning managers to this question did not have the expected higher median value. The median for both groups for the task of creating a setting for action was 70 percent of the time.

The meaning of these results is similar to those associated with the task of encouraging others to act. Since the difference in the average of the percent of the time strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts work to create

a setting which enables others to act is not statistically significant, it can be said that both groups perform this function more than half of the time. Thus, it can be concluded that working to create a setting for change also may be a task that gets performed in some instances and not in others, depending on the situation. An examination of the structural characteristics of the localities shows the leadership activities of strategic planning managers to be affected by the external environment. Thus, it is very possible that other factors determine when the role is and is not played. Additionally, strategic planning managers may not need to perform this function any more often than they do because the planning process itself appears to help create a setting that enables others to act.

The final positively-related, task-based question for the role of leader examined to what degree the local government chief executive officer set an example for others to follow. Administrators and managers were asked "While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Set an example for others (board/council, staff) to follow?" (Question 11). It was based upon the importance of the commitment of top management and the methods described for demonstrating that commitment outlined in the literature (Summer 1980; Walter and Choate 1984; Steiss 1985). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The results of this question showed small variations, both in the expected direction and counter to it. The mean value for the responses to this question was

slightly higher for strategic planning managers. They reported setting an example for others to follow 65.2 percent of the time whereas their non-strategic planning counterparts reported performing this task 64.5 percent of the time. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.01$). Conversely, non-strategic planning managers had a higher median value for this task, 80 percent of the time versus 75 percent of the time for strategic planning managers. And the non-strategic planning managers reported performing this task more often -- 51.4 percent reported they set an example for others to follow at least 80 percent of the time, compared to 50.0 percent of strategic planning managers.

These results show how important it is for the local government chief executive officer to set an example for others to follow, regardless of whether or not the locality has undertaken strategic planning. The role of administrator or manager carries with it certain executive responsibilities and apparently one of those responsibilities is leading others by example. Also, similar to several of the other tasks examined for this role, the results of strategic planning may actually decrease the need for certain role-related tasks to be performed. In this case, the planning process produces a consensus that has everyone involved headed in the same direction. Thus, no extraordinary effort is required on the part of the strategic planning manager to show those involved, be they elected officials, staff, or citizens, what they need to be doing. The strategic planning manager needs to set an example to the same degree that would be expected of any local government chief executive officer.

The negatively-associated, response-set question dealt with the control of the process. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Allow others (board/council, staff) to take control of the initiative?" It was constructed in such a way as to ascertain how often the administrator or manager cedes the role of leader. Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The mean value of the responses to this question was surprisingly equal as both strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts reported allowing others to take control of new initiatives an average of 51.4 percent of the time. Also, the median for letting go of control of the process was higher for strategic planning managers, 60 percent of the time as compared to 50 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. However, 29.5 percent of strategic planning managers did report they allowed others to take control of the process no more than 20 percent of the time. Meanwhile, 16.0 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported that they rarely, if ever, gave up control of the process.

This would seem to indicate that keeping some control over new initiatives is an important consideration for administrators and managers, regardless of whether or not their locality has undertaken strategic planning. Also, the structure of the strategic planning process appears to foster a willingness to allow others to act while at the same

time requiring the continued attention of the local government chief executive officer. Many of the forms strategic planning can take are beyond the direct control of the administrator or manager. These include efforts that are community-based, commission-based, or board or council-based. Also, as stated previously, involved staff and active citizenry are commonly found in strategic planning localities. Thus, it is not surprising that others are allowed to take control of new initiatives more often than not. Furthermore, the extreme variability which exists in strategic planning localities as to how often control is ceded by the local government executive may be a function of style and circumstance as structural variables do not provide an adequate explanation for the differences between strategic planning localities.

Overall, the mean score for the sum of the five operationalized tasks for the leadership role (adjusted for the response set question) was higher for the strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts -- 53.0 percent of the time versus 51.8 percent of the time. It was the only one of the five hypothesized roles where the mean of the five task values showed the expected relationship between performing those tasks and the presence of strategic planning. However, the difference is not statistically significant ($F=0.09$). This would seem to indicate that while strategic planning managers perform the associated tasks slightly more often, mitigating factors diminish the impact of the utilization of strategic planning on the way administrators and managers carry out the functions of their positions.

When asked about how much time they spent playing this role, it became clear

that leadership was more important to strategic planning managers. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "What percent of your work as an administrator/manager involves leadership for new initiatives that arise in your locality?" (Question 32). This was a straightforward way of asking local government chief executive officers about their time commitment when dealing with new initiatives, particularly with respect to how much time they perceived themselves acting as a leader. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

The mean value for the responses to this question was significantly higher for strategic planning managers (see Table 6). They reported playing the role of leader 38.6 percent of the time, compared to 27.4 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Analysis of variance testing showed the result was statistically significant at the 0.05-level ($F=4.36$). Likewise, the median and the maximum values for the responses to this question confirmed its importance to strategic planning managers. The median for playing this role was 30 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and just 20 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. Also, some strategic planning managers reported always playing the leadership role while no non-strategic planning manager reported playing the role more than 80 percent of the time. Finally, 40.0 percent of strategic planning managers indicated that they played the leadership role at least half of the time, compared to just 16.7 percent of their non-

TABLE 6
Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Leadership Role (Q. 32)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	2586	2586	4.36	0.040
Error	84	49805	593		
TOTAL	85	52391			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.44	21.39
Yes	50	38.56	26.26

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

strategic planning counterparts.

This finding supports the premise that strategic planning managers act in the role of leader more often than non-strategic planning managers. The tasks which were used to define the role are components of a larger role for strategic planning managers. Conversely, for their non-strategic planning counterparts, it appears that they are just tasks.

All of this makes the findings of the inquiry about the level of involvement extremely puzzling, at least at first. Administrators and managers were asked "What best describes your level of involvement during the initial steps of new initiatives in your locality?" (Question 37). This was another straightforward attempt to determine how much administrators and managers perceived themselves as acting in the role of leader. Ninety local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-two from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-eight from localities where it had not been utilized.

The average scores showed strategic planning managers reported themselves to be slightly less involved than their non-strategic planning counterparts. On a five-point scale where a "1" indicated "Totally Involved," the average score for strategic planning managers was 1.98, compared to the average of 1.89 for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Analysis of variance testing showed this difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.26$).

This outcome may indicate that strategic planning has become more diffuse than

the executive-centered models of the process found in the literature. For example, it will be documented later in this study that the size of the planning staff and the amount of money spent per capita on planning issues both can have negative effects on the direct influence and involvement of the local government chief executive officer in the strategic planning process. In these settings, a larger staff is available to which the administrator or manager can delegate certain tasks associated with the undertaking of new initiatives. Also, this could mean that being involved as a leader in the undertaking of new initiatives is important for all administrators and managers, those in localities which have undertaken strategic planning and those in localities which have not, alike.

In conclusion, the evidence suggests that strategic planning managers perceive that they play the role of leader more often than their counterparts in localities where strategic planning has not been undertaken. That is sufficient to reject the null hypothesis for this role, at least conditionally. However, while strategic planning managers might be more likely to think of themselves as leaders, performing the tasks associated with the role is a different matter. They were more likely to perform some tasks than their non-strategic planning counterparts while for other roles the inverse was true. Also, strategic planning managers reported that they were less involved in playing the role of leader than their non-strategic planning counterparts. But none of the differences, regardless of the direction of the relationship between strategic planning and role perception, was statistically significant. Overall, the means of the responses showed these tasks had a moderate to moderately high importance to strategic planning managers and their non-

strategic planning counterparts alike. These findings would appear to show that acting as a leader is somewhat important to both groups of local government chief executive officers. Therefore, additional research is needed in this area, both to better define the strategic planning tasks associated with the role of leader and to better substantiate or refute these tentative findings.

HYPOTHESIZED ROLE 2: ACCOMMODATOR

The hypothesized role of **accommodator** was a product of the importance placed on creating measurable goals for public sector strategic planning activities found in the public sector literature on the process. For this role, the null hypothesis used in testing was: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the accommodation role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The status of strategic planning in the locality was the independent variable while the role perceptions of the local government managers as accommodator served as the dependent variable in the analysis.

The five tasks examined for the accommodation role were: (1) adapting to the environment; (2) performing cost-benefit analysis; (3) modifying ideas to make them acceptable; (4) seeking new solutions for existing problems; and (5) using generic ideas without modification. The first four of these were considered to be positively-associated with strategic planning activity. Thus, higher values were anticipated for strategic planning managers on indicators such as the mean, the median, and the maximum. It

was also presumed that strategic planning managers would perform the tasks associated with strategic planning a higher percentage of the time than would the administrators and managers from localities which had not undertaken strategic planning. Likewise, it was thought that strategic planning managers would devote a greater proportion of their work time and be more involved in the accommodation role than non-strategic planning managers. Conversely, the question about the task of using generic concepts without modification was constructed in such a way as to be negatively-associated with strategic planning. This was a response set question placed in the middle of the list of task-related questions that was designed to compel respondents to think about each question before answering. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on its indicators such as the mean, the median, and the minimum were expected to be lower than the values for their non-strategic planning counterparts. (The complete statistical analysis for this role appears in Appendix III).

The first of the four positively-related, task-based questions for the role of accommodator sought information about the process of adapting problem-solving techniques. Local government chief executive officers were asked "While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Adapt problem-solving methods to fit the situation?" (Question 12). It was based upon the importance of tailoring the strategic planning process to the context of the environment discussed in the literature (Walter and Choate 1984; Bryson 1988; Nutt and Backoff 1992). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to

this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

All of the major indicators examined for this item showed meaningful but unexpectedly *lower* values for strategic planning managers versus their non-strategic planning counterparts. The mean value of the responses for the question about adapting problem-solving techniques reported by strategic planning managers was 52.2 percent of the time, compared to an average 65.8 percent of the time reported by their non-strategic planning counterparts (see Table 7). Analysis of variance testing of this variable showed the difference to be statistically significant at the 0.05-level ($F=5.01$). The median for the performance of this task was lower for strategic planning managers by 20 percentage points -- 50 percent of the time versus 70 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. Furthermore, 37.2 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported having to adapt the problem-solving methods task between 80 and 100 percent of the time whereas just 25.5 percent of strategic planning managers indicated they had to perform this task.

These findings suggest that the adaptation task may not be more prevalent as a result of the strategic planning process after all. The biggest implication of these results is that problem-solving methods do not appear to have to be adapted for use in strategic planning as much as previously thought. The consensus which is brought about by the strategic planning process may create a framework in which strategic planning managers can operate without having to make as many changes to the problem-solving methods

TABLE 7
Analysis of Variance on "Adapting to the Environment" (Q. 12)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	3947	3947	5.01**	0.028
Error	85	66988	788		
TOTAL	86	70935			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	65.83	27.08
Yes	51	52.16	28.74

NOTES: ** Statistically Significant at the 0.05-level.
SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.
DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.
SS refers to Sum of Squares.
MS refers to Mean Squares.
F refers to the F-score for the analysis.
p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.
MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.
STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

being utilized. This consensus either leads to general agreement on the methods to be used or precludes the use of certain methods. In either case, it provides a support system for actions by strategic planning managers, something their non-strategic planning managers do not have. Thus, non-strategic planning managers have to create their framework of operations by adapting problem-solving methods more often.

However, this finding should not be interpreted to mean that strategic planning managers do not have to perform the task of adaptation. They still have to adapt problem-solving methods more than half the time. It is only through comparison with their non-strategic planning counterparts that they seem to perform the task less frequently. And as will be discussed later, an examination of structural variables showed the role of accommodator to be the least affected of the five hypothesized roles by the characteristics of the locality. Thus, delegation of this task by strategic planning managers would not explain much of the difference between how often they perceive themselves performing this task and how often their non-strategic planning counterparts perceived themselves as performing this task.

The next positively-related question examined the performance of cost-benefit analysis, a very common type of financial analysis. Administrators and managers were asked, "While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Examine the costs and benefits of any new ideas?" (Question 13). It was based on the emphasis given financial analysis and resource management with regard to undertaking strategic planning efforts in the literature (Steiss

1985; Koteen 1989; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators examined here also showed unexpectedly *lower* values for this responses to this question. And once again, the differences were meaningful. The mean value for the responses was 57.4 percent of the time for strategic planning managers, compared to 68.9 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts (see Table 8). Analysis of variance testing showed this finding was statistically significant at a 0.10-level ($F=3.03$). The median value for this task was lower for strategic planning managers -- 60 percent of the time versus 80 percent for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Finally, 51.4 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported that they performed cost-benefit analysis at least 80 percent of the time, whereas just 37.3 percent of strategic planning managers reported performing analysis with such frequency.

Thus, financial analysis, at least of a cost-benefit type, may not be a task that is more often performed by administrators and managers as a result of strategic planning. The relevance of these findings for the financial task are very similar to those associated with the adaptation task. The consensus developed by strategic planning appears to decrease the need for financial analysis to be performed. The resultant vision that leads to a general agreement that certain things are to be done provides impetus for action that

TABLE 8
Analysis of Variance on "Performing Cost-Benefit Analysis" (Q. 13)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	2868	2868	3.03*	0.086
Error	86	81524	948		
TOTAL	87	84393			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	68.92	28.26
Yes	51	57.35	32.49

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.
SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.
DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.
SS refers to Sum of Squares.
MS refers to Mean Squares.
F refers to the F-score for the analysis.
p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.
MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.
STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

can overcome cost concerns in some situations. However, since this task is performed more than half the time by strategic planning managers, it is still an important consideration. Cost-benefit analysis is just not as important to them as it is to their non-strategic planning counterparts. The non-strategic planning managers may lack a vision to guide their action and apparently make up that deficiency with additional evidence that can be provided through greater use of cost-benefit analysis. Other possible implications are that other types of financial analysis are more commonly performed by strategic planning managers or strategic planning managers delegate the task of financial analysis. Other financial calculations, such as cost-utility and cost-effectiveness analysis, could be done. But there is no evidence to support (or reject) this conjecture. Delegation of the task of performing cost-benefit analysis is possible, especially given the specialized nature of the task. However, it may not explain much of the difference between strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts. As noted above, structural variables such as size of the local government have the least effect on the hypothesized accommodation role.

The third positively-related question was similar to the first one. It examined the modification of new ideas. Local government chief executive officers were asked "While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Modify the ideas until they become acceptable?" (Question 14) It was based on the concepts of feasibility and adaptability discussed in the literature (Summer 1980; Olsen and Eadie 1982; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-eight

local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

Like the previous two questions associated with this task, the values for the major indicators examined for this question were *lower* for strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, for this question, the differences were not as meaningful. Strategic planning managers reported performing this task an average of 54.4 percent of the time while their non-strategic planning counterparts reported performing it 64.6 percent of the time. Although large, the difference was not statistically significant ($F=2.39$). Like the previous question, the median value was 20 percentage points higher for non-strategic planning managers. The median for that group was 70 percent of the time versus 50 percent of the time for strategic planning managers. Similarly, 48.7 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported performing the task between 80 and 100 percent of the time, compared to 29.4 percent of strategic planning managers.

Like the previous two questions, this finding demonstrates how the greater dissonance found in non-strategic planning localities means managers within them actually have to work harder at tasks associated with the accommodation role than strategic planning managers do. Strategic planning managers perform this task more than half of the time. But the shared vision which has been created as part of the planning process may mean conditions exist on what is plausible and thus modification is less often

necessary to make new ideas acceptable. Without such a vision, non-strategic planning managers must modify ideas until they become acceptable.

The final positively-related task-based question examined the process of generating new solutions for chronic dilemmas. "While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Stress the need for new ideas to solve old problems?" (Question 16). It was derived from the basic concepts first put forth for strategic planning in the public sector in the early literature on the subject (Moskow 1979; Summer 1980; Olsen and Eadie 1982; Walter and Choate 1984). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The results of this question were very similar for both groups of managers. The mean of the values of the responses was slightly higher for non-strategic planning managers, 63.5 percent of the time versus 61.4 percent of the time for strategic planning managers. But this difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.13$). The median value for both groups was the same: 70 percent of the time. And virtually the same proportion of each group reported performing this task at least 80 percent of the time -- 43.1 percent of strategic planning managers and 43.2 percent of non-strategic planning managers.

This finding suggests that it is important to all local government chief executive officers, strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts alike,

for some problems to be creatively resolved. The importance of this task to general government administration can be seen in the fact that both groups performed it over 60 percent of the time and over 40 percent of managers from both groups reported stressing the need for new ideas the vast majority of the time. Thus, it seems innovation is a nearly universal aspiration of Virginia local government today and not just a concept that is the exclusive purview of strategic planning managers.

The negatively-associated, response set question sought to ascertain how often unmodified, "off the shelf" solutions were used. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Use the ideas without making any modifications?" (Question 15) The question was constructed in such a way as to ascertain how often the administrator or manager ceded the role of accommodator. Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

This was the only task-related question that supported the hypothesis that strategic planning managers functioned as accommodators more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. The mean value of the responses were higher for strategic planning managers while the mean of the responses for their non-strategic planning counterparts was lower. They reported using planning ideas without modification an average of 22.2 percent of the time, compared to 27.8 percent of the time for their non-

strategic planning counterparts. Analysis of variance testing showed this difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.93$). The median value of the responses was lower for strategic planning managers: 20 percent of the time versus 30 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Also, 60.8 percent of strategic planning managers reported that they used ideas without making changes 20 percent of the time or less. Only 43.2 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported acting in a similar manner.

This result may indicate that strategic planning may increase the propensity of local government managers to think about a problem before taking any action. Thus, unmodified generic ideas do not appear to work well in such settings. The same common vision that decreases the need to modify problem-solving methods and modify ideas to make them acceptable, increases the need for change in this instance. The idea must conform to the shared vision of the locality. And if it did not start out that way because it came from another source, it must be made to fit before it can be applied. Conversely, non-strategic planning managers have much more freedom in this regard. If they can gain support for a stock solution to a problem, they can implement that solution without altering it more often.

Overall, the mean score for the sum of the five operationalized tasks for the accommodation role (adjusted for the response set question) was *lower* for the strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts -- 60.6 percent of the time compared to 66.6 percent of the time. But the difference was not statistically

significant ($F=1.92$). The high scores -- both groups average performing the tasks of the role more than 60 percent of the time -- appear to mean that all local government chief executive officers, more often than not, must act as accommodators. However, the utilization of strategic planning decreases the need for managers in those localities to perform some of the tasks associated with this role compared to their non-strategic planning counterparts.

When asked about the amount of time that they perform the role of accommodator directly, quite a different depiction of the role emerges. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "What percent of your work as an administrator/manager involves making new initiatives fit the needs and realities of your locality?" (Question 33). The question used an explicit approach to ask the managers about their time commitment when dealing with new initiatives, particularly with respect to how much time they perceived themselves acting as an accommodator. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

The mean value of the responses to this question was significantly higher for strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts: 38.3 percent of the time versus 25.2 percent of the time (see Table 9). Analysis of variance testing showed the difference was significant at the 0.05 level ($F=4.80$). Additionally, the median value of the responses of strategic planning managers was 30 percent of the

TABLE 9
Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Accommodation Role (Q. 33)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	3632	3632	4.80**	0.031
Error	84	63506	756		
TOTAL	85	67138			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	25.17	22.44
Yes	50	38.34	30.60

NOTES: ** Statistically Significant at the 0.05-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

time, compared to a median of 15 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, some strategic planning managers reported that all of their work involved acting in the accommodation role. Meanwhile, none of the non-strategic planning managers reported more than 90 percent of their work involved playing the role of accommodator.

This is the only finding in the entire set of questions on the accommodation role that provided statistically significant support for the hypothesis that strategic planning managers were more likely to act as accommodators than their non-strategic planning counterparts. As was noted with the role of leader, this may indicate that strategic planning serves to unify these related tasks into a single role for the strategic planning manager. For their non-strategic planning counterparts, however, the tasks appear to be just disconnected activities.

The results of the question about the level of involvement followed the general pattern of the other questions for this role as the non-strategic planning managers showed a greater level of involvement. Administrators and managers were asked "What best describes your level of involvement in efforts to make new ideas from other places correspond to the needs and realities of your locality?" (Question 38). This was another attempt at using a straightforward method to ask local government chief executive officers about how often they perceived themselves acting as accommodators. Ninety local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-two from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-eight from localities

where it had not been utilized.

On a five-point scale where a "1" indicated "Totally Involved," the average score for strategic planning managers was 2.42 versus the average of 2.21 for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Analysis of variance testing showed this difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.39$). Additionally, the average scores for this role were the highest for any of the five roles. This would seem to indicate that all local government chief executive officers felt that they were the least involved in acting as accommodator, regardless of whether or not their localities utilized strategic planning.

This outcome demonstrates once again that accommodation appears to be a role that non-strategic planning managers have to be more concerned about. The process of strategic planning appear to moderate the need for certain functions to be performed. Thus, strategic planning managers can be less involved in playing this role. Finally, the relatively low levels of involvement may mean that accommodation functions are often delegated by all managers. Since this conjecture would apply to both groups of managers, it would not be incongruent with the fact that structural variables have the least effect on the accommodation role played by strategic planning managers.

In conclusion, the evidence provides support for the concept that strategic planning managers perceive that they play the role of accommodator more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. Thus, there is reason to reject the null hypothesis for this role, at least on a qualified basis. Strategic planning managers are more likely to think of themselves as accommodators. But in some cases, their actions

tell a completely different story. All four of the tasks that were presumed to be positively-associated with strategic planning, as well as the inquiry on the level of involvement in the role of accommodator, were found to be negatively-associated with the process. Two of these unexpectedly inverse relationships, the adaptation of problem-solving methods and the use of cost-benefit financial analysis, were statistically significant. These findings may point to a problem of task definition for this role. Or they might mean that other factors have a meaningful influence on the functions performed for this role by strategic planning managers. However, the structure of the locality probably does not have much of a bearing on this since, as previously noted, the role of accommodator is the least affected by structural characteristics. Instead, since both groups reported moderately high to high scores on each of these tasks and the difference was not statistically significant on four out of five of the tasks, it could very well mean that the role of accommodator is commonly played by all local government chief executive officers, those in strategic planning localities as well as those in non-strategic planning localities. The higher scores on the task questions for non-strategic planning managers could indicate they must serve as accommodators even more often than strategic planning managers because their localities do not have the consensus and the shared vision of the future which result from strategic planning. To determine whether or not this is true, additional research should be conducted, both to define better the tasks of the role of accommodator and to ascertain whether or not the role is really specific to strategic planning managers or universally performed by all administrators and

managers.

HYPOTHESIZED ROLE 3: INFORMER

The hypothesized role of **informer** developed from the need, as described in the literature, for information to serve and steer the strategic planning process. For this role, the null hypothesis used in testing was: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the informational role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The status of strategic planning in the locality was the independent variable while the role perceptions of the local government managers as informer served as the dependent variable in the analysis.

The five tasks examined for the informational role were: (1) examining internal strengths and weaknesses; (2) examining external opportunities and threats; (3) reviewing relevant trends; (4) determining problems, issues, and concerns; and (5) making decisions about the use of data. The first four of these were thought to be positively-associated with strategic planning activity. Thus, it was presumed that the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the maximum would be higher than the values of the responses on these items of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, it was thought they would perform the tasks associated with strategic planning a higher percentage of the time than the administrators and managers from localities which had not undertaken strategic planning. Likewise, it was believed that strategic planning managers would devote more work time and be more

involved in the informer role than non-strategic planning managers. On the other hand, the question about the task of making data decisions was constructed in such a way as to be negatively-associated with strategic planning. This was a response set question and was placed in the middle of the list of task-related questions. It was designed to compel respondents to think about each question before answering. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the minimum for this item were expected to be lower than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. (The complete statistical analysis for this role appears in Appendix III).

The first two of the four positively-related, task-based questions for the role of informer sought information on the performance of "SWOT" analysis. This set of questions was derived from the analysis of "Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats," which is common to strategic planning and articulated throughout the literature (Bryson 1988; Koteen 1989; Nutt and Backoff 1992).

The first question looked at internal characteristics. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Examine the locality's strengths and weaknesses?" (Question 17). Eighty-eight local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-one from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators examined were surprisingly *lower* for strategic planning

managers than their non-strategic planning counterparts. The mean value of the responses to this question was 57.0 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 63.8 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. However, analysis of variance testing showed that the difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.34$). That was in part because the responses for strategic planning managers had a standard deviation that was nearly seven points larger than the standard deviation of non-strategic planning managers. In other words, the sum of the mean and one standard deviation for both groups of managers was about equal. The median for strategic planning managers was also lower: 70 percent of the time versus 60 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Also, 40.5 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported examining internal characteristics at least 80 percent of the time, compared to 33.3 percent of the strategic planning managers.

The second question looked at external characteristics. Administrators and managers were asked "While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Examine external opportunities and threats?" (Question 18). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

For this inquiry, the major indicators examined were mixed. The mean value of the responses reported by strategic planning managers was *lower* than the responses

reported by their non-strategic planning counterparts: 52.5 percent of the time versus 57.0 percent of the time. This difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.55$). That was in part because the responses for strategic planning managers had a standard deviation that was nearly seven points larger than the standard deviation of non-strategic planning managers. In other words, the sum of the mean and one standard deviation for both groups of managers was about equal. The median value for the responses was somewhat lower for strategic planning managers, 60 percent of the time as compared to 55 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. However, unlike the first question, a slightly higher proportion of strategic planning managers reported performing an analysis of external factors at least 80 percent of the time. A total of 28.0 percent of strategic planning managers said they examined opportunities and threats almost always, just one percentage point more than the 27.0 percent of non-strategic planning managers who reported the same level of activity.

These findings have several implications. The most important is that it appears that strategic planning managers do not do extensive environmental analysis as often as their non-strategic planning counterparts. This may once again be the result of the consensus which is a result of the common vision that results from strategic planning. Because there is general agreement on what should be done, there may not need to be as much formalized analysis to determine what should be done. Consequently, it would appear that non-strategic planning managers have to be more active in using formalized methods of analysis. This result is similar to what was found when local government

chief executive officers were asked to what degree they performed cost-benefit analysis.

The lower values for the responses of strategic planning managers may also indicate the delegation of these tasks. Structural variables were found to affect the perception of strategic planning managers with regard to the role of informer. And as noted previously, managers reported high levels of staff and citizen involvement in the strategic planning process.

Finally, the high scores for both groups of managers show that "SWOT" analysis may just be universally important. Both strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts reported performing both internal and external analysis more than half the time. Also, the internal examination of strengths and weaknesses appears to be slightly more important than the review of external opportunities and threats.

The third positively-related question examined to what degree administrators and managers review trends. They were asked, "While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Review relevant trends (either historic or predicted)?" (Question 19). It was based on the concept of foresight discussed in the literature (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Walter and Choate 1984; Koteen 1992). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators examined here all were *lower* for the strategic planning

managers, but not by a meaningful amount. The mean value for the responses of strategic planning managers was 51.2 percent of the time; the mean value for the responses of their non-strategic planning counterparts was 57.0. But the difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.87$). The median value for reviewing relevant trends was lower for strategic planning managers: 50 percent of the time versus 60 percent of the time. And 28.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported they reviewed trends 80 to 100 percent of the time, compared to 29.7 percent of non-strategic planning managers.

The small differences between the two groups of managers indicates that reviewing trends may be equally important to both groups of managers. Both strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts reported reviewing trends more than half the time. Other implications are similar to those discussed for the previous two questions. The consensus generated by strategic planning results in agreement on what needs to be done, sometimes regardless of what the trends may indicate or whether or not trends are even examined. Also, the delegation of this task is a distinct possibility since, as previously noted, the strategic planning process involves staff and interested citizens.

The final positively-related, task-based question sought information about determining "PICs" -- problems, issues, and concerns. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Determine

possible problems, issues, concerns?" (Question 21). It was derived from the ideas of strategic issues and problems discussed in the literature (Bryson 1988; Koteen 1989; Nutt and Backoff 1992) as well as a process used by the Institute for Community Resource Development at Virginia Tech when facilitating strategic planning efforts in a locality. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

As in two of the three previous questions, the values for all the major indicators examined were *lower* than would have been expected. The mean value for the responses to this question was 61.8 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 65.8 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. This difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.43$). The median value was lower for strategic planning managers: 70 percent of the time versus 75 percent of the time. Also, 38.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported determining PICs at least 80 percent of the time, compared to 50.0 percent of non-strategic planning managers.

The high values for both groups of managers indicate that working to determine problems, issues, and concerns is an important local government activity, regardless of whether or not strategic planning has been undertaken in the locality. The consensus produced by strategic planning may result in a less formalized separate determination of PICs. Problems, issues, and concerns would have been determined previously through the strategic planning process. Also, since the planning process in many localities

involved staff and citizens, the strategic planning manager may not have had to take an active role in determining PICs. The opposite situation would face non-strategic planning managers. Without a pre-defined consensus, they apparently need to take a more active role in determining the problems, issues, and concerns that confront their locality.

The negatively-associated, response set question asked about the use of comparative data in guiding decisions. Administrators and managers were asked, "While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ... Decide data comparing the locality to other places is not useful?" (Question 20). This question was constructed in an effort to discover how often the role of informer was ceded. Eighty-five local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-five from localities where it had not been utilized.

Just as was found with the role of accommodator, the response set question was the only task-related question for this role which supported the premise that strategic planning managers acted as informers more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. The mean values of the responses for this question were 28.4 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 31.4 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, analysis of variance testing showed this difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.45$). The median value was lower for strategic planning managers as well. It was 20 percent of the time for them as compared

to 30 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, 54.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported that they did not use comparative data in only 20 percent or less of cases. Meanwhile, only 37.2 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported rarely not using comparative data.

This result appears to indicate that strategic planning managers have a more outward-defined view of their locality than their non-strategic planning counterparts. They want to collect information on what has occurred externally before making decisions. This is similar to what was found with the external environment analysis question as a higher proportion of strategic planning managers performed that task at least 80 percent of the time. In contrast, non-strategic planning managers, since they do not have internal consensus or an agreed-upon vision to guide them, seem to spend more time analyzing the internal characteristics and situation.

Overall, the mean score for the sum of the five operationalized tasks for the informer role (adjusted for the response set question) was *lower* for the strategic planning managers. They performed the role-related tasks an average of 58.9 percent of the time, compared to 63.2 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. But the difference is not statistically significant ($F=0.98$). Apparently, all administrators and managers have to be informers to some degree. But in localities where strategic planning has been undertaken, the results of the planning process seem to have lessened the need for the manager to play this role formally, especially when compared to the roles that have to be played by non-strategic planning managers. Also, the high scores indicate

that functioning in the role of informer is important for both groups of managers.

Even when asked about the amount of time they perform the role of informer directly, the two groups appear equal. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "What percent of your work as an administrator/manager involves providing information to be used in making decisions about new initiatives in your locality?" (Question 34). It was a straightforward way of obtaining information from local government chief executive officers about their time commitment when dealing with new initiatives, particularly with respect to how much time they perceive themselves as acting in the role of informer. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

Strategic planning managers appear to play this role slightly more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts, 35.3 percent of the time to 32.6 percent of the time. But analysis of variance testing showed this difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.20$). The median value for strategic planning managers is also slightly higher: 25.0 percent of the time compared to 22.5 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. And 34.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported playing this role at least half the time, compared to just 25.0 percent of non-strategic planning managers.

However, since the difference between the two means was not significantly different, the two groups cannot be said to be different from one another. Thus, both

strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts appear to perform these information-providing tasks on a comparable basis. The result is the near-equal perception of the role they play with regard to the provision of information.

Finally, the level of involvement question followed the general pattern of the positively-related task questions for this role. It too had a higher value for the responses for the non-strategic planning managers. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "What best describes your level of involvement in providing background information to the council/board while studying new initiatives?" (Question 39). This was another straightforward effort to ask local government chief executive officers about how much they perceived themselves as acting as informers. Ninety local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-two from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-eight from localities where it had not been utilized.

On a five-point scale where a "1" indicated "Totally Involved," the average score for strategic planning managers was 1.75, versus 1.66 for their non-strategic planning counterparts. The difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.31$). Also, this was the only level of involvement question that had a different median for each group. Non-strategic planning localities had a median of 1.5 whereas strategic planning localities had a median of 2.0.

These results show two different things. First, all local government chief executive officers need to be concerned about the role of informer. The mean of the

level of involvement scores for this role, for both groups, indicated the highest level of involvement playing this role among any of the five hypothesized roles. That would seem to mean that strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts both realize the value of information in the governing process and work to ensure its availability. Second, if one group of local government chief executive officers needs to be more concerned about this role, it is the non-strategic planning managers. The mean and median values for this indicator demonstrates that they take an extremely active and direct part in providing information for local government operations. Meanwhile, the analysis of structural variables gives credence to the suggestion that strategic planning managers do not have to be as active as their non-strategic planning counterparts because they have more opportunity to delegate some of the tasks related to the informer role.

In conclusion, there is insufficient evidence even conditionally to reject the null hypotheses for the role of informer. Not one of the differences in the values for the means of the role perception indicators was statistically significant. And only two of them, the response set task-question on making data decisions and the percent of work devoted to playing the role of informer, showed the expected relationship between the two groups of local government chief executive officers. For the other five questions, the relationship that was found was opposite of what had been predicted. These results lead to three interpretations, all of which are plausible. The first is that providing information for decision-making is a general function of local government chief executive officers. Thus, acting as an informer is not limited to strategic planning managers. The

second is that the structure of localities which have undertaken strategic planning, larger with greater resources, allows strategic planning managers to delegate these tasks. Meanwhile, their non-strategic planning counterparts, without such an intricate governmental infrastructure, must take the lead in information provision activities. These conditions then mask the true degree to which strategic planning managers play the informer role. The third is that non-strategic planning managers actually play the part of informer more than strategic planning managers. The shared vision in strategic planning localities creates general agreement on what needs to be done. Therefore, they may not need to gather as much information for analysis as their non-strategic planning counterparts. Conversely, in non-strategic planning localities, the absence of consensus means a great deal of analysis must be performed. And that analysis requires a great deal of information that must be provided by the local government chief executive officer. Additional research is needed to ascertain which of these explanations, if any, is correct, to determine if the tasks were correctly defined for this role, and to confirm or contradict the finding that strategic planning managers do not act as informers any more than other local government chief executive officers.

HYPOTHESIZED ROLE 4: INTEGRATOR

The hypothesized role of **integrator** arose from the need to couple the strategic planning process with other planning activities of the organization described in the literature of both the public sector and private sector. For this role, the null hypothesis

used in testing was: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the integration role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The status of strategic planning in the locality was the independent variable while the role perceptions of the local government managers as integrator served as the dependent variable in the analysis.

The five tasks examined for the integration role were: (1) connecting the process to the comprehensive plan; (2) connecting the process with operating plans; (3) linking new ideas to programs that existed; (4) linking new ideas to the vision of the future for the locality; and (5) coupling plans and budgets. The first four of these were thought to be positively-associated with strategic planning activity. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the maximum were predicted to be higher than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, it was anticipated that strategic planning managers would perform the tasks associated with strategic planning a higher percentage of the time than the administrators and managers from localities that had not undertaken strategic planning. Likewise, it was hypothesized that strategic planning managers would spend more work time and be more involved in the integration role than non-strategic planning managers. Meanwhile, the question about the task of linking plans and budgets was constructed in such a way as to be negatively-associated with strategic planning. This was a response set question and was placed in the middle of the list of task-related questions. It was designed to compel respondents to think about each question before answering. Thus, the values for

strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the minimum were assumed to be lower than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. (The complete statistical analysis for this role appears in Appendix III).

The first of the four positively-related, task-based questions for the role of integrator sought information about the creation of connections between the comprehensive plan and new initiatives. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ... Establish links between new ideas and the locality's comprehensive plan?" (Question 22). This question was based upon the discussion of the scope of planning systems found in the literature (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Walter and Choate 1984; Bryson 1988). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators examined for this question all had surprisingly *lower* values for strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, the differences were small. Strategic planning managers reported that they made connections between the comprehensive plan and new ideas an average of 47.6 percent of the time, compared to 49.2 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. Analysis of variance testing showed this difference not to be statistically significant ($F=0.06$). The median value was lower for strategic planning managers: 50 percent of the time versus 60 percent of the time. Also, just 22.0 percent of strategic

planning managers reported performing this task at least 80 percent of the time. This was lower than the 24.3 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts who reported that they almost always performed this task.

The result of this question has several implications. Overall, both groups of managers reported linking new ideas to the comprehensive plan just under half the time. This would seem to indicate that the process has roughly the same importance for both groups. The fact that strategic planning managers had a lower mean can be explained by the nature of strategic planning. The process and the vision which results from it would serve as the guiding force for the locality. Thus, strategic planning managers would not need to link new ideas to the comprehensive plan as often as their non-strategic planning counterparts. Consequently, without any other plan to guide them, non-strategic planning managers would have no other alternative for linking new initiatives into an overall plan for the locality than the comprehensive plan. Finally, the responses for this question had low means for both groups because in many localities, the comprehensive plan is primarily a land use plan. Thus, in such localities, it may not be appropriate to link new ideas which do not deal with land use issues to the comprehensive plan.

The next positively-related question asked about connections between operating plans and new initiatives. Administrators and managers were asked, "While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ... Establish links between new ideas and the operating plans?" (Question 23). It was based upon the

concept of the interrelationships of planning systems discussed in the literature (Steiss 1985; Koteen 1989; Nutt and Backoff 1992). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The results for this question were mixed. The mean value of the responses from strategic planning managers was unexpectedly *lower* than the mean of the responses of their non-strategic planning counterparts: 53.8 percent of the time versus 56.8 percent of the time. But this difference was not statistically significant. However, the responses of the strategic planning managers about the frequency with which they made connections to operating plans had a higher median though -- 70 percent of the time versus 60 percent of the time for the non-strategic planning managers. Finally, about the same proportion of both groups reported performing this function at least 80 percent of the time -- 32.0 percent of strategic planning managers and 35.1 percent of non-strategic planning managers.

The responses to this question illustrate several important points. For both groups of managers, it is more important to link new ideas to operating plans than to the comprehensive plan. The moderately high scores of the means show the importance it has to all local government chief executive officers. The probable reason that the strategic planning managers had a lower mean score again illustrates the apparent influence of the consensus which results from strategic planning efforts. This consensus

and the resultant vision allow the process of forging linkages to be less formalized. Also, the activity often may move outside the purview of strategic planning managers. As has been noted previously, strategic planning managers reported a high level of staff and citizen involvement in the process. And their involvement seemed to be more probable in this area as the role of integrator was influenced by structural variables more than any of the other hypothesized roles.

The third positively-related question solicited information about linkages between new ideas and programs that already existed. Administrators and managers were asked, "While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ... Establish links between new ideas and existing programs?" (Question 24). The question was derived from case studies on strategic planning in the public sector in the literature (Summer 1980; Bryson 1988; Nutt and Backoff 1992). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

Once again, the results of the question were mixed. However, for this question, none of the indicators showed the expected positive-association between strategic planning managers and the task being examined. The mean for the responses was unexpectedly *lower* for strategic planning managers. They reported linking new ideas to existing programs an average of 56.7 percent of the time, compared to 63.2 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, while this difference

was large, analysis of variance testing showed that it was not statistically significant ($F=1.11$). Similarly, a slightly smaller proportion of strategic planning managers reported performing this task at least 80 percent of the time: 40.0 percent versus 46.0 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Finally, the median value for both groups of local government chief executive officers was the same for this question -- 70 percent of the time.

The explanation for these results is similar to the discussion of the previous question. The high scores of the means show the importance it has to all local government chief executive officers. For both groups of managers, it is even more important to link new ideas to existing programs than to operating plans. Strategic planning managers again probably had a lower mean score on this question because of the effects of consensus and the vision that results as part of the process of forging linkages. The approach can be less formalized and often may move outside the direct control of strategic planning managers because of the increased likelihood of delegation of this type of activity by strategic planning managers.

The final positively-related, task-based question inquired about linking new ideas to the vision of the future. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ... Link new ideas to the locality's vision of the future?" (Question 26). It was developed from the discussion of the process of visioning found in the literature (Bryson 1988; Koteen 1989; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-six local government chief executive

officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators for the responses to this question were also mixed. But unlike the other two questions, the relationships they showed were mostly in the expected direction when looking at linking new ideas to the vision for the future. The mean for the response for this question was higher for strategic planning managers: 63.4 percent of the time versus 58.6 percent of the time. Analysis of variance testing showed the difference to be large but not statistically significant ($F=0.61$). Along those same lines, 48.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported performing this task at least 80 percent of the time, compared to just 36.1 percent of their non-strategic planning counterparts. The only indicator that was lower for strategic planning managers was the median value of their responses. Their responses had a median of 60 percent of the time while the responses of their non-strategic planning counterparts had a median of 70 percent of the time.

It should not be surprising that strategic planning managers more often acted to link new ideas to the vision of the locality. The strategic planning process stresses the creation of a vision. And strategic planning managers reported working to create such a vision in their locality more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts (although the difference was not statistically significant; see the results of Question 7). The result was the mean score for responses to this question was the highest for strategic planning managers of any of the four positively-associated integrator tasks. Furthermore,

the high scores for both groups of managers show that linking new ideas to a vision of the locality has great importance, regardless of whether or not strategic planning has been undertaken

The negatively-associated, response set question looked at links between planning and budgeting. Administrators and managers were asked, "While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ... Keep discussion of new ideas separate from the budget process?" (Question 25). The question was constructed to try to ascertain how often the administrator or manager delegates the role of integrator. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators for the responses to this question all showed the expected results. The mean value of the responses for strategic planning managers was lower than their non-strategic planning counterparts: 21.4 percent of the time versus 27.8 percent of the time. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.69$). Also, the median value for strategic planning managers was 10 percent of the time, compared to 20 percent of the time for non-strategic planning managers. Furthermore, 70.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported rarely ignoring the possible links between new ideas and budgets. This compared 52.8 percent of non-strategic planning managers who indicated that they ignored new idea-budget links 20 percent of the time or less.

This result provides support for the concept that strategic planning managers play

the integrator role more than their non-strategic planning counterparts. But since it can be inferred from what both groups reported that managers routinely examine linkages between the budget and new ideas, this task may be more a ubiquitous function found in all local governments than a specialized strategic planning task. Therefore, the higher percentage of strategic planning managers who link budgets and new ideas may be nothing more than a function of structural characteristics of those localities. And since the role of integrator was most affected of the five hypothesized roles by structural factors, this may mean that external characteristics are more important than the status of strategic planning when investigating the connections established between budgets and new ideas.

Overall, the mean scores for the sum of the five operationalized tasks for the integrator role (adjusted for the response set question) were virtually equal -- 60.0 percent of the time for strategic planning managers and 60.2 percent for non-strategic planning managers. The difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.00$). The high scores -- both groups averaged performing the tasks of the role approximately three-fifths of the time -- appear to mean that all local government chief executive officers find themselves in a position where they must act as integrator the majority of the time. For most of the tasks associated with this role though, the results of the strategic planning process serve to reduce the need for local government chief executives to perform this role in a straightforward and direct manner.

When asked about the amount of time they perform the role of integrator directly

though, another depiction of the role appears. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "What percent of your work as an administrator/manager involves creating linkages between new initiatives and plans for the future of your locality?" (Question 35). The question sought the frank perceptions of administrators and managers about their time commitment when dealing with new initiatives, particularly with respect to how much time they perceived themselves as acting as an integrator. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not been utilized.

The mean value of the responses to this question was somewhat higher for strategic planning managers, 30.5 percent of the time, than for their non-strategic planning counterparts, 23.7 percent of the time. However, analysis of variance testing showed the difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.37$). The median value of the responses of strategic planning managers was higher as well. It was 20 percent of the time, compared to a median of 10 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Moreover, some strategic planning managers reported that all of their work involved playing the integrator role while none of the non-strategic planning managers reported more than 80 percent of their work involved acting as the integrator.

Although in the expected direction, the difference between the two groups of local government chief executive officers was not statistically significant and thus not does provide meaningful support for the hypothesis that underlies the definition of the

integrator role. Additionally, the low scores for both groups may mean that strategic planning managers or their non-strategic planning counterparts believe that they do not commonly play this role.

This is not to say that playing the role is not important. The results of the question concerning involvement showed essentially the same level for both groups of local government chief executive officers. They were asked, "What best describes your level of involvement in (the) process of translating the plans of new initiatives into reality?" (Question 40). It was another straightforward attempt to ascertain to what degree administrators and managers perceived themselves as acting as an integrator with respect to new initiatives. Ninety local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-two from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-eight from localities where it had not been utilized.

On a five-point scale where "1" indicated "Totally Involved," the average score for strategic planning managers was 1.90 compared to the average of 1.87 for non-strategic planning managers (see Table 37). However, not only was this difference quite small, analysis of variance testing showed that it was not statistically significant ($F=0.05$). Although it should be noted that this was the only one of the five roles in which all responding non-strategic planning managers felt they were at least "Somewhat Involved" (all the responses on the five-point scale were "1", "2", or "3").

This outcome confirms that there is little difference between the two groups of local government chief executive officers on the playing of the role of integrator. The

fact that all non-strategic planning managers believe that they get at least somewhat involved in this process shows the importance of performing this task in localities where no consensus, and in this case even more importantly no vision, exists to guide the implementation of new ideas. Moreover, part of the reason for the relatively low levels of involvement by strategic planning managers could be the delegation of integration functions. This surmise has the support of evidence to be presented later in this study about the effect of structural variables on the perception strategic planning managers have of the integrator role.

In conclusion, there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis for the role of integrator, even on a partial basis. None of the differences in the values for the means of the role perception indicators was statistically significant. And just three of them, the task-question on linking new ideas to the vision of the future, the response set task-question on coupling plans and budgets, and the percent of time devoted to playing the role of integrator, showed the expected relationship between the two groups of administrators and managers. In the four other questions for the role, the relationship between the groups was found to be the opposite of what had been predicted. The most probable cause for these findings is that the influence of structural variables makes it difficult to ascertain to what degree strategic planning managers perform the role of integrator. It will be documented later in this study that the integrator role is the most affected of the five hypothesized roles by structural characteristics. The other possible explanations are similar to those discussed for the role of informer. One is that working

to integrate new ideas into the existing governmental structure is a general function of local government chief executive officers and so playing the role of integrator is not limited to strategic planning managers. The other is that non-strategic planning managers actually play the part of integrator more than strategic planning managers. The shared vision in strategic planning localities creates general agreement on what needs to be done. Therefore, they may not need to work as diligently to integrate new ideas into existing governmental structures. Meanwhile, in non-strategic planning localities, the absence of consensus makes it necessary for new ideas to be readily integrated into the current structures. Additional research is needed to determine if these suppositions are correct, if the tasks were correctly defined for this role, and if strategic planning managers act as integrator any more than any other local government chief executive officer.

HYPOTHESIZED ROLE 5: CHANGE MASTER

The hypothesized role of **change master** resulted from the need to translate the results of strategic planning into results-producing actions, a phenomenon that has been described in the literature on the process. For this role, the null hypothesis used in testing was: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no effect on the perception of local government chief executive officers on the change master role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The status of strategic planning in the locality was the independent variable while the role perceptions of the local government managers as change master served as the dependent variable in the analysis.

The five tasks examined for the change master role were: (1) modifying the long-term outlook; (2) altering the short-term outlook; (3) transforming decision-making processes; (4) creating a setting for change; and (5) regulating natural processes. The first four of these were thought to be positively-associated with strategic planning activity. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the maximum were thought to be higher than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Similarly, it was expected that strategic planning managers would perform the tasks associated with strategic planning a higher percentage of the time than would the administrators and managers from localities that had not undertaken strategic planning. Likewise, it was thought that strategic planning managers would spend more work time and be more involved in the change master role than non-strategic planning managers would be. In contrast, the question about the task of regulating natural processes was constructed in such a way as to be negatively-associated with strategic planning. This was a response set question and was placed in the middle of the list of task-related questions. It was designed to compel respondents to think about each question before answering. Thus, the values for strategic planning managers on the indicators such as the mean, the median, and the minimum were predicted to be lower than the values of their non-strategic planning counterparts. (The complete statistical analysis for this role appears in Appendix III).

The first of the four positively-related, task-based questions for the role of change master sought information on influences on the long-term outlook of the locality.

Administrators and managers were asked, "While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ... Work to change the locality's long-term outlook?" (Question 27). The question was derived from the emphasis placed on the time frame of planning efforts found in the literature (Walter and Choate 1984; Bryson 1988; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities in which it had not been utilized.

The results for this question were mixed. The mean value for strategic planning managers was somewhat higher as they reported working to change the long-term outlook an average of 51.3 percent of the time, compared to 50.3 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. Analysis of variance showed the difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.04$). Also, both groups had the same median value: 50 percent of the time. Finally, a slightly smaller proportion of strategic planning managers reported performing this task at least 80 percent of the time. A total of 22.0 percent of them indicated that they worked to change the locality's long-term outlook almost all of the time. In contrast, 24.3 percent of non-strategic planning managers reported performing the task at least 80 percent of the time.

The implication of these results is that there is support for the supposition that strategic planning managers work to create a change in the long-term outlook of the locality. This should not be surprising for it is similar to the work done by strategic

planning managers discussed earlier to create a vision (for a complete discussion, see the role of leader [Question 7]). Strategic planning managers were shown to work toward creating a vision of the future more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. The reason for the mixed results for this indicator may be caused by the differences between long-term planning and strategic planning. The two are similar but not exactly the same. Most localities, if not all, do some long-range planning. Thus, changing the long-range outlook may be a more widespread activity of administrators and managers rather than a task mostly performed by strategic planning managers.

The next positively-related inquiry asked a similar question about changes on the short-term outlook of the locality. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ... Work to change the locality's short-term outlook?" (Question 28). The question was derived from the discussion of operating tactics found in the literature (Olsen and Eadie 1982; Steiss 1985; Koteen 1989). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators examined for this question were mostly *lower* for strategic planning managers. They reported working to change the short-term outlook in the locality an average of 49.2 percent of the time, compared to an average of 57.3 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. This difference was not

statistically significant ($F=1.90$). Likewise, the median was lower for strategic planning managers: 60 percent of the time versus 70 percent of the time. Also, just 22.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported working to change the short-term outlook of the locality at least 80 percent of the time, whereas 29.7 percent of non-strategic planning managers indicated that they acted in such a way almost always. The maximum value for this variable was the only indicator that exhibited the expected relationship. Some strategic planning managers indicated that they always worked to change the short-term outlook while no non-strategic planning manager reported performing that task more than 90 percent of the time.

It should not be that surprising that the strategic planning managers scored lower on this question than their non-strategic planning counterparts. Because strategic planning results in a vision for the future, the long-range future, of a locality, incremental changes in the short-term outlook may not be as important to strategic planning managers. Conversely, non-strategic planning managers need to work to make small changes to accomplish almost anything important for the lack of consensus in their localities may preclude agreement on larger, more meaningful changes. Also, it is possible that strategic planning managers delegate such activities as dealing with changes in short-term processes, preferring to concentrate on the entire end to be achieved rather than the small details of the means. Analysis to be presented later in this study shows structural characteristics do have an effect on the perception of the role of change master. Thus, the prospect of delegation of this activity cannot be ruled out, particularly given

the levels of staff involvement in the process reported by strategic planning managers.

The third positively-related question inquired about impact of new initiatives on the decision-making process. Local government chief executive officers were asked, "While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ... Work to modify the board's/council's decision-making processes?" (Question 29). It was derived from the concept of institutional problems facing strategic planning described in the literature (Bryson 1988; Bozeman and Straussman 1990; Nutt and Backoff 1992). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities in which it had not been utilized.

The results for the responses for this question were mixed. Where they were meaningful, however, the indicators had *lower* than expected values for strategic planning managers. The mean value for the responses for this question were significantly lower for strategic planning managers, 36.0 percent of the time compared to 52.2 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts (see Table 10). Analysis of variance showed this result was statistically significant at a 0.01-level ($F=9.54$). Furthermore, just 10.0 percent of strategic planning managers indicated that they performed this task at least 80 percent of the time. Meanwhile, more than twice that proportion, 21.6 percent of non-strategic planning managers, reported that they almost always worked to change the decision-making process of the elected local legislative body. Paradoxically, strategic planning managers had a higher median value for this

TABLE 10
Analysis of Variance on "Changing Decision-Making Processes" (Q. 29)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	5555	5555	9.54***	0.003
Error	85	49477	582		
TOTAL	86	55032			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	52.16	24.17
Yes	50	36.00	24.10

NOTES : *** Statistically Significant at the 0.01-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

question. Their median was 50 percent of the time whereas the median for non-strategic planning managers was 30 percent of the time.

The unexpectedly lower mean value for the responses of strategic planning managers may once again point to the changes brought about in the dynamics of the locality through the development of a consensus as a result of strategic planning. Generally, strategic planning managers and their boards or councils will be working toward the same goal because of their shared vision. Thus, they do not have to take an active part in changing decision-making processes. By the same reasoning, without that shared vision, non-strategic planning managers have to work to bring about desired change in many different ways. One of those activities appears to be trying to change the approach its board or council takes toward making decisions.

The final positively-related question was similar to one asked previously with respect to the role of leader. It requested information about the work administrators and managers performed to create a setting for change. They were asked, "While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ... Work to create a setting where change is possible?" (Question 31). It was developed from the discussion on environmental factors found in the literature (Bryson 1988; Koteen 1989; Bozeman and Straussman 1990). Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

Most of the indicators for this variable showed the expected higher values for the responses of strategic planning managers. Strategic planning managers reported working to create a setting for change 68.2 percent of the time, compared to 67.0 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, this difference was not statistically significant ($F=0.04$). Likewise, the median value for this question was higher for strategic planning managers: 80 percent of the time versus 70 percent of the time. Also, 56.0 percent of strategic planning managers reported performing this task 80 to 100 percent of the time. Just 45.9 percent of non-strategic planning managers indicated they worked to create a setting for change with such regularity.

The most important implication of these findings is that working to create a setting for change is an important activity for all local government chief executive officers, regardless of whether or not their locality has undertaken strategic planning. Additionally, working to turn the vision of the locality into a reality makes this a vital activity for strategic planning managers, as can be seen by higher mean and median values and the larger proportion of strategic planning managers who almost always work to create such a setting. Furthermore, the situation may be similar to what was discussed with the earlier question on creating a setting (for a complete discussion, see the role of leader [Question 10]). That is, that strategic planning managers may not need to perform this function any more often than they do because the planning process itself appears to facilitate change.

The negatively-associated, response set question examined the manipulation of

natural processes. Administrators and managers were asked, "While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ... Let natural processes run their course unaided?" (Question 30). The question was constructed to detect if and when the administrator or manager ceded the role of change master to natural events. Eighty-seven local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-seven from localities where it had not been utilized.

The major indicators mostly showed the expected results. The mean value for the responses to the question were lower for strategic planning managers than their non-strategic planning counterparts, 20.8 percent of the time to 25.4 percent of the time. Analysis of variance testing showed this was not a statistically significant difference though ($F=0.15$). A larger proportion of strategic planning managers rarely let natural processes take over unabated. A total of 70.0 percent of them reported that they allowed that to happen just 20 percent of the time or even less often. This compared to 64.8 percent of non-strategic planning managers. Lastly, both groups exhibited the same median value: 20 percent of the time.

The values of the scores seem to indicate that most of the time local government chief executive officers are reluctant to let things happen without taking any action, the status of strategic planning in the locality notwithstanding. The administrators and managers are unwilling to allow fate or pure chance to be the determining factor in whether or not an initiative succeeds. Still, the result gives limited credence to the

supposition that strategic planning managers act in the change master role more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. It shows that strategic planning managers intervene slightly more often to ensure that the agreed-upon vision for the locality becomes reality.

Overall, the mean scores for the sum of the five operationalized tasks for the change master role (adjusted for the response set question) were *lower* for strategic planning managers. They performed the role-related tasks an average of 56.3 percent of the time, compared to 60.3 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($F=1.27$). The scores indicate that all administrators and managers function as change masters to some degree. But to what extent each part of the role is performed may depend upon the nature of the task and the situation.

Circumstances change considerably, however, when the self-perception of local government chief executive officers had about playing the role of change master are examined. They were asked "What percent of your work as an administrator/manager involves working to bring about change in your locality through the consideration of new initiatives?" (Question 36). It was a straightforward effort to ask about their time commitment when dealing with new initiatives, particularly with respect to how much time each perceived himself/herself acting as a change master. Eighty-six local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-six from localities where it had not

been utilized.

The mean value of the responses to this question was higher for strategic planning managers than for their non-strategic planning counterparts, 39.5 percent of the time as compared to 27.8 percent of the time (see Table 11). Analysis of variance testing showed the difference was statistically significant at the 0.10-level ($F=3.80$). The median value of the responses of strategic planning managers was also higher, 35 percent of the time versus 20 percent of the time for their non-strategic planning counterparts. And finally, some strategic planning managers reported that all of their work involved serving as change master. The highest amount reported by the non-strategic planning managers was 75 percent of their work.

Since the difference between the two groups of local government chief executive officers was in the expected direction and was statistically significant, it provides support for the hypothesis that strategic planning managers play the role of change masters. While they may not concentrate on some of the tasks associated with bringing about change more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts, strategic planning managers apparently view themselves as advocates for change and work in their own way to ensure that change occurs.

One way that they accomplish this is by being more involved. Administrators and managers were asked "What best describes your level of involvement in using new initiatives to bring about fundamental change to the vision of the future in your locality?" (Question 41). It was another direct effort to seek self-perceptions about their time

TABLE 11
Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Change Master Role (Q. 36)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	2870	2870	3.80*	0.055
Error	84	63465	756		
TOTAL	85	66335			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.75	22.68
Yes	50	39.46	30.46

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.
SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.
DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.
SS refers to Sum of Squares.
MS refers to Mean Squares.
F refers to the F-score for the analysis.
p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.
MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.
STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

commitment with regard to the change master role. Ninety local government chief executive officers responded to this question, fifty-two from localities where strategic planning had been undertaken and thirty-eight from localities where it had not been utilized.

On a five-point scale where "1" indicated "Totally Involved," the average score for strategic planning managers was 1.75 (see Table 12). This value was as low as any of the mean scores for the level of involvement reported by strategic planning managers for any of the five hypothesized roles (the role of informer also had the same average score). And all responding non-strategic planning managers felt they were at least "Somewhat Involved" (all the responses on the five-point scale were "1", "2", or "3"). Meanwhile, the average score for non-strategic planning managers was 2.05. Not only was this difference in the expected direction -- that is indicating strategic planning managers were more involved -- analysis of variance showed it was statistically significant at the 0.10-level ($F=3.80$).

This outcome further substantiates the findings of the question concerning the percent of time spent playing the role of change master. Bringing about change is central to strategic planning. It should not be surprising that when asked directly, strategic planning managers believe that they perform this role more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts believe they perform this role. Thus, the process of strategic planning appears to have resulted in the quest to bring about change become part of what provides the *raison d'être* for the administrators and the managers in those localities.

TABLE 12
Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Change Master Role (Q. 41)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	2.011	2.011	3.43*	0.068
Error	88	51.645	0.587		
TOTAL	89	53.656			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	2.0526	0.8366
Yes	52	1.7500	0.7106

NOTES: * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

In conclusion, the evidence suggests that strategic planning managers perceive that they play the role of change master more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts perceive they act as change masters. Strategic planning managers also feel more involved in the role of change master than do non-strategic planning managers. That is ample evidence to reject the null hypothesis for this role, at least on a conditional basis. However, strategic planning managers do not always carry out the tasks associated with the role more often than their non-strategic planning counterparts. Two of the five tasks, altering the short-term outlook and transforming the decision-making process, showed an inverse relationship between the use of strategic planning and the performance of those tasks. The latter task was also the only one of the five in which the difference between the two groups of local government chief executive officers was statistically significant. However, this appears to be a function of the essence of strategic planning. The strategic plan looks at the long-term future. Thus, the short-term outlook might become less of a concern for managers oriented more to strategic planning. The consensus brings about agreement. Therefore, too, changing how decisions are made would not likely be as much of a concern for strategic planning managers. But neither of these can be verified (or denied) by the available data. So to accept or reject the tentative findings of this report, as well as to define better the strategic planning tasks associated with the role of change master, additional research needs to be undertaken.

CONCLUSIONS ABOUT MAIN HYPOTHESES

There is statistically significant support for three of the five hypothesized roles. The leader, accommodator, and change master roles are supported by the data presented. For at least one indicator for each role, the strategic planning managers perceive themselves to play each of these roles more actively than their non-strategic planning counterparts. Meanwhile, neither the informer nor the integrator roles are so supported. The results of the analysis of variance tests that were used to support these conclusions are summarized in Table 13. (The complete statistical analysis for this summary appears in Appendix III).

Overall, the difference in the mean of the percent of work which involved playing the five hypothesized roles is greater for the strategic planning managers than their non-strategic planning counterparts: 36.4 versus 27.3. (see Table 14). Analysis of variance testing shows this difference to be statistically significant at the 0.10-level. This appears to indicate that there is some difference in the way strategic planning managers perceive themselves compared to their non-strategic planning counterparts. In most instances, both groups appear to perform the tasks related to the hypothesized roles approximately the same percentage of the time. However, for all five roles, the percent of work relating to the performance of a role had a higher mean for strategic planning managers. Thus, it appears that the difference between the two groups is not in the actions themselves but in the thought behind the actions. The tasks are part of the larger process more often for strategic planning managers.

TABLE 13
Summary of Analysis of Variances Tests

The following is a summary of the findings from the analysis of variance testing which compared the role perceptions of strategic planning managers with their non-strategic planning counterparts.

<u>Question</u>	<u>Leader</u>	<u>Accommodator</u>	<u>Informer</u>	<u>Integrator</u>	<u>Change Master</u>
Task Q. 1	NSS	(0.05)	(NSS)	(NSS)	NSS
Task Q. 2	NSS	(0.10)	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)
Task Q. 3	NSS	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)	(0.01)
Task Q. 4 [RS]	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS
Task Q. 5	NSS	(NSS)	(NSS)	NSS	NSS
Avg. of Tasks	NSS	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)
Pct. of Time	0.05	0.05	NSS	NSS	0.10
Involvement	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)	(NSS)	0.10

NOTES: [RS] Indicates the response set question.

NSS indicates the findings were not statistically significant.

0.10 indicates the findings were statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

0.05 indicates the findings were statistically significant at the 0.05-level.

0.01 indicates the findings were statistically significant at the 0.01-level.

Parentheses () around the figure indicate the relationship was inverse (in the opposite direction) to what was expected -- i.e., lower scores for strategic planning managers.

TABLE 14
Analysis of Variance on Mean of Task Means (Q32-Q36)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	1729	1729	3.24*	0.075
Error	84	44835	534		
TOTAL	85	46563			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.33	20.85
Yes	50	36.42	24.58

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Conversely, the mean for the level of involvement scores is about equal for the two groups of administrators and managers. For strategic planning managers, the mean of the scores for five roles is 1.96; for their non-strategic planning counterparts it is 1.94. The slightly lower score means non-strategic planning managers see themselves as slightly more involved, although the difference is not statistically significant ($F=0.04$). The resulting picture is the same as what was found for most of the task-related indicators. Although there are differences in the details, both groups of local government chief executive officers appear overall to be involved at about the same level. However, only the strategic planning managers see their involvement as part of a larger process. This finding also could point to the characteristics of strategic planning localities: larger, more resources, shared vision, and consensus on action. The result is overall agreement on what needs to be done and the ability to delegate some of those actions. In such circumstances, it may not be essential for strategic planning managers to be as involved in all aspects of government operations.

Finally, all of this points to the need for additional research. The roles that local government chief executive officers play during strategic planning has not been studied previously. Thus, it is not surprising that some of the results appear to be contradictory. Only through more refined and detailed research efforts may these questions be addressed and will the findings of this research -- that strategic planning managers perform the roles of leader, accommodator, and change master more often than do their non-strategic planning counterparts -- be able to be stated with greater confidence.

SUBHYPOTHESES EXAMINED

In addition to the five main hypotheses, two sets of subhypotheses were examined as part of this research. Both sets were examined only in terms of their effects on the role perceptions of strategic planning managers. The first set of subhypotheses analyzed the influence of the structural characteristics of the localities. The second set of subhypotheses explored the relationship between the stages of the process and executive role perceptions.

These subhypotheses were selected to provide additional insight into the role perceptions of strategic planning managers. Structural characteristics were selected for exploration because the environment in which the process operates is always a germane consideration in strategic planning (Bryson 1988). How the stages of the process related to role perceptions were investigated as the result of an extrapolation of brief discussions on role playing found in the literature (Bryson and Roering 1987; Nutt and Backoff 1987; 1992).

Subhypotheses of Structural Characteristics

The first set of subhypotheses examined the relationships between the role perceptions of the strategic planning managers and the characteristics of the localities in which they served. Several interesting patterns emerged as a result of the analyses performed, primarily related to the effect of the size of the locality on role perceptions.

A total of thirty-eight structural variables were derived from descriptive data requested as part of the survey and from secondary data sources (see Table 15 for a

complete list). Three different categories of structural variables were explored: size, sophistication, and standing. The nineteen size variables described the localities in terms of population, density, growth patterns, budget size, governmental employment, administrative staff and expenditures, and planning staff and expenditures. The twelve sophistication variables described the localities in terms of locality type, form of government, policy process, and level of involvement of staff and citizens. The seven standing variables described the locality in terms of tenure of administrators and managers, time in office for term of elected officials, and turnover of all local government officials.

The null hypothesis used in this portion of the research took the form: *The structural characteristics of a locality undertaking strategic planning has no impact on the perception of the local government chief executive officer on the strategic planning roles he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* Thus, the role perceptions of strategic planning managers (dependent variables) were examined with respect to the three types of structural variables, as well as an all-inclusive grouping of the structural variables (independent variables).

Initially, correlation analysis was performed to investigate whether any relationship existed between forty-two indicators used to characterize the role perceptions of strategic planning managers and the thirty-eight structural variables used to define the localities. This type of analysis was selected because it is the most common test to examine the strength of association between two variables (Ryan and Joiner 1994). In this

TABLE 15
Structural Variables

The following is a list of secondary variables used in analysis of the first set of subhypotheses.

Size -- Nineteen variables

Total (non-school) budget, as reported
Non-School FTEs, as reported
Management staff, as reported
Planning staff, as reported
Local Government Officers
Geographic area
Population density
1980 Census population
1990 Census population
1992 estimated population
Population change 1980 to 1990
Administrative budget
Administrative budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget
Administrative budget per capita
Planning budget
Planning budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget
Planning budget per capita
Total (non-school) budget (from secondary source)
Total (non-school) budget per capita

Sophistication -- Twelve variables

Type of locality
Government organization form, as reported
Term length for elected officials, as reported
Term stagger for elected officials, as reported
Board or council size, as reported
Board or council size (from secondary source)
Elected officials in office now and in office during SPP, as reported
Current elected officials involved in SPP, as reported
Total elected officials involved in SPP, as reported
Number of staff involved in SPP, as reported
Number of citizens involved in SPP, as reported
Number of titles for local government CEO

Standing -- Seven variables

Source of policy, as reported
Tenure of current local government CEO, as reported
Number of CEOs over last 10 years, as reported
Pattern for election districts, as reported
Elected turnover over last 10 years, as reported
Tenure of local government CEO over last six years
Number of CEOs over last six years

NOTES: SPP refers to Strategic Planning Process
 CEOs refers to Local Government Chief Executive Officers
 Unless otherwise stated, information for the structural variables was obtained from secondary sources.

test, the sign indicates the direction of the relationship; a positive sign means a regular relationship where both variables move in the same direction while a negative sign indicates an inverse relationship where one variable moves in one direction and the other moves in the opposite direction. While the test does not delineate the direction of the association, it is assumed that the structural variables influence the role perception indicators. This assumption is made because the structural variables are defining characteristics of the locality. They are part of the environment in which strategic planning managers must operate and, for the most part, these variables are outside of their direct or even indirect control. Conversely, the conditions of the role perception are very much under the control of the strategic planning managers -- they are self-perceptions. And since perceptions can be influenced by external factors in the environment, it was assumed that the role perception indicators are the dependent variables and the structural characteristics are the independent variables in these discussions. Furthermore, since it is thought that increased structural capacity (size, standing, sophistication) increases the ability of strategic planning managers to act in the five hypothesized roles, no inverse relationships are expected with positively-associated variables while inverse relationships would be expected with the variables for the negatively-associated response set tasks.

The analysis resulted in 1,596 separate computations. Out of this total, just ninety of the calculations yielded a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.10 or greater (eighty-one calculations resulted in a Pearson predicted moment correlation coefficient that was

greater than or at least equal to 0.316, while nine yielded a correlation coefficient that was less than or at most equal to -0.316). Thus, in just 5.6 percent of the cases did differences in the structural characteristics of the locality explain at least 10 percent of the differences in the perceptions of the roles strategic planning managers played (see Appendix III for a complete list).

From these tests, some interesting patterns emerged. Of the forty-two role perception indicators, thirty were explicitly influenced by at least one structural variable that dealt with budgetary matters. These included the total administrative budget, the administrative budget per capita, the administrative budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget, the total planning budget, the planning budget per capita, the planning budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget, the total overall (non-school) budget, and the overall (non-school) budget per capita.

Administrative budget variables showed the greatest effect on role perceptions as they affected twenty-five variables. The administrative budget per capita influenced twenty-three of the indicators. The administrative budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget influenced nine indicators. And both structural variables influenced seven role perception indicators, including one relationship which was contrary to the hypothesis:

1. Leader role task of controlling the process (*relationship contrary to hypothesis*)
2. Leader role task of setting an example
3. Accommodation role task of adaptation
4. Integrator role task of linking to the comprehensive plan
5. Integrator role task of linking to operating plans
6. Integrator role task of linking to existent programs

7. Mean for the integrator role task indicators

Overall, this finding suggests that increased spending for management operations is related to strategic planning activities. It appears that additional resources for management make it possible for administrators and managers to concentrate on strategic planning roles instead of the more conventional processes of government. Sometimes, though, additional resources can have unintended consequences such as the increased control of the process by strategic planning managers.

The role perception indicators most affected by the structural variables were those which represented the self-described level of involvement of strategic planning managers in the five hypothesized roles. Thirty-seven of the ninety instances where the coefficient of determination was 0.10 or greater occurred in this group of indicators. The level of involvement for the accommodator role, the integrator role, and the mean of the level of involvement for all roles were each positively influenced by ten structural variables:

1. Total (non-school) budget, as reported,
2. Full-time employees (non-school), as reported
3. Size of planning staff
4. Number of local government officers
5. 1980 Census population
6. 1990 Census population
7. 1992 estimated population
8. Total administration budget
9. Total planning budget
10. Total (non-school) budget

Additionally, the structural variables had a strong influence on other level of involvement indicators as well. The mean level of involvement for all roles was influenced by the planning budget as a percent of the total budget. The level of

involvement for the integrator role was influenced by the amount of citizen involvement. The level of involvement for the accommodator role was influenced by the amount of citizen involvement and the size of the management staff. And the level of involvement for the leader role was influenced by the level of staff involvement, the number of local government officers, and the planning budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget.

These results demonstrate that for strategic planning managers, internal and external characteristics of the environment in which they operate define how much they are able to play certain roles, at least to some degree. These administrators and managers have a full agenda of activities in which they must find time to play their strategic planning roles. Thus, even though the independent effect of each of the structural variables may be small, their cumulative effect could be great and meaningful.

One of the more interesting results of the correlation analysis was that twelve structural variables were found to be related to the role perception indicators of strategic planning managers opposite of what was predicted by the hypothesis and have a coefficient of determination of at least 0.10. Seven of these were role variables associated with the role of integrator, including the relationship between two structural characteristics and the response set variable. The task-related variable for linking new ideas to the future vision of the locality and the average value of the task-related variables for the integrator role were inversely influenced by the reported size of the board or council. The task-related variable of linking new ideas to the comprehensive

plan and the average value of the task-related variables were inversely influenced by the 1980 population of the localities. The task-related variable on linking new ideas to the comprehensive plan was inversely influenced by the number of local government officials. And the response set variable of separating planning and budgets showed an unexpectedly positive relationship with the structural characteristics of tenure, both as reported by strategic planning managers and calculated from secondary sources.

There is a possible explanation for all of these findings: the larger and more complex a locality and its government becomes, the more difficult it becomes for the strategic planning manager to play the role of integrator. With more citizens to be heard, more board or council members requiring attention, and more local government officials with which to collaborate, the integrator role appears to take on lower priority than work to achieve the level of cooperation needed to carry out the normal activities of government. Unifying all of these desires in one vision or one plan becomes increasingly problematic. Also, in localities with higher turnover rates for the local government chief executive officer, other mechanisms may be in place to ensure that the integration role is performed even if the administrator or manager changes.

As noted above, the leader role response set variable of keeping control showed two unexpectedly positive relationships with structural variables. It was positively related to administrative budget per capita and the administrative budget as a percent of the overall (non-school) budget. Once again, this appears to be an area in which greater resources result in greater control for the strategic planning manager.

Along similar lines, it should not be surprising that the structural variable of the reported board or council size negatively influenced four different role perception indicators by a substantial amount. It has a negative influence on the leader role task variable of setting an example and the change master role task variable of creating a setting for change, as well as the two impacts on the role of integrator discussed above. In these instances, the larger the board or council, the lower the percentage of administrators and managers in strategic planning localities perceiving themselves as performing the specified tasks.

The last of the meaningful inverse relationships was not totally unexpected. The type of government was inversely related with the perception of the percent of work time spent in the leadership role. But this result appeared to be a consequence of the method used to assign dummy variables (most complex to least complex: cities = 1; towns = 2; counties = 3). Conversely, the size or scope of the other structural variables increased as their value increased.

Meanwhile, seven structural variables showed a very strong, positive relationship with coefficients of determination of 0.20 or higher (see Table 16). Most common among these structural variables having a strong impact on the role perception indicators, were those that described the administrative budget. The administrative budget per capita had a substantial impact on four variables: the task-related question on reviewing trends in the role of informer, the average of the task-related set of questions for the role of integrator, the percent of work time spent in the role of integrator, and the average

TABLE 16
Correlation Analysis Results

The following is a list of all of the correlation analysis results which yielded a Coefficient of Determination (R^2) of 0.200 or greater.

<u>Role Perception Variable</u>	<u>Structural Variable</u>	<u>R²</u>
Informer: Reviewing Trends	Admin. Budget Per Capita	0.228
Informer: Avg. of Tasks	Admin. Budget Per Capita	0.239
Integrator: Operating Links	Admin. Budget Per Capita	0.235
Informer: Pct. of Work Time	Admin. Budget Per Capita	0.263
Change Master: Pct. of Work Time	Staff Involvement	0.243
Average of Pct. of Work Time	Admin. budget Per Capita	0.227
Change Master: Involvement	Planning Staff	0.323

of the percent of work time spent playing all five roles. Along the same lines, the structural variable depicting the administrative budget as a percent of the total (non-school) budget was strongly associated with the task-related question on linking new ideas to operating plans for the role of integrator.

The other two structural variables that showed this strong relationship dealt with the staff of the organization and both greatly influenced the role of change master. The amount of staff involvement affected the percent of work time spent in the role of change master by strategic planning managers. The size of the planning staff affected the level of involvement by strategic planning managers in the role of change master. This would seem to indicate that staff assistance is necessary for a strategic planning manager to function as a change master.

Overall, structural variables dealing with staff and funding levels were the most influential on the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers. These relationships were predominately positive in direction. The leadership role tended to be influenced mostly by the size of staff and the size of the budget. The accommodator role tended to be influenced by the size of the budget. The informational role tended to be influenced also by the size of the budget. The integrator role tended to be influenced most by the size of staff and the size of the budget and inversely influenced by the stability of the government -- the only perceived role to show such an influence. Finally, the change master role tended to be influenced mostly by the size of staff and the size of the budget. These results should come as no surprise. They indicate that the more

resources available to a strategic planning manager, the more he or she is able to act in the roles of a strategic planning manager. This is because the greater staff and funding levels reduce (or even eliminate) the problems associated with resource scarcity, freeing administrators and managers from those operational functions. Furthermore, the additional resources enable the delegation of certain operating tasks, permitting administrators and managers to concentrate on their strategic planning roles. However, this point has some unexpected complexity for it can be inferred from research presented earlier in this study that the delegation often extends to tasks which have been commonly associated with the strategic planning process itself.

The next step was to examine the potential effects of groups of structural variables, both individually and in total, on the role perception indicators. To that end, multiple stepwise regression analysis was performed (Smith 1985; Monk 1991). Subsets of both types of variables -- structural characteristics and role perception indicators -- were constructed for this analysis.

The subset of the structural variables was selected based upon accuracy of the data (i.e., data from secondary sources were used where it existed) and the meaning of the data (i.e., data used were the most recent or had the most explanatory power). The result was a set of twenty-one structural variables to be used as the independent variables in the regression analysis (see Table 17 for a list). Eight pertained to size attributes, six to sophistication aspects, and seven to standing characteristics of the localities.

The dependent variables were a subset of the role perception descriptors of

TABLE 17
Regression Variables

Size -- Eight variables

Management staff as reported
Planning staff as reported
Population density in 1990
1992 population estimates
Administrative spending per capita (FY 1992-93)
Planning and development spending per capita (FY 1992-93)
Total (non-school) spending per capita (FY 1992-93)
Number of local government officials in 1994

Sophistication -- Six variables

Governmental form as reported
Type of government
Length of term of elected officials
Stagger of term of elected officials
Board or council size (from *Va. Review Directory*)
Number of titles of administrator or managers (from *Va. Review Directory*)

Standing -- Seven variables

Source of policy initiative in locality
Tenure of current administrator or manager
Number of persons serving as administrator or manager in last 10 years
Pattern of election to board or council
Turnover on board or council over last 10 years
Tenure of current CEO over last six years (from *Va. Review Directory*)
Number of CEOs over last six years (from *Va. Review Directory*)

NOTES: CEO refers to chief executive officer (administrator or manager)
Va. Review Directory refers to the *Virginia Review Directory of Local and State Government*.

strategic planning managers. Fifteen variables were used -- three for each of the five hypothesized roles. They were the average scores for the task-related questions for each role, the percent of work involving playing each role, and the level of involvement reported in each role.

The analysis included four types of calculations on each of the fifteen role perception indicators: structural variables for size, structural variables for sophistication, structural variables for standing, and a superset using all of the structural variables. As a result, sixty different regressions were calculated. In the stepwise regressions, a statistical software package added or removed variables from the equation as it searched for the combination of variables which yielded the highest correlation of determination (R^2). Only those variables which had an F-score of 2.0 or above for a particular role perception indicator were considered for use in these computer-selected models. This value was selected to permit the inclusion of all possible variables which had any meaningful influence on the equation. Additionally, a forward selection process was used. Once a variable was added to the regression equation, it remained in the equation, regardless of what effect the addition of other variables to the equation might have on its F-score (Minitab 1991).

The stepwise regressions yielded just one instance where the coefficient of determination was greater than 0.50. The only regression equation generated which explained more than half the change in the role perceptions of strategic planning managers regressed the percent of work time spent in the role of leader against the entire

superset of twenty-one structural variables. It had an R^2 of 0.5822.

Overall, fifteen of the stepwise regression equations had an R^2 greater than 0.3333 -- explaining at least one-third of the change in the role perceptions. Nine of these equations utilized the superset as well, while the other six only used the size-based structural variables (see Tables 18 and 19 for the regression equations):

Using the superset of all variables:

1. Average score for task-related questions for role of leader
2. Average score for task-related questions for role of accommodator
3. Average score for task-related questions for role of informer
4. Average score for task-related questions for role of integrator
5. Percent of work time spent playing the role of leader
6. Percent of work time spent playing role of informer
7. Percent of work time spent playing role of integrator
8. Percent of work time spent playing role of change master
9. Level of involvement in role of integrator

Using size-based structural variables:

10. Average score for task-related questions for role of leader
11. Average score for task-related questions for role of informer
12. Average score for task-related questions for role of integrator
13. Percent of work time spent playing role of leader
14. Percent of work time spent playing role of integrator
15. Level of involvement in role of integrator.

Once again, it is important to recognize that the role of integrator was the most affected by structural variables. All six of the six equations which examined that role had a coefficient of determination of at least one-third and five had an R^2 of at least 0.40. Also, as previously noted, the role of accommodator was the least affected by structural variables. Only one of the equations which examined that role had a coefficient of determination greater than one-third and no R^2 for the role was greater than 0.40.

TABLE 18
Stepwise Regression Equations Using All Structural Variables

Mean Task Scores for Leader	(R ² =0.4470)
54.70 +1.61*(Size of Management Staff)	-0.0001*(Population Density)
+2.6*(Number of Titles Held by CEO)	+0.269*(Admin. Spending P/C)
-0.31*(Planning Spending P/C)	-3.3*(Board/Council Size)
-2.8*(Source of Policy Direction†)	
Mean Task Scores for Accommodator	(R ² =0.3781)
55.67 +0.404*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-0.37*(Planning Spending P/C)
+1.22*(Size of Management Staff)	-12.7*(Election Term Stagger†)
-0.31*(Size of Planning Staff)	
Mean Task Scores for Informer	(R ² =0.4759)
47.57 +0.578*(Admin. Spending P/C/)	-0.43*(Planning Spending P/C)
-2.8*(Number of CEOs Last 10 Years)	+0.59*(Size of Management Staff)
-2.6*(Board/Council Size)	
Mean Task Scores for Integrator	(R ² =0.4899)
41.27 +0.441*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-0.43*(Planning Spending P/C)
+3.2*(Source of Policy Direction†)	-2.6*(Board/Council Size)
+0.72*(Size of Management Staff)	-0.25*(Size of Planning Staff)
Percent of Work Time as Leader	(R ² =0.5822)
21.747+0.419*(Admin. Spending P/C)	+2.44*(Size of Management Staff)
-0.48*(Size of Planning Staff)	-14.8*(Form of Government†)
+2.33*(Tenure of Local Gov't CEO)	-4.6*(Board/Council Size)
+9.7*(Number of CEOs Last Six Years)	
Percent of Work Time as Informer	(R ² =0.4174)
31.575+0.64*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-5.2*(Titles Held by CEO)
-0.36*(Planning Spending P/C)	-12.7*(Election Term Stagger†)
Percent of Work Time as Integrator	(R ² =0.4663)
18.92 +0.50*(Admin. Spending P/C)	+1.92*(Size of Management Staff)
-0.64*(Size of Planning)	-4.2*(Titles Held by CEO)
-0.31*(Planning Spending P/C)	
Percent of Work Time as Change Master	(R ² =0.4956)
42.767+2.11*(Size of Management Staff)	+0.43*(Admin. Spending P/C)
-7.5*(Board/Council Size)	+8.9*(Elected Body Turnover†)
-9.2*(Form of Government)	-3.6*(Titles Held by CEO)
-0.35*(Size of Planning Staff)	
Level of Involvement as Integrator	(R ² =0.4666)
1.276 +0.0235*(Size of Planning Staff)	-0.00022*(Population Density)
+0.0114*(Planning Spending P/C)	+0.15*(Elected Body Turnover†)

NOTES: Negative coefficients appear in italics.
P/C refers to Per Capita.
Admin. refers to Administration.
Gov't refers to Government.
CEO refers to Local Government Chief Executive Officer.
† Indicates a "Dummy" Variable Used in the Regression.

TABLE 19
Stepwise Regression Equations Using Size-Based Structural Variables

Mean Task Scores for Leader	(R ² =0.3345)
32.26 +1.36*(Size of Management Staff)	-0.0004*(Population Density)
+0.28*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-0.37*(Planning Spending P/C)
Mean Task Scores for Informer	(R ² =0.3686)
33.47 +0.477*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-0.32*(Planning Spending P/C)
Mean Task Scores for Integrator	(R ² =0.4172)
35.76 +0.420*(Admin. Spending P/C)	-0.44*(Planning Spending P/C)
+0.80*(Size of Management Staff)	-0.25*(Size of Planning Staff)
Percent of Work Time for Leader	(R ² =0.4401)
-15.813+0.45*(Admin. Spending P/C)	+1.57*(Size of Management Staff)
-0.77*(Size of Planning Staff)	+0.79*(Number Gov't Officials)
Percent of Work Time for Integrator	(R ² =0.3818)
-4.636+0.38*(Admin. Spending P/C)	+2.02*(Size of Management Staff)
-0.69*(Size of Planning Staff)	
Level of Involvement as Integrator	(R ² =0.4376)
1.764 +0.0261*(Size of Planning Staff)	-0.00023*(Population Density)
+0.0086*(Planning Spending P/C)	

NOTES: Negative coefficients appear in *italics*.
P/C refers to Per Capita.
Admin. refers to Administration.
Gov't refers to Government.

Meanwhile, more than half of the proposed regressions for the structural variables which dealt with sophistication and standing were not computed because no variable met the required criteria for inclusion into the equation (an F-score of 2.0 or above). For those calculations that were done, not one of the resultant equations had a coefficient of determination of 20 percent or above.

The most common structural variables found in the stepwise regressions dealt with the size of the local government: spending per capita and staffing level for the management function (administration) of the local government and spending per capita and staffing level for the planning function of the local government.

The spending per capita on administration had a meaningful positive relationship in ten of the equations. These equations examined the average task scores and the percent of work time spent playing each of the five hypothesized roles. Conversely, it had a meaningful negative relationship on the level of involvement by the local government chief executive officer in the role of informer (see Table 20 for a complete list). Along similar lines, the size of the management staff had a meaningful positive relationship in eight equations -- all examining either the average of the task scores for a role or the percent of work involved in that role while it had a meaningful negative relationship on the level of involvement by the local government chief executive officer in the role of change master. These findings occurred both in the size-based regressions and the regressions using the superset of all structural variables. This demonstrates that more support for the managerial or administrative functions of government could result

TABLE 20
Administrative/Managerial Functions and Role Perceptions

SPENDING PER CAPITA:

Positive Relationships:

Leader: Avg. of Tasks
 Accommodator: Avg. of Tasks
 Informer: Avg. of Tasks
 Integrator: Avg. of Tasks
 Change Master: Avg. of Tasks
 Leader: Pct. of Work Time
 Accommodator: Pct. of Work Time
 Informer: Pct. of Work Time
 Integrator: Pct. of Work Time
 Change Master: Pct. of Work Time

Negative Relationships:

Informer: Level of Involvement
 --

SIZE OF STAFF:

Positive Relationships:

Leader: Avg. of Tasks
 Accommodator: Avg. of Tasks
 --
 Integrator: Avg. of Tasks
 Change Master: Avg. of Tasks
 Leader: Pct. of Work Time
 Accommodator: Pct. of Work Time
 --
 Integrator: Pct. of Work Time
 Change Master: Pct. of Work Time

Negative Relationships:

--
 Change Master: Level of Involvement

in the strategic planning manager taking a more active role in performing the functions of strategic planning. However, the performance of these tasks also may cause the strategic planning manager to become too caught up in the details of the process. This can be seen by the inverse relationship between support for the managerial/administrative function of government and the perceived level of involvement in the process by the strategic planning manager.

On the other hand, the size of the planning staff and spending per capita had a negative impact in equations that examined the work related topics of task average for each role and amount of work time spent in each role. In the equations using only size variables, the size of the planning staff had a negative relationship with the role perceptions six times and the planning spending per capita had a negative relationship with the role perceptions four times (see Table 21 for a complete list). When the entire superset of structural variables was used, the spending per capita for planning had a negative impact on the perceived roles played by administrators and managers in six equations while the size of the planning staff had a negative impact in five equations. Meanwhile, in both instances, the meaningful positive relationships came when examining the perceived level of involvement by the strategic planning managers. From this, it appears that increased support for the planning function of government decreases the work load of the chief executive officer in strategic planning but also causes them to feel more attached to the entire process, possibly through increased oversight responsibilities and/or opportunities.

Two non-size structural variables were also commonly found in the stepwise regression equations: the size of the elected body and the number of titles held by the local government chief executive officer. An inverse relationship was found between the board or council size and the performance of tasks in the strategic planning process, both in the average task scores for the roles and in the percent of work time spent in the different roles. This appears to be logical conclusion since a larger board or council requires more work on the part of the administrator or manager, if for no other reason than because there are more individuals with whom the strategic planning manager must work. That would leave less time available for other tasks, such as strategic planning.

The other non-size structural variable related to the number of titles reported to be held by the local government chief executive officer. In many localities, it is not uncommon for the administrator or manager to "wear more than one hat." Tasks commonly associated with the chief executive include economic development director, public safety director, personnel director, and finance director (*Virginia Review* 1994). However, just as was the case above, doing too many other activities can lead to little time for strategic planning tasks. The more responsibility the strategic planning manager has for other separate programs, the less time the manager has to spend on strategic planning. This can be seen in an inverse relationship between the number of titles and the percent of work time reported spent playing the various strategic planning roles.

The results of these regressions demonstrate that structure is related to the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers, as long as structure means size.

TABLE 21
Planning Functions and Role Perceptions

SPENDING PER CAPITA:

Positive Relationships:

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Informer: Level of Involvement

Integrator: Level of Involvement

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Negative Relationships:

Leader: Avg. of Tasks

Accommodator: Avg. of Tasks

Informer: Avg. of Tasks

Integrator: Avg. of Tasks

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SIZE OF STAFF:

Positive Relationships:

Accommodator: Level of Involvement

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Integrator: Level of Involvement

Change Master: Level of Involvement

Negative Relationships:

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Integrator: Avg. of Tasks

Change Master: Avg. of Tasks

Leader: Pct. of Work Time

Accommodator: Pct. of Work Time

Integrator: Pct. of Work Time

Change Master: Pct. of Work Time

The staff size and spending per capita for administration and the staff size and spending per capita for planning relate directly to the size of the local government. But even the two structural variables measuring sophistication which were common to the stepwise regression equations are a factor of size. The size of the board or council serves to define the size of the legislative branch of the local government. The number of titles held by the chief executive officer demonstrates how some localities work to maintain smaller government staffs while providing desired services.

It may be that being larger can be both a benefit and a detriment to strategic planning. It all depends on where that size exists. A larger management staff or budget could result in increased freedom for the chief executive officer to pursue strategic planning activities. A larger planning staff or budget could enhance the ability of the local government chief executive officer to delegate tasks and thus remove himself/herself from the routine operation of strategic planning and instead serve as a mentor to and a master of the process. And a larger legislative function or a larger operations responsibility for strategic planning managers could lead to decreased opportunity for the manager to participate in the process because of a lack of time available.

Thus from the results of the analysis performed here, the null hypothesis that structural variables have no effect on the role perception of strategic planning managers can be conditionally rejected for all structural variables in general and for size-based structural variables in particular. There was not evidence to reject the hypothesis for structural variables dealing with sophistication or standing. To confirm or refute these

findings, additional research is needed in this area.

Subhypothesis on Stages in the Process

While the relationships between structural variables and role perception indicators were shown to be somewhat obvious, the relationships between stages in the process and role perception indicators are far less apparent. The null hypothesis for this portion of the research took the form: *The stages of the process has no impact on the perception of the local government chief executive officer on the strategic planning roles he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.* The stages of the process were defined from the model offered by Bryson (1988). They were considered to be the independent variable as progress in the process was thought to influence role perceptions, the dependent variable in the analysis.

In an effort to investigate this set of subhypotheses, forty-five additional questions were put to strategic planning managers as part of the questionnaire. These requested information on what percent of the time each of the five roles were played at each stage of the strategic planning process. Of the fifty-three administrators and managers who reported that their localities had undertaken strategic planning, between twenty-eight and forty responded to these questions on when roles were played in the process (not every respondent answered every question).

Several statistical tests were conducted using this data as well as other data collected from the questionnaire. The first of the tests was an analysis of variance on the responses from the questions about roles played at different stages of the strategic

planning process. This test was selected to determine the significance of the difference of the means between two groups (Andrews et al. 1981). Several general trends emerged. As the process progressed, the time spent playing the roles of leader and informer decreased while the time spent playing the role of accommodator increased. The time spent playing the role of integrator stayed nearly constant throughout the process. And the time spent playing the role of change master varied, increasing and decreasing at different stages but with no clear pattern emerging. The results showed no significant difference between the role perceptions at any stage of the planning process. The F-score for each of the five analyses was below 1.0 (see Appendix III for complete results).

Next, correlation analysis was performed on each of the five roles to determine the predictive power of the stages in the planning process with respect to the role perception of strategic planning managers (Smith 1985). The percent of the time the local government chief executive officers spent was regressed against the stages of the strategic planning process. In the correlations which resulted, the Pearson correlation coefficient for the leader role was negative -- indicating an inverse relationship -- while the coefficient for the other four roles was positive. But in each case, the value for the coefficient of determination was less than 0.01 (see Appendix III for complete results).

Finally, analysis of variance was used to re-examine data collected in the first section of the questionnaire with the intent of looking at the strategic relationship between stages in the process and the role perception indicators. These tests were selected

because they could examine relationships between two variables (Smith 1985; Monk 1991; Ryan and Joiner 1994). The information collected about the stage where each locality was in the planning process was tested against the variables which described the role perceptions of managers and administrators. In these analyses, only one variable showed a statistically significant difference (at the 0.10-level) in the values for the role perceptions based upon the reported stage of the process: the percent of work time spent in the change master role. (See Table 22). From this it can be concluded that each stage of the process requires that the strategic planning manager play this role differently.

However, this analysis was plagued by the uneven distribution of the cases throughout the different stages. Almost half of the strategic planning managers reported having completed the process. Conversely, no strategic planning manager reported being at the second step (identifying what is legally required) or the fourth step (examining external opportunities and threats), only one reported being at the fifth step (examining internal strengths and weaknesses), and only two reported being at the initial step (reaching an agreement to plan).

In an effort to alleviate this problem, additional analysis of variance was performed with two groups of aggregated data. The first analysis divided the processes into three parts: preparation, synthesis, and implementation. The preparation part included the first five stages in the Bryson (1988) model (as well as abandoned efforts) while the synthesis part included the last three stages. This division was selected because

TABLE 22
ANOVA on Stage in the Process on Percent of Work as Change Master

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STAGE	7	9972	1425	1.92	0.092*
Error	39	28873	740		
TOTAL	46	38845			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
0	3	53.33	5.77
1	2	5.00	0.00
2	0	-----	-----
3	5	23.00	20.49
4	0	-----	-----
5	1	100.00	0.00
6	7	34.71	27.61
7	5	19.00	18.17
8	4	41.25	24.62
9	20	41.75	31.97

NOTES : * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

the first five steps in the model examine information while the final three (identifying strategic issues, developing strategies, and describing organizational futures) use that information to create the strategic plan. The second analysis divided the cases into not completed efforts (on-going as well as abandoned) and completed efforts.

When examined as a three-part process, there was a significant difference at the 0.10-level in two items. The informer role task of examining strengths and weaknesses decreased significantly as the process moved forward (see Table 23). Similarly, the average task score for the role of integrator decreased significantly as the process proceeded (see Table 24).

A total of six variables showed significant differences when the role perceptions of strategic planning managers were examined based upon whether or not they had completed the planning process. Four showed decreased activity in the hypothesized roles once the process was completed. The differences found in the informer role task of examining strengths and weaknesses and the average task score for the role of integrator were significant at the 0.05-level (see Tables 25 and 26). The differences found in the average task score for the role of informer and the integrator task of linking strategic plans and operating plans were significant at the 0.10-level (see Tables 27 and 28). Conversely, two variables showed a significant relationship at the 0.10-level in the positive direction: the level of involvement in the role of leader and the average of the level of involvement scores for all five roles (see Tables 29 and 30).

Together, this analysis demonstrates that there is some shift in the role perception

TABLE 23
ANOVA on Part in Process on Task of Examining Strengths & Weaknesses

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
PT./PROCESS	2	4333	2167	2.54*	0.090
Error	45	38379	853		
TOTAL	47	42712			

PART IN PROCESS	N	MEAN	STDEV
preparation	11	66.82	26.29
synthesis	15	63.33	27.43
implementation	22	45.91	31.57

NOTES: * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

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TABLE 24
ANOVA on Part in Process on Average Task Score for Integrator Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
PT./PROCESS	2	2214	1107	3.05*	0.058
ERROR	44	15975	363		
TOTAL	46	18189			

PART IN PROCESS	N	MEAN	STDEV
preparation	10	71.00	16.95
synthesis	15	60.49	18.85
implementation	22	53.18	20.02

NOTES: * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

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MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 25
ANOVA on Status of Process on Task of Examining Strengths & Weaknesses

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STATUS	1	4256	4256	5.09**	0.029
Error	46	38456	836		
TOTAL	47	42712			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	26	64.81	26.48
completed	22	45.91	31.57

NOTES : ** indicates statistically significant at the 0.05-level.

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SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 26
ANOVA on Status of Process on Average Task Score for Integrator Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STATUS	1	1551	1551	4.20**	0.046
Error	45	16638	370		
TOTAL	46	18189			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	25	64.70	18.51
completed	22	53.18	20.02

NOTES: **indicates statistically significant at the 0.05-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 27
ANOVA on Status of Process on Average Task Score for Informer Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STATUS	1	1301	1301	2.93*	0.094
Error	45	19975	444		
TOTAL	46	21276			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	25	63.95	19.64
completed	22	53.41	22.59

NOTES : * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 28
ANOVA on Status of Process on Task of Linking to Operating Plans

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STATUS	1	2942	2942	3.24*	0.079
Error	45	40841	908		
TOTAL	46	43783			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	25	60.40	28.21
completed	22	44.55	32.18

NOTES: * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 29
ANOVA on Status of Process on Leader Role Level of Involvement

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STATUS	1	1.709	1.709	3.45*	0.069
Error	47	23.271	0.495		
TOTAL	48	24.980			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	27	1.8519	0.6624
completed	22	2.2273	0.7516

NOTES : * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

TABLE 30
ANOVA on Status of Process on Average Level of Involvement for All Roles

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
STATUS	1	0.823	0.823	2.84*	0.099
Error	47	13.644	0.290		
TOTAL	48	14.467			

STATUS	N	MEAN	STDEV
not completed	27	1.8667	0.5054
completed	22	2.1273	0.5775

NOTES: * indicates statistically significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

of strategic planning managers, depending upon the progress of the strategic planning process. The result is a pair of seemingly contradictory findings. As the strategic planning process moves forward, strategic planning managers appear to play a less active role in the performance of specific tasks associated with the process. Simultaneously, they appear to feel they become more involved in the process, specifically in providing leadership. This should not be as surprising as it sounds though. What it demonstrates is that strategic planning managers start the process and have to play an active role in its formative stages. Then, once strategic planning has become a distinct part of the organization, the managers can be less active in roles and more involved in providing oversight, guidance, and direction. These differences are similar to those found in the provision of resources for management and planning functions of government. As discussed above, greater resources for management increases the perception of the strategic planning manager on how much he/she performs certain tasks while greater resources for planning increases the perceived level of involvement.

All of these tests point to the same conclusion: meaningful relationships appear to exist between the stages in the strategic planning process and the perceived roles played by local government managers. However, the lack of data about on-going strategic planning processes makes it impossible to reject or to accept the null hypothesis for this portion of the research. Since it is reasonable to expect that significant relationships exist between the stages in the planning process and the role perceptions of strategic planning managers, additional research is needed to clarify those relationships.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

SUMMARY

This study has examined the roles that local government chief executive officers perceive themselves as playing in the strategic planning process. It was undertaken because the public sector literature has been virtually silent on this subject. Only two sets of scholars have even discussed the question. Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992) listed four roles to be played by executives in the process: analyst/technician, facilitator, teacher, and politician. Meanwhile, Bryson and Roering (1987) called for strategic planners to have a hybrid role -- part technician, part politician.

No systematic research into the subject of roles had been undertaken previously. This study was designed to fill this void in the literature. Initially, the literature on strategic planning, both in the public sector and in the private sector, was reviewed. Once this was concluded, five hypothesized roles were developed for testing: leader, accommodator, informer, integrator, and change master. The main hypotheses tested were null hypotheses which followed the same format: *The undertaking of strategic planning has no impact on the perception of local government chief executive officer on the (specific) role he/she plays when dealing with new initiatives in the locality.*

Additionally, two sets of subhypotheses were also developed. The first set examined the relationship between structural variables -- size, sophistication, standing -- and the perceived roles played by local government chief executive officers. The second

set analyzed the relationship between the stages in the planning process and the role perceptions of the administrators and managers. Again, null hypotheses were created for testing purposes.

Data collection was accomplished via a survey of 168 local government chief executive officers in Virginia during the summer of 1994. The survey was divided into two sections. The first had fifty-five questions and was to be answered by executives in all localities. The section was broken into three parts, addressing the status of strategic planning in the locality, the tasks performed and roles played by administrators and managers when dealing with new initiatives, and the background of the locality and its governmental system. The second section contained an additional fifty-one questions and was designed to be completed only by those administrators and managers in localities which had undertaken strategic planning. It had two parts. The first part collected information about the degree to which each of the five hypothesized roles were played at each stage of the process. The second collected additional background information on how the strategic planning process was carried out in the locality.

Ninety-eight local government chief executive officers returned the survey. This included five who returned blank surveys indicating they were not in a position to provide the requested information. That left ninety-three surveys that were at least partially completed for analysis -- a 55.4 percent response rate.

The data from the surveys was entered into a spreadsheet. Additional information from secondary sources was added to allow comparisons for all localities (respondents

and non-respondents) as well as to supplement and verify the responses from the questionnaire. Statistical analysis, including analysis of variance, correlation, and regression, was then done using a software package. This included analysis of variance testing, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis, as well as the computation of basic descriptive statistics for all the variables collected.

The statistical tests showed expected relationships between the role perception indicators and the status of strategic planning in the locality for all five of the hypothesized roles. But only three of the roles -- leader, accommodator, and change master -- showed statistically significant differences between strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts. The leadership and accommodation roles showed a significant difference at the 0.05-level between the groups on the percent of work time local government chief executives spent playing those roles. The role of change master showed statistically significant difference at the 0.10-level between the groups on the percent of work time spent playing that role and the level of involvement in the role.

There were only two other statistically significant differences and both were unexpected inverse relationships. The tasks more commonly performed by non-strategic planning managers were the accommodator role task of adaptation (significant at the 0.05-level) and the change master role of working to alter the decision-making processes of the board or council (significant at the 0.01-level).

Among the two sets of subhypotheses, only the structural variables which dealt

with the size of the locality and its government showed any statistical significance. The analysis of variance from the all-inclusive regressions showed a statistically significant difference caused by the size-based structural variables in most instances. Of the fifteen tests run, eleven showed significance at the 0.05-level. Included in this were the averages of the scores for the task-related variables for all five hypothesized roles and the percent of work time spent playing each of the five hypothesized roles. Additionally, two other tests showed a significance at the 0.10-level. Whatever relationship exists between the sophistication and the standing of the locality (and its government) and the role perceptions of the administrators and managers was so small as not to be statistically significant. Additionally, there was only limited support for the second subhypothesis which dealt with the relationship between the stages of the strategic planning process and the role perceptions of the local government chief executive officers.

IMPLICATIONS

These results have several implications for administrators and managers involved in the strategic planning process in their localities.

I. All local government chief executive officers perceive that they act as strategic managers.

Both the strategic planning managers and their non-strategic planning counterparts held perceptions that were very similar on almost every measure examined in this study. These managers appear to be the "differentiated" manager who is neither a specialist nor

a generalist (Ansoff 1976), the strategic manager who is a combination of the general manager, the entrepreneur, the organizational entrepreneur, and the managers for change (Rawles and Rawles 1976), or the "bee" who uses both experience and reason to reach a decision (Bartee 1976). This should not be surprising since it was predicted that these new-style managers would emerge from the old type of manager and possess many of the characteristics of the old type of manager (Ansoff 1976; Rawles and Rawles 1976). From the context of predictions about management change in the book *From Strategic Planning to Strategic Management*, it can be inferred that the practice of strategic planning and management was to be the catalyst for that managerial transition. However, these findings indicate that local government chief executive officers have reached that advanced stage, regardless of whether their locality has undertaken strategic planning.

This may indicate that the difference between localities (and organizations) which use and do not use strategic planning has become *passé*. It appears that many of the activities that are associated with strategic planning have become regular activities of management. If this is indeed true, then this study, instead of measuring the incidence of strategic planning, in fact examined characteristics of the concept of general management. Because of this development, it may be time to revisit the concept of strategic planning (and management) and ascertain if it is still a separate topic for discussion or if it has now become a standard function of management (and management planning).

II. Support offered for previous suppositions of roles found in the literature.

The perceptions of the local government chief executive officers provide statistically significant support for the roles of leader, accommodator, and change master. A fourth role, integrator, was most affected by the structural characteristics of the locality, and because of this may be meaningful in some instances. These four roles also serve to support the normative propositions offered by Bryson and Roering (1987) and Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992) about what roles the government chief executive should play during the strategic planning process. This is particularly true when the roles are examined in pairs.

The first pair involves the leader and change master roles. This is analogous to the role of the "politician" as described by Bryson and Roering (1987). Or they could be considered to be the roles of teacher and politician delineated by Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992). In either case, when playing these two roles, the local government chief executive officer seeks to bring about change and/or lead the effort for change in the locality. It was in these roles that the perceptions of administrators and managers in strategic planning localities most strongly differed from the perceptions of their non-strategic planning counterparts. Furthermore, both roles involved visioning. That may be the reason these roles had similar values for the percent of work time spent in each, the level of involvement of the strategic planning manager, and in the degree to which they were affected by structural variables.

The second pairing involves the accommodator and integrator roles. This would

be the role of the "technician" in the dichotomy outlined by Bryson and Roering (1987). Or they could be considered to be the roles of the analyst/technician and the facilitator in the system put forth by Nutt and Backoff (1987; 1992). Either way, when playing these two roles the local government chief executive officer seeks to make change work in and/or fit the needs of the locality. These roles had tasks assigned to them that were similar and this was reflected in the pattern of responses. Yet, although the tasks were similar, the roles were dissimilar in how they were affected by structural variables. One role, accommodator, was a constant in strategic planning while the other role, integrator, was performed when additional functions were needed to continue the process. This may indicate that integration is a type of accommodation. Thus, the role of the local government chief executive officer in the strategic planning process could be summarized as "making change happen" and "making change work."

III. Size makes a difference in how strategic planning roles are perceived.

The size characteristics of the locality and the local government affected the role perceptions of local government managers involved in strategic planning. These included the population density, the administrative budget and (management) employment, planning budget and employment, total local government budget and employment (non-school), and number of government officials.

The strongest effects seem to come from the size of the management and planning staffs. Ironically, though, the relationships are not in the same direction. Simply put, the more staffing and funding there is for *management* functions, the more the manager

performs the tasks associated with strategic planning. Conversely, the more staffing and funding for *planning* purposes, the more active the strategic planning manager is in the preparation and oversight of the strategic planning process. Thus, in cases where a locality is undertaking strategic planning, a local government administrator or manager who wants to play a more active role in the tasks associated with the strategic planning process should seek ways to increase support for other management activities. However, this can lead to a decrease in the overall level of involvement in the process since specific tasks are stressed instead of the overall plan. Meanwhile, a local government executive who wants to take a more active role in the oversight of the strategic planning process should find ways to increase support for planning activities which would enable the delegation of planning tasks but increase the perceived level of overall involvement in the process.

Other structural characteristics of the locality hypothesized as being possibly significant that were examined in this research were found not to matter when studying the roles administrators and managers perceived themselves as playing in the strategic planning process. The sophistication and standing of the local government, as they have been defined in this study, appeared to be of limited importance as to how the chief executive officers saw themselves. The only two variables that consistently showed any meaningful relationship to the role perception of strategic planning managers were the sophistication measures of the size of the elected body and the number of titles held by the chief executive officer. And, as discussed above, both of these measures are affected

by the size of local government operations.

If an administrator or manager moves from one locality to another of similar size, he/she should be able to perform very similar tasks when involved in the strategic planning process. This is true, in part because the strategic planning process everywhere demands that certain similar functions be performed. However, the research also showed that characteristics such as the length of time the local government chief executive has been in office, the structure and operation of the local board or council, the tenure of the board or council members, whether the locality is a city, a county, or a town appear to have limited impact, at best, on the degree that strategic planning managers perform certain tasks in the planning process.

It should be noted though that how these tasks are performed may vary greatly from locality to locality. The style in which these tasks would be accomplished was not examined in this research. Nor were many of the environmental factors that could have an effect on how strategic planning tasks would be performed, such as the status of the local economy, political scene, or culture and tradition, considered.

IV. Only time will tell if the role is the role is the role.

To administrators and managers, the stage at which the strategic planning process is at, for the most part, does not matter when they examine what roles they play. In most instances, the local government chief executive officer is going to perceive that he or she is playing each of the hypothesized roles basically the same way at each stage of the process.

But there are some meaningful exceptions to this. The role of change master showed a statistically significant difference in how it was played at each stage of the process. While the differences were significant, there was no pattern to them. When the data was aggregated because of the uneven distribution of responses (almost half of the respondents had completed the strategic planning process), several patterns emerged. The percent of time reported performing tasks associated with the roles of informer and integrator decreases as the process moves forward. Conversely, the perceived level of involvement, particularly for the role of leader, increases. This may indicate that strategic planning begins as a process of performing tasks to create a plan and ends as a process of overseeing the implementation of what has been outlined in the plan.

Common sense would seem to indicate that some roles are played more at a particular stage or stages of the process and less at other stages. However, there is not yet enough data to support this conjecture. Thus, administrators and managers should follow their instincts during strategic planning and not try to predetermine how much they should be playing each role at each stage of the process. The strategic planning managers should define how they wish to play their roles in the process and be ready to adjust those roles when it is necessary.

This research indicated that certain roles are endemic to the strategic planning process. The forethought involved in acting in these roles, and not just performing the tasks associated with them, is what separates strategic planning managers from their non-strategic planning counterparts. Thus, the prudent course of action would be for strategic

planning managers to act as leaders, accommodators, and change masters throughout the process. Changes in the degree to which the managers play these roles should be the result of progress in the strategic planning process and not any external factors.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research was limited in its scope and exploratory in cast. As discussed above, the role perceptions of local government chief executive officers are not the definitive word on the roles actually played by administrators and managers in the strategic planning process because there can be a difference between what individuals perceive as happening and what actually happens. That fact limited the utility and generalizability of this research, but no more than any other research effort which relied on a survey instrument for data collection and asked respondents about their actions. But it was also a useful excellent place to begin the search for that information.

This study also assumed that the person who actually completed the survey instrument was the administrator or manager of the locality. Only one instance was known where the questionnaire was completed by someone other than an administrator or manager. In that instance, the only questions answered were informational responses. No question that called for the opinion or perception of the local government chief executive officer was completed.

The survey instrument was further limited by the definitions of the roles and the necessity for them to be all inclusive. Since the literature was lacking in this area, the

roles and, more importantly, the tasks used to describe them, were amalgamated from various descriptions found primarily in the public sector literature on strategic planning. These descriptions were often contradictory and some of the "unexpected" results in the task-related variables may be the result of inadequate operational definitions for each role, rather than strategic planning causing administrators and managers to perceive that they were engaged in a particular role *less often* than their counterparts in non-strategic planning localities.

Furthermore, using the concept of "new initiatives" as a proxy for strategic planning may have conveyed the wrong impression to some local government chief executive officers. During the course of the study, several respondents indicated, either through telephone conversations or in the comments on their completed questionnaire, that strategic planning had become the tool for "downsizing" instead of "new initiatives" because of limited resources -- even though decreasing the size of government can be a new undertaking. A different, and hopefully more universally understood, substitute for the term strategic planning may need to be developed before conducting research similar to this study.

Additionally, this research examined relatively few and diverse localities. While examining the localities in a single state provides a level of consistency, it also limits the survey population. A larger survey of governments of approximately the same size and type (i.e., cities of 25,000-50,000 people) may yield more meaningful results and a greater degree of differentiation in the finer details of the role perceptions. A larger

number of responses would enable more complex and specialized statistical testing procedures to be used. Second- and third-level tests which could not be performed here because of the resultant small size of the subsets for study would be possible with a larger sample.

The structural characteristics examined in this study only dealt with localities in which the administrator or manager served as the chief executive officer. The individual characteristics of the person holding that office were not considered. Characteristics such as age, education level, experience in government, and experience as a local government chief executive officer all may hold additional explanatory power for the role perceptions of these individuals during the strategic planning process.

Finally, no objective evaluation of the "success" of strategic planning efforts and how the roles (perceived to be) played by the local government chief executive officers affected this success was examined in this research. As stated earlier, there are no widely-accepted standards for measuring the success or failure of strategic planning by localities.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One area for additional research would be to control for structural variables and examine whether the role perceptions were significantly different for local government chief executive officers in strategic planning localities than those of their counterparts in non-strategic planning localities. These tests were not called for in the original design

of this study, but the data collected for this research could easily be adapted for such an examination.

Several other potential research projects could arise building on the foundations provided by this study. One would be a national (or regional) scale replication of this study. The larger scope would enable the collection of sufficient data for specialized tests. It would also permit a comparison between the results of the hypothesis testing in Virginia and the results from the country as a whole. Such a study could be developed in a way that eliminated one or more structural characteristics from affecting the results (i.e., localities of similar size).

Similarly, the survey could be repeated using elected officials as the respondents rather than the appointed administrators and managers. This would provide the legislative perspective on the process as well as gather information on how those ultimately responsible to the electorate see themselves as acting during a major activity which shapes the future of the locality.

A different approach would be to use the strategic plans themselves to develop a "bottom line" to evaluate the local government. Such research would examine a small set of localities, gather data about the role perceptions of the chief executive officer (and possibly the elected officials as well), accumulate information on the results of strategic planning, and examine in detail the effectiveness of the process with respect to the roles the actors involved saw themselves (and possibly others) playing during the process.

Another possible area for examination could be the individual characteristics of

the local government chief executive officers and how these influence role perceptions during the strategic planning process. Such a study could be very meaningful if the structural characteristics of the localities in the survey population (or at least those with respect to size) were held constant to minimize the effect of external factors on the process and on role perceptions.

Additional research needs to be conducted on the operational definitions of the hypothesized roles played by strategic planning managers. When asked directly how much of their work entailed playing a particular role, the strategic planning managers responded that they performed the role a greater percent of the time than their non-strategic planning counterparts. However, the exact opposite relationship is found in the results for many of the task-based questions. Thus, it is not certain if a problem exists with the tasks that served to operationalize the role definitions or whether this outcome is the result of strategic planning managers connecting the different segmented processes in a way that is not possible for their non-strategic planning counterparts.

Finally, in depth case study analysis could be performed on several localities. The local chief executive officer, the members of the elected body, and anyone else significantly involved in the strategic planning process could be interviewed. From these semi-structured exchanges, task lists for all parties involved, a model process, and criteria for a successful strategic planning process could be developed. This would enable future surveys both to be broader and more precise than this study, thereby overcoming several of the limitations described above.

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APPENDIX I

The Questionnaire

A copy of one of the two questionnaires sent to the 168 local government chief executive officers in the survey population appears on the following pages. The copy included herein went to town and city managers. A similar survey went to county administrators. The only differences were that references to council became board, references to manager became administrator, and the forms of government listed were slightly different because of the different laws regarding counties.

The Roles Played by Local Government Managers: A Questionnaire

Preface: This questionnaire examines the roles local government chief executive officers perceive themselves as playing as they deal with new initiatives in their locality and during the strategic planning process. Therefore, it is to be completed by the locality's current manager.

The questions being asked fall into several categories. The first set of questions asks what actions have been taken in the area of strategic planning by each local government. The longer second section is designed to discover what roles managers and administrators see themselves playing during the conduct of their duties. The third set of questions asks for basic information about your locality and its government operations. The final set of questions is to be answered only by those managers who have undertaken strategic planning in their locality; it seeks information about when different roles are played during the strategic planning process.

General Directions: Please answer each question as accurately and as completely as possible. The questionnaire contains two basic types of questions: Closed-Response and Open-Ended.

The Closed-Response questions are either Yes-No or Scaled-Response questions. The Yes-No questions ask for a positive or negative response to a particular inquiry. The Scaled-Response Questions ask for the response that most accurately answers the question. These questions follow a general pattern but each questions should be read carefully. Most of these questions ask what percentage of the time a certain activity is undertaken.

The Open-Ended questions seek either data or additional information about a particular topic. Please answer in the appropriate blanks and place other written responses in the space provided after each question. If you need additional space for any question, please use the back page of the questionnaire and reference the question number.

In a few instances, an open-ended question will be asked as a follow-up to a closed-ended question answered with a particular response. These should be answered like any other open-ended question.

Specific instructions for each group of questions appear in bold type throughout the questionnaire.

If there are any questions, please feel free to contact me, Michael John Dougherty, at (703) 951-1079. Please circle a response for each of the following questions.

1. Has your locality undertaken strategic planning in the last 10 years?

1 YES

2 NO --> If NO, Please GO to Question 6.

2. What stage is the most recent strategic planning effort in your locality at?

1 REACHING AN AGREEMENT TO PLAN

2 IDENTIFYING WHAT IS LEGALLY REQUIRED

3 CLARIFYING MISSION AND VALUES

4 IDENTIFYING EXTERNAL OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS

5 IDENTIFYING INTERNAL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

6 IDENTIFYING STRATEGIC ISSUES

7 DEVELOPING STRATEGIES

8 DESCRIBING ORGANIZATIONAL FUTURES

9 IMPLEMENTING RECOMMENDATIONS AND EVALUATING RESULTS

0 ABANDONED (Process stopped before recommendations made.)

IF ABANDONED --> Why?

Please answer each of the following questions as completely as possible.

3. How long ago was the most recent strategic planning started in your locality?

___ years ___ months

4. In your opinion as manager, why was strategic planning undertaken in your locality?

5. In your opinion as manager, what have been the results of the strategic planning process?

Please CONTINUE with Question 7 on the Next Page.

6. In your opinion as manager, why has strategic planning NOT been undertaken in your locality over the last 10 years?

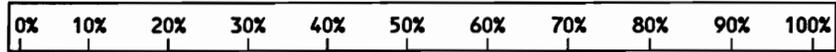
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Please answer each of the following sets of questions based upon your experience as a manager in your locality by marking the appropriate percentage on the scale.

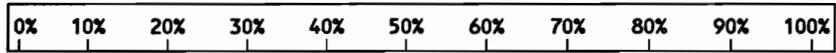
While providing direction for new initiatives as they arise in your locality, what percent of the time do you

...

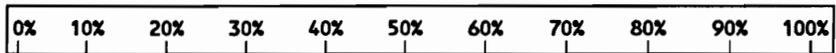
7. Work to create a common vision of the future?



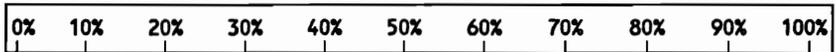
8. Encourage the involvement of interested parties?



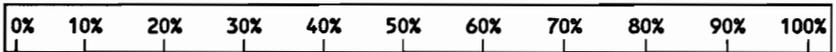
9. Create a setting that enables others (such as council, staff) to act?



10. Allow others (council, staff) to take control of the initiative?

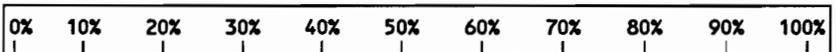


11. Set an example for others (council, staff) to follow?

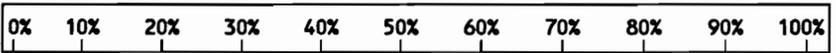


While working to make new initiatives fit the needs and reality of your locality, what percent of the time do you ...

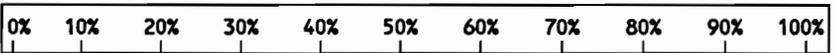
12. Adapt problem-solving methods to fit the situation?



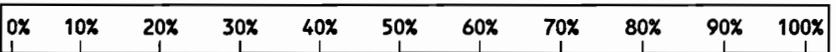
13. Examine the costs and benefits of any new ideas?



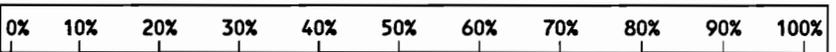
14. Modify the ideas until they become acceptable?



15. Use the ideas without making any modifications?



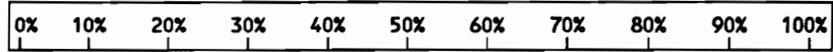
16. Stress the need for new ideas to solve old problems?



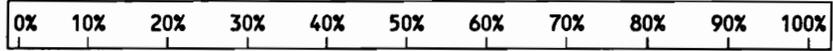
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While considering the information needs for making decisions about new initiatives in your locality, what percent of the time do you ...

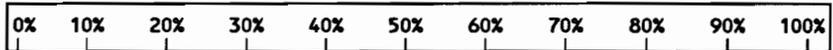
17. Examine the locality's strengths and weakness?



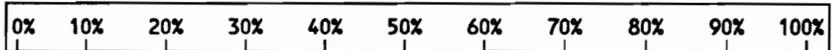
18. Examine external opportunities and threats?



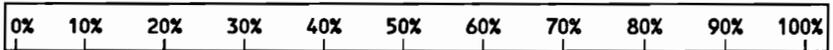
19. Review relevant trends (either historic or predicted)?



20. Decide data comparing the locality to other places is not useful?

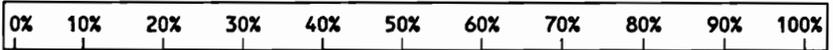


21. Determine possible problems, issues, and concerns?

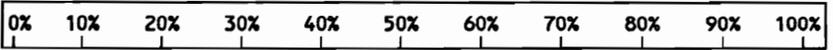


While connecting new initiatives with planning efforts, what percent of the time do you ...

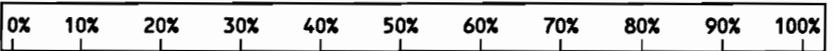
22. Establish links between new ideas and the locality's comprehensive plan?



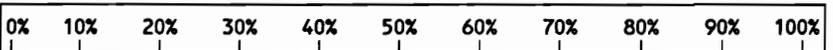
23. Establish links between new ideas and operating plans?



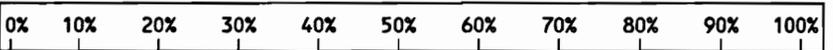
24. Establish links between new ideas and existing programs?



25. Keep discussion of new ideas separate from budget process?

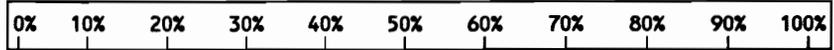


26. Link new ideas to the locality's vision of the future?

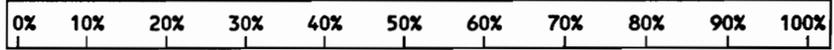


While working to bring about the consideration of new initiatives, what percent of the time do you ...

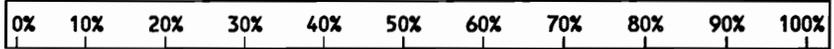
27. Work to change the locality's long-term outlook?



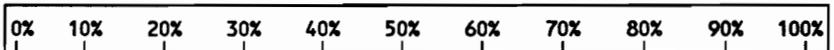
28. Work to change the locality's short-term outlook?



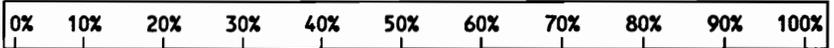
29. Work to modify the council's decision-making processes?



30. Let natural processes run their course unaided?



31. Work to create a setting where change is possible?



Please estimate the percent of time you spend doing each of these tasks associated with new initiatives based upon your experience as manager in your locality.

32. What percent of your work as a manager involves providing leadership for new initiatives that arise in your locality?

___ %

33. What percent of your work as a manager involves making new initiatives fit the needs and realities of your locality?

___ %

34. What percent of your work as a manager involves providing information to be used in making decisions about new initiatives in your locality?

___ %

35. What percent of your work as a manager involves creating linkages between new initiatives and plans for the future of your locality?

___ %

36. What percent of your work as a manager involves working to bring about change in your locality through the consideration of new initiatives?

___ %

(Page 5)

Please answer each of the following questions about your level of involvement in dealing with new initiatives based upon your experience as manager in your locality.

37. What best describes your level of involvement during the initial stages of undertakings of new initiatives in your locality?

- 1 TOTALLY INVOLVED
- 2 MOSTLY INVOLVED
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 MINIMALLY INVOLVED
- 5 NOT INVOLVED AT ALL
- 0 UNSURE or UNKNOWN

38. What best describes your level of involvement in efforts to make new ideas from other places correspond to the needs and realities of your locality?

- 1 TOTALLY INVOLVED
- 2 MOSTLY INVOLVED
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 MINIMALLY INVOLVED
- 5 NOT INVOLVED AT ALL
- 0 UNSURE or UNKNOWN

39. What best describes your level of involvement in providing background information to council while studying new initiatives?

- 1 TOTALLY INVOLVED
- 2 MOSTLY INVOLVED
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 MINIMALLY INVOLVED
- 5 NOT INVOLVED AT ALL
- 0 UNSURE or UNKNOWN

40. What best describes your level of involvement in process of transforming the plans of new initiatives into reality?

- 1 TOTALLY INVOLVED
- 2 MOSTLY INVOLVED
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 MINIMALLY INVOLVED
- 5 NOT INVOLVED AT ALL
- 0 UNSURE or UNKNOWN

41. What best describes your level of involvement in using new initiatives to bring about fundamental change to the vision of the future in your locality?

- 1 TOTALLY INVOLVED
- 2 MOSTLY INVOLVED
- 3 SOMEWHAT INVOLVED
- 4 MINIMALLY INVOLVED
- 5 NOT INVOLVED AT ALL
- 0 UNSURE or UNKNOWN

Please answer these questions about your locality, and your work there as the manager.

42. What is the form of government in your locality?

- 1 MANAGER-COUNCIL-CONSTITUTIONAL OFFICERS
- 2 MANAGER-COUNCIL
- 3 MODIFIED COMMISSION
- 4 SPECIAL CHARTER
- 9 OTHER --> Please explain:

43. What best describes the main source of policy direction found in your locality?

- 1 MANAGER ALONE
- 2 ONE OR TWO KEY ADMINISTRATORS
- 3 MANAGER-COUNCIL TEAM
- 4 MAYOR ALONE
- 5 COUNCIL AS A BODY
- 6 VARIOUS COMMITTEES OF COUNCIL
- 7 ADMINISTRATION IN PARTNERSHIP WITH OTHER BOARDS
- 8 COUNCIL IN PARTNERSHIP WITH OTHER BOARDS
- 9 OTHER --> Please explain:

44. How long have you served as manager of your locality?

___ years ___ months

45. How many persons have served as manager of your locality over the past 10 years?
(Count those who held position permanently or on an interim basis for at least six months).

___ persons

46. How many persons serve on your locality's council (including the mayor)?

___ persons

47. How long is the term of the council members?

___ years

48. How is the timing of the council members' terms arranged?

- 1 ALL TERMS END AT ONCE
- 2 TERMS ARE STAGGERED WITH ELECTIONS EVERY OTHER YEAR
- 3 TERMS ARE STAGGERED WITH ELECTIONS EVERY YEAR

49. From where are they elected?

- 1 ALL FROM DISTRICTS
 - 2 ALL AT-LARGE
 - 3 COMBINATION PATTERN
- IF COMBINATION -> How many are elected at-large? ____

50. How much turnover has there been on the council over the last ten years (through the most recent election)?

- 1 ALL SEATS CHANGED HANDS MORE THAN ONCE
- 2 ALL SEATS CHANGED HANDS AT LEAST ONCE
- 3 HALF OR MORE SEATS CHANGED HANDS AT LEAST ONCE
- 4 LESS THAN HALF SEATS CHANGED HANDS AT LEAST ONCE
- 5 ONLY ONE SEAT HAS CHANGED HANDS AT LEAST ONCE
- 6 NO SEATS HAVE CHANGED HANDS

51. What is your locality's general fund operating budget for FY94 (excluding expenditures for schools)?

\$ _____

52. How many full-time equivalent employees (FTEs) does your locality have (excluding FTEs for schools)?

_____ FTEs

53. What is the size of your management staff (including yourself)?

_____ FTEs

54. What is the size of your planning staff (not including yourself)?

_____ FTEs

55. Do you have any additional comments you would like to make?

**IF You Have Undertaken Strategic Planning in Your Locality,
Please CONTINUE with Question 56.**

**IF you have NOT Undertaken Strategic Planning,
THANK YOU for Completing the Survey.**

**IF you would like a copy of the results of this survey,
PLEASE check the box below.**

PLEASE SEND ME THE RESULTS OF THIS SURVEY

(Page 9)

Please answer each of the following questions based upon your experience as manager in your locality during the strategic planning process. (If you have not reached a particular stage in the strategic planning process, indicate by answering the question "NA".)

While gaining agreement on strategic planning, what percent of the time did you ...

56. Let others take leadership of the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

57. Provide information for the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

58. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

59. Link the process to daily operations and activities? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

60. Work to permit change through the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

While identifying what is legally required, what percent of the time did you ...

61. Let others take leadership of the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

62. Provide information for the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

63. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

64. Link the process to daily operations and activities? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

65. Work to permit change through the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

While clarifying mission and values, what percent of the time did you ...

66. Let others take leadership of the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

67. Provide information for the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

68. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

69. Link the process to daily operations and activities? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

70. Work to permit change through the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

While identifying external opportunities and threats, what percent of the time did you ...

71. Let others take leadership of the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

72. Provide information for the process? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

73. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality? NA

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

74. Link the process to daily operations and activities? NA

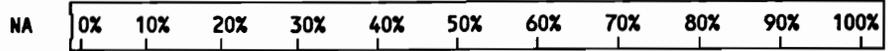
0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

75. Work to permit change through the process? NA

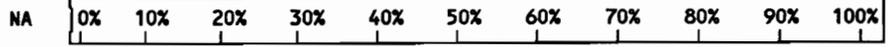
0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------

While identifying internal strengths and weaknesses, what percent of the time did you ...

76. Let others take leadership of the process?



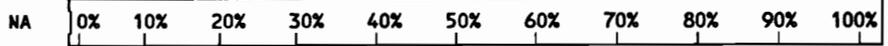
77. Provide information for the process?



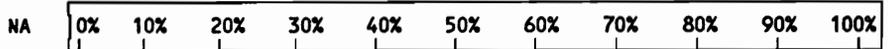
78. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality?



79. Link the process to daily operations and activities?

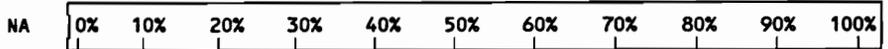


80. Work to permit change through the process?

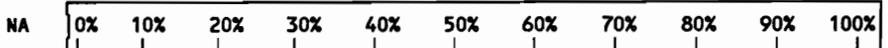


While identifying strategic issues, what percent of the time did you ...

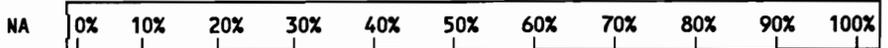
81. Let others take leadership of the process?



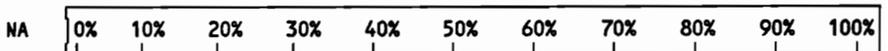
82. Provide information for the process?



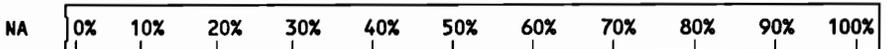
83. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality?



84. Link the process to daily operations and activities?

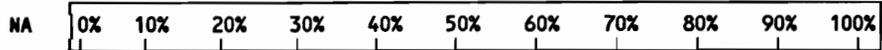


85. Work to permit change through the process?

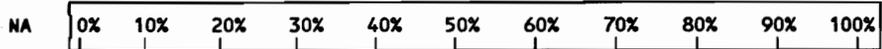


While developing strategies, what percent of the time did you ...

86. Let others take leadership of the process?



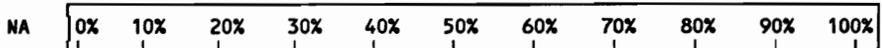
87. Provide information for the process?



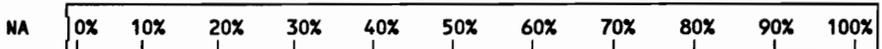
88. Not alter the process to fit the locality?



89. Link the process to daily operations and activities?

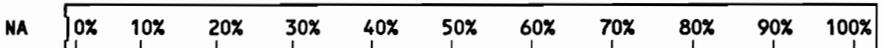


90. Work to permit change through the process?

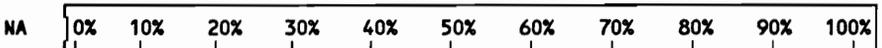


While describing organizational futures, what percent of the time did you ...

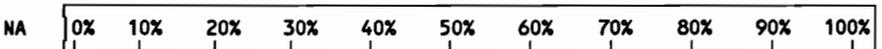
91. Let others take leadership of the process?



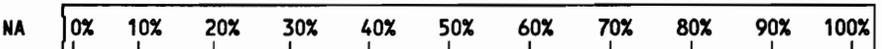
92. Provide information for the process?



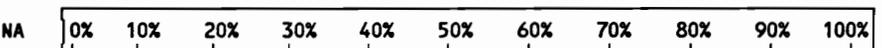
93. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality?



94. Link the process to daily operations and activities?

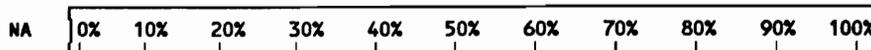


95. Work to permit change through the process?

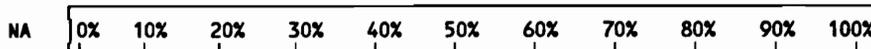


While implementing recommendations and evaluating the results of strategic planning, what percent of the time did you ...

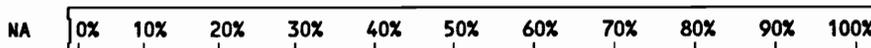
96. Let others take leadership of the process?



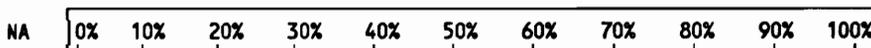
97. Provide information for the process?



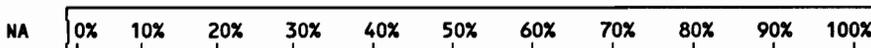
98. Not make allowances in the process to fit the locality?



99. Link the process to daily operations and activities?



100. Work to permit change through the process?



Please answer each of the following questions based upon your experience in the strategic planning process in your locality.

101. How many of the current council members were on the council when the strategic planning process started?

___ council members

102. How many of the current council members have been involved in the strategic planning process?

___ council members

103. How many of the council members at the time the strategic planning process got underway were involved in the process?

___ council members

104. How many management staff members were involved in the strategic planning process (include yourself)?

___ staff members

105. How many citizens were involved in the strategic planning process?

___ citizens

106. Are there any other comments you would like to make about your experience with the strategic planning process in your locality?

THANK YOU for Completing the Survey.

**IF you would like a copy of the results of this survey,
PLEASE check the box below.**

___ **PLEASE SEND ME THE RESULTS OF THIS SURVEY**

APPENDIX II

The Data

Below is the data used for the analysis herein. It is listed by question. First the responses of the strategic planning managers appear, followed by the responses of their non-strategic planning counterparts.

NOTE: N=number of responses while *=number of non-responses.

Strategic Planning Localities

Q7	COUNT	PERCENT	Q8	COUNT	PERCENT	Q9	COUNT	PERCENT
10	9	17.65	0	1	1.96	0	1	1.96
20	11	21.57	10	5	9.80	10	5	9.80
30	8	15.69	20	10	19.61	20	6	11.76
40	2	3.92	25	1	1.96	30	5	9.80
50	5	9.80	30	8	15.69	40	3	5.88
60	2	3.92	40	1	1.96	50	4	7.84
70	1	1.96	50	4	7.84	60	1	1.96
80	6	11.76	60	4	7.84	70	6	11.76
90	3	5.88	70	2	3.92	80	7	13.73
100	4	7.84	80	6	11.76	90	6	11.76
N=	51		90	5	9.80	100	7	13.73
*=	2		100	4	7.84	N=	51	
			N=	51		*=	2	
			*=	2				

Q10	COUNT	PERCENT	Q11	COUNT	PERCENT	AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
0	1	1.96	10	4	8.00	26	2	4.00
10	8	15.69	20	5	10.00	28	1	2.00
20	4	7.84	30	3	6.00	30	3	6.00
30	3	5.88	40	3	6.00	32	3	6.00
40	1	1.96	50	5	10.00	34	3	6.00
50	7	13.73	60	1	2.00	36	3	6.00
60	7	13.73	70	4	8.00	38	3	6.00
70	10	19.61	80	4	8.00	40	1	2.00
75	2	3.92	90	10	20.00	42	1	2.00
80	2	3.92	100	11	22.00	44	1	2.00
90	5	9.80	N=	50		46	2	4.00
100	1	1.96	*=	3		48	1	2.00
N=	51					50	3	6.00
*=	2					54	1	2.00
						56	1	2.00
						60	3	6.00
						62	1	2.00
						64	1	2.00
						66	2	4.00
						72	2	4.00
						74	4	8.00
						76	2	4.00
						78	1	2.00
						80	1	2.00
						81	1	2.00
						84	2	4.00
						96	1	2.00
						N=	50	
						*=	3	

Q12	COUNT	PERCENT
10	8	15.69
20	5	9.80
30	3	5.88
40	4	7.84
50	6	11.76
55	1	1.96
60	4	7.84
70	7	13.73
80	4	7.84
85	1	1.96
90	6	11.76
100	2	3.92
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q13	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	1.96
10	4	7.84
20	6	11.76
30	7	13.73
40	3	5.88
50	4	7.84
60	2	3.92
70	4	7.84
75	1	1.96
80	4	7.84
90	6	11.76
100	9	17.65
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q14	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	1.96
10	5	9.80
20	5	9.80
30	7	13.73
40	3	5.88
50	5	9.80
60	5	9.80
70	5	9.80
80	2	3.92
90	7	13.73
100	6	11.76
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q15	COUNT	PERCENT
0	12	23.53
10	10	19.61
20	9	17.65
30	9	17.65
40	2	3.92
50	6	11.76
60	1	1.96
70	2	3.92
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q16	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	7.84
20	6	11.76
30	4	7.84
40	2	3.92
50	3	5.88
60	4	7.84
70	6	11.76
80	9	17.65
90	6	11.76
100	7	13.73
N=	51	
*=	2	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
25	1	1.96
26	1	1.96
28	2	3.92
32	2	3.92
36	3	5.88
38	2	3.92
40	4	7.84
46	1	1.96
50	1	1.96
52	3	5.88
54	1	1.96
58	2	3.92
60	1	1.96
62	1	1.96
63	1	1.96
64	2	3.92
68	1	1.96
70	3	5.88
72	2	3.92
74	2	3.92
76	1	1.96
78	1	1.96
80	1	1.96
82	4	7.84
84	2	3.92
86	1	1.96
88	1	1.96
90	2	3.92
94	2	3.92
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q17	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	7.84
20	6	11.76
30	6	11.76
40	4	7.84
50	4	7.84
60	4	7.84
70	5	9.80
75	1	1.96
80	7	13.73
90	2	3.92
100	8	15.69
N=	51	
*=	2	

Q18	COUNT	PERCENT
4	1	2.00
10	8	16.00
20	2	4.00
30	7	14.00
40	2	4.00
50	5	10.00
60	6	12.00
70	3	6.00
75	2	4.00
80	8	16.00
100	6	12.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q19	COUNT	PERCENT
10	7	14.00
20	8	16.00
30	6	12.00
40	1	2.00
50	5	10.00
60	3	6.00
70	4	8.00
75	2	4.00
80	5	10.00
90	5	10.00
100	4	8.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q20	COUNT	PERCENT
0	6	12.00
10	15	30.00
20	6	12.00
30	9	18.00
50	5	10.00
60	4	8.00
70	2	4.00
80	2	4.00
90	1	2.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q21	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.00
10	4	8.00
20	2	4.00
30	5	10.00
40	4	8.00
60	6	12.00
70	8	16.00
75	1	2.00
80	8	16.00
90	4	8.00
100	7	14.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
26	2	4.00
27	1	2.00
28	1	2.00
34	1	2.00
36	6	12.00
38	2	4.00
40	1	2.00
42	2	4.00
46	1	2.00
48	2	4.00
52	1	2.00
54	3	6.00
56	2	4.00
57	1	2.00
58	1	2.00
60	1	2.00
62	1	2.00
66	2	4.00
67	1	2.00
68	1	2.00
70	1	2.00
74	3	6.00
76	1	2.00
78	2	4.00
80	1	2.00
81	1	2.00
86	2	4.00
88	1	2.00
90	2	4.00
94	1	2.00
98	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q22	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	4.00
10	8	16.00
20	5	10.00
30	5	10.00
40	1	2.00
50	6	12.00
60	7	14.00
70	5	10.00
80	7	14.00
90	2	4.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q23	COUNT	PERCENT
10	7	14.00
20	7	14.00
30	4	8.00
40	1	2.00
50	5	10.00
60	3	6.00
70	7	14.00
80	6	12.00
90	8	16.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q24	COUNT	PERCENT
10	6	12.00
20	7	14.00
30	3	6.00
40	1	2.00
50	4	8.00
60	3	6.00
70	5	10.00
75	1	2.00
80	11	22.00
90	8	16.00
100	1	2.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q25	COUNT	PERCENT
0	10	20.00
10	18	36.00
20	7	14.00
30	4	8.00
40	1	2.00
50	6	12.00
60	2	4.00
70	1	2.00
100	1	2.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q26	COUNT	PERCENT
2	1	2.00
10	4	8.00
20	2	4.00
30	3	6.00
40	2	4.00
50	5	10.00
60	3	6.00
70	6	12.00
80	14	28.00
90	6	12.00
100	4	8.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

AVG.COUNT	PERCENT	
26	3	6.00
28	2	4.00
32	1	2.00
36	4	8.00
38	1	2.00
40	3	6.00
44	1	2.00
52	2	4.00
54	2	4.00
58	1	2.00
60	2	4.00
62	1	2.00
64	1	2.00
66	3	6.00
68	3	6.00
70	4	8.00
72	2	4.00
74	2	4.00
76	1	2.00
78	1	2.00
80	2	4.00
81	1	2.00
82	1	2.00
84	2	4.00
86	2	4.00
90	2	4.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q27	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	6.00
15	1	2.00
20	5	10.00
30	8	16.00
40	4	8.00
50	6	12.00
60	5	10.00
70	7	14.00
80	6	12.00
90	5	10.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q28	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.00
10	5	10.00
20	7	14.00
30	8	16.00
40	2	4.00
50	4	8.00
60	6	12.00
70	6	12.00
80	5	10.00
90	3	6.00
95	1	2.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q29	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.00
10	10	20.00
20	8	16.00
30	12	24.00
40	3	6.00
50	7	14.00
70	3	6.00
75	1	2.00
80	4	8.00
100	1	2.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q30	COUNT	PERCENT
0	11	22.00
5	1	2.00
10	12	24.00
20	11	22.00
30	7	14.00
50	3	6.00
60	2	4.00
70	2	4.00
75	1	2.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q31	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	4.00
20	6	12.00
30	3	6.00
40	1	2.00
50	2	4.00
60	3	6.00
70	5	10.00
80	12	24.00
90	5	10.00
100	11	22.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

AVG.COUNT	PERCENT	
26	2	4.00
32	1	2.00
34	1	2.00
36	4	8.00
38	3	6.00
40	4	8.00
44	1	2.00
50	1	2.00
52	4	8.00
54	1	2.00
56	4	8.00
57	1	2.00
58	2	4.00
62	3	6.00
64	2	4.00
66	2	4.00
68	3	6.00
72	1	2.00
74	1	2.00
78	5	10.00
80	1	2.00
84	1	2.00
86	1	2.00
88	1	2.00
N=	50	
**=	3	

Q32	COUNT	PERCENT
3	1	2.00
5	1	2.00
10	7	14.00
20	11	22.00
25	4	8.00
30	3	6.00
40	3	6.00
50	8	16.00
60	3	6.00
70	4	8.00
80	1	2.00
90	2	4.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q33	COUNT	PERCENT
2	1	2.00
5	4	8.00
10	12	24.00
20	4	8.00
25	3	6.00
30	4	8.00
40	2	4.00
50	5	10.00
60	5	10.00
70	3	6.00
80	1	2.00
90	2	4.00
100	4	8.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q34	COUNT	PERCENT
2	1	2.00
3	1	2.00
5	5	10.00
10	8	16.00
15	3	6.00
20	7	14.00
30	3	6.00
33	1	2.00
35	1	2.00
40	2	4.00
50	4	8.00
60	5	10.00
70	3	6.00
75	2	4.00
80	1	2.00
90	1	2.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q35	COUNT	PERCENT
1	1	2.00
2	1	2.00
5	10	20.00
10	11	22.00
15	1	2.00
20	4	8.00
30	2	4.00
40	3	6.00
50	7	14.00
60	4	8.00
70	2	4.00
75	1	2.00
80	1	2.00
100	2	4.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q36	COUNT	PERCENT
3	1	2.00
5	5	10.00
10	10	20.00
20	8	16.00
30	1	2.00
40	2	4.00
50	7	14.00
60	5	10.00
70	3	6.00
75	1	2.00
80	2	4.00
85	1	2.00
95	1	2.00
100	3	6.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
4	2	4.00
7	1	2.00
10	3	6.00
11	2	4.00
12	1	2.00
13	3	6.00
15	2	4.00
16	1	2.00
17	1	2.00
20	6	12.00
22	1	2.00
23	1	2.00
26	1	2.00
28	1	2.00
32	1	2.00
38	1	2.00
42	1	2.00
46	2	4.00
48	1	2.00
54	1	2.00
55	1	2.00
56	3	6.00
57	1	2.00
58	2	4.00
60	1	2.00
62	1	2.00
64	2	4.00
68	1	2.00
70	1	2.00
74	1	2.00
78	1	2.00
87	1	2.00
92	1	2.00
N=	50	
*=	3	

Q37	COUNT	PERCENT
1	13	25.00
2	28	53.85
3	10	19.23
4	1	1.92
N=	52	
*=	1	

Q38	COUNT	PERCENT
1	8	15.38
2	20	38.46
3	18	34.62
4	6	11.54
N=	52	
*=	1	

Q39	COUNT	PERCENT
1	21	40.38
2	25	48.08
3	4	7.69
4	2	3.85
N=	52	
*=	1	

Q40	COUNT	PERCENT
1	16	30.77
2	27	51.92
3	7	13.46
4	2	3.85
N=	52	
*=	1	

Q41	COUNT	PERCENT
1	21	40.38
2	23	44.23
3	8	15.38
N=	52	
*=	1	

STAGE	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	6.12
1	2	4.08
3	5	10.20
5	1	2.04
6	7	14.29
7	5	10.20
8	4	8.16
9	22	44.90
N=	49	
*=	4	

Q56	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.13
10	1	2.56
20	3	7.69
30	2	5.13
40	3	7.69
50	5	12.82
60	3	7.69
70	5	12.82
80	7	17.95
90	7	17.95
100	1	2.56
N=	39	
*=	16	

Q57	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.50
5	1	2.50
10	3	7.50
20	4	10.00
30	4	10.00
40	2	5.00
50	5	12.50
60	4	10.00
70	3	7.50
80	5	12.50
90	4	10.00
95	1	2.50
100	3	7.50
N=	40	
*=	15	

Q58	COUNT	PERCENT
0	12	34.29
5	2	5.71
10	12	34.29
20	4	11.43
30	4	11.43
60	1	2.86
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q59	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.41
10	7	18.92
20	2	5.41
30	5	13.51
40	4	10.81
50	3	8.11
60	5	13.51
70	5	13.51
75	1	2.70
80	1	2.70
90	1	2.70
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q60	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.56
10	2	5.13
20	4	10.26
30	3	7.69
40	3	7.69
50	4	10.26
60	9	23.08
70	2	5.13
80	5	12.82
90	2	5.13
100	4	10.26
N=	39	
*=	16	

Q61	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.56
10	1	2.78
20	3	8.33
30	4	11.11
40	4	11.11
50	5	13.89
60	6	16.67
70	2	5.56
80	2	5.56
90	5	13.89
100	2	5.56
N=	36	
*=	19	

Q62	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.57
10	5	14.29
20	1	2.86
30	5	14.29
40	3	8.57
50	4	11.43
60	3	8.57
70	4	11.43
80	3	8.57
95	1	2.86
100	3	8.57
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q63	COUNT	PERCENT
0	16	48.48
5	2	6.06
10	6	18.18
20	3	9.09
30	2	6.06
40	2	6.06
60	2	6.06
N=	33	
*=	22	

Q64	COUNT	PERCENT
0	5	14.29
10	5	14.29
20	5	14.29
30	2	5.71
40	7	20.00
50	2	5.71
60	5	14.29
80	3	8.57
100	1	2.86
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q65	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.57
10	1	2.86
20	6	17.14
30	3	8.57
40	2	5.71
50	6	17.14
60	4	11.43
70	2	5.71
75	1	2.86
80	4	11.43
90	1	2.86
100	2	5.71
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q66	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.26
10	2	5.26
20	1	2.63
30	3	7.89
40	1	2.63
50	8	21.05
60	5	13.16
70	4	10.53
80	4	10.53
90	7	18.42
100	1	2.63
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q67	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.63
5	1	2.63
10	2	5.26
20	5	13.16
30	4	10.53
40	1	2.63
50	10	26.32
60	2	5.26
70	3	7.89
80	5	13.16
90	3	7.89
100	1	2.63
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q68	COUNT	PERCENT
0	13	38.24
5	3	8.82
10	5	14.71
20	6	17.65
30	2	5.88
50	1	2.94
60	2	5.88
70	1	2.94
80	1	2.94
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q69	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.26
10	6	15.79
20	4	10.53
30	2	5.26
40	1	2.63
50	8	21.05
60	4	10.53
70	6	15.79
80	3	7.89
90	2	5.26
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q70	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.26
20	3	7.89
30	5	13.16
40	1	2.63
50	6	15.79
60	4	10.53
70	5	13.16
75	1	2.63
80	8	21.05
90	2	5.26
100	1	2.63
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q71	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.63
10	3	7.89
30	5	13.16
40	2	5.26
50	5	13.16
60	3	7.89
70	6	15.79
80	5	13.16
90	5	13.16
100	3	7.89
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q72	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.63
5	1	2.63
10	2	5.26
20	3	7.89
30	4	10.53
40	2	5.26
50	9	23.68
60	5	13.16
70	5	13.16
80	2	5.26
85	1	2.63
90	2	5.26
100	1	2.63
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q73	COUNT	PERCENT
0	14	40.00
5	3	8.57
10	6	17.14
30	6	17.14
40	1	2.86
50	2	5.71
60	2	5.71
70	1	2.86
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q74	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.26
5	1	2.63
10	4	10.53
20	6	15.79
30	4	10.53
40	4	10.53
50	7	18.42
60	3	7.89
70	3	7.89
75	1	2.63
80	3	7.89
N=	38	
*=	17	

Q75	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.41
20	2	5.41
30	6	16.22
40	1	2.70
50	9	24.32
60	3	8.11
70	3	8.11
75	1	2.70
80	8	21.62
90	1	2.70
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q76	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.11
20	2	5.41
25	1	2.70
30	5	13.51
50	10	27.03
70	6	16.22
80	4	10.81
90	4	10.81
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q77	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.70
5	1	2.70
10	1	2.70
20	3	8.11
30	3	8.11
40	4	10.81
50	6	16.22
60	4	10.81
70	5	13.51
80	4	10.81
90	4	10.81
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q78	COUNT	PERCENT
0	13	38.24
5	2	5.88
10	8	23.53
20	1	2.94
30	2	5.88
40	3	8.82
50	3	8.82
60	2	5.88
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q79	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.11
10	3	8.11
20	4	10.81
30	3	8.11
40	7	18.92
50	6	16.22
60	2	5.41
70	3	8.11
75	1	2.70
80	3	8.11
90	1	2.70
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q80	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	10.81
20	3	8.11
30	4	10.81
50	6	16.22
60	3	8.11
70	3	8.11
75	1	2.70
80	10	27.03
90	1	2.70
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q81	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.11
20	1	2.70
30	2	5.41
40	6	16.22
50	9	24.32
70	6	16.22
80	5	13.51
90	5	13.51
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q82	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	10.81
20	1	2.70
30	2	5.41
40	2	5.41
50	7	18.92
60	7	18.92
70	5	13.51
80	4	10.81
90	4	10.81
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q83	COUNT	PERCENT
0	11	32.35
5	3	8.82
10	8	23.53
20	4	11.76
30	3	8.82
40	2	5.88
50	2	5.88
60	1	2.94
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q84	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.41
10	5	13.51
20	3	8.11
30	1	2.70
40	6	16.22
50	4	10.81
60	3	8.11
70	5	13.51
75	1	2.70
80	6	16.22
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q85	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.11
20	2	5.41
30	1	2.70
40	3	8.11
50	5	13.51
60	2	5.41
70	4	10.81
80	12	32.43
90	2	5.41
100	3	8.11
N=	37	
*=	18	

Q86	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.88
20	2	5.88
30	4	11.76
40	1	2.94
50	7	20.59
60	5	14.71
70	2	5.88
80	6	17.65
90	4	11.76
100	1	2.94
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q87	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.86
10	3	8.57
20	2	5.71
30	5	14.29
40	3	8.57
50	4	11.43
60	5	14.29
70	5	14.29
80	2	5.71
90	4	11.43
100	1	2.86
N=	35	
*=	20	

Q88	COUNT	PERCENT
0	13	41.94
5	2	6.45
10	5	16.13
20	3	9.68
30	3	9.68
40	1	3.23
50	2	6.45
60	1	3.23
70	1	3.23
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q89	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	5.88
10	4	11.76
20	1	2.94
30	5	14.71
40	4	11.76
50	6	17.65
60	1	2.94
70	5	14.71
80	6	17.65
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q90	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.82
20	1	2.94
30	5	14.71
50	6	17.65
60	1	2.94
70	4	11.76
75	1	2.94
80	7	20.59
90	4	11.76
100	2	5.88
N=	34	
*=	21	

Q91	COUNT	PERCENT
10	1	3.12
20	2	6.25
30	7	21.87
40	2	6.25
50	5	15.62
60	3	9.37
70	4	12.50
75	1	3.12
80	6	18.75
100	1	3.12
N=	32	
*=	23	

Q92	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	3.12
10	1	3.12
20	3	9.37
30	2	6.25
40	1	3.12
50	5	15.62
60	6	18.75
70	4	12.50
80	4	12.50
90	4	12.50
100	1	3.12
N=	32	
*=	23	

Q93	COUNT	PERCENT
0	8	27.59
5	3	10.34
10	9	31.03
20	1	3.45
30	2	6.90
40	2	6.90
50	2	6.90
60	1	3.45
80	1	3.45
N=	29	
*=	26	

Q94	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	3.23
10	6	19.35
25	1	3.23
30	3	9.68
40	4	12.90
50	5	16.13
60	2	6.45
70	3	9.68
80	5	16.13
90	1	3.23
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q95	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	12.90
30	3	9.68
40	2	6.45
50	6	19.35
60	2	6.45
70	2	6.45
75	1	3.23
80	6	19.35
90	3	9.68
100	2	6.45
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q96	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	6.45
20	3	9.68
30	5	16.13
40	3	9.68
50	7	22.58
60	2	6.45
70	4	12.90
80	2	6.45
90	3	9.68
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q97	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	3.23
10	3	9.68
20	1	3.23
30	4	12.90
40	1	3.23
50	8	25.81
60	3	9.68
70	3	9.68
80	3	9.68
90	2	6.45
100	2	6.45
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q98	COUNT	PERCENT
0	9	32.14
5	1	3.57
10	8	28.57
20	2	7.14
30	3	10.71
40	1	3.57
50	1	3.57
60	1	3.57
70	1	3.57
80	1	3.57
N=	28	
*=	27	

Q99	COUNT	PERCENT
0	2	6.45
10	2	6.45
20	3	9.68
30	3	9.68
40	5	16.13
50	7	22.58
70	5	16.13
80	3	9.68
100	1	3.23
N=	31	
*=	24	

Q100	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	9.68
20	3	9.68
30	5	16.13
50	4	12.90
60	3	9.68
70	2	6.45
80	7	22.58
90	2	6.45
100	2	6.45
N=	31	
*=	24	

Non-Strategic Planning Localities

Q7	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.70
10	6	16.22
20	6	16.22
30	7	18.92
40	2	5.41
50	2	5.41
60	3	8.11
70	5	13.51
80	5	13.51
N=	37	
**	3	

Q8	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.70
10	4	10.81
20	4	10.81
25	1	2.70
30	4	10.81
35	1	2.70
40	3	8.11
50	2	5.41
60	4	10.81
70	3	8.11
80	4	10.81
90	4	10.81
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
**	3	

Q9	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.70
10	5	13.51
20	1	2.70
30	3	8.11
40	3	8.11
50	3	8.11
60	2	5.41
70	8	21.62
75	1	2.70
80	6	16.22
90	4	10.81
N=	37	
**	3	

Q10	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.70
10	3	8.11
20	2	5.41
30	3	8.11
40	6	16.22
50	5	13.51
60	6	16.22
70	3	8.11
80	4	10.81
90	4	10.81
N=	37	
**	3	

Q11	COUNT	PERCENT
5	1	2.70
10	1	2.70
20	4	10.81
30	2	5.41
40	4	10.81
50	1	2.70
60	1	2.70
70	4	10.81
80	7	18.92
90	8	21.62
100	4	10.81
N=	37	
**	3	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
8	1	2.70
24	2	5.41
26	1	2.70
32	1	2.70
36	3	8.11
38	1	2.70
40	2	5.41
42	3	8.11
44	1	2.70
45	1	2.70
46	1	2.70
48	1	2.70
50	2	5.41
54	1	2.70
60	2	5.41
64	1	2.70
66	4	10.81
70	2	5.41
72	2	5.41
74	3	8.11
76	1	2.70
82	1	2.70
N=	37	
**	3	

Q12	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.56
20	1	2.78
30	4	11.11
40	2	5.56
50	3	8.33
60	2	5.56
70	5	13.89
80	6	16.67
90	7	19.44
100	4	11.11
N=	36	
**	4	

Q13	COUNT	PERCENT
10	1	2.70
20	5	13.51
40	2	5.41
50	2	5.41
60	4	10.81
70	4	10.81
80	3	8.11
90	10	27.03
100	6	16.22
N=	37	
**	3	

Q14	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.70
10	3	8.11
20	3	8.11
30	1	2.70
40	1	2.70
50	2	5.41
60	2	5.41
70	6	16.22
80	7	18.92
90	7	18.92
100	4	10.81
N=	37	
**	3	

Q15	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.11
10	9	24.32
20	4	10.81
30	9	24.32
40	4	10.81
50	5	13.51
60	3	8.11
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q16	COUNT	PERCENT
10	1	2.70
20	2	5.41
30	5	13.51
40	2	5.41
50	1	2.70
60	5	13.51
70	5	13.51
80	9	24.32
90	5	13.51
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	3	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
36	5	13.89
40	2	5.56
42	1	2.78
46	1	2.78
52	1	2.78
62	2	5.56
66	2	5.56
68	2	5.56
72	3	8.33
74	1	2.78
76	2	5.56
78	5	13.89
80	2	5.56
82	1	2.78
86	1	2.78
88	4	11.11
94	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q17	COUNT	PERCENT
10	1	2.70
20	1	2.70
30	2	5.41
40	5	13.51
50	4	10.81
60	5	13.51
70	4	10.81
80	9	24.32
90	3	8.11
100	3	8.11
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q18	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.11
20	3	8.11
30	3	8.11
40	1	2.70
50	5	13.51
60	6	16.22
70	6	16.22
80	6	16.22
90	2	5.41
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q19	COUNT	PERCENT
10	3	8.11
20	2	5.41
30	6	16.22
50	3	8.11
60	6	16.22
70	6	16.22
80	7	18.92
90	3	8.11
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q20	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.57
10	5	14.29
20	5	14.29
30	8	22.86
40	4	11.43
50	6	17.14
60	2	5.71
70	2	5.71
N=	35	
*=	5	

Q21	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.78
10	1	2.78
20	2	5.56
30	2	5.56
50	6	16.67
60	3	8.33
70	3	8.33
80	7	19.44
90	9	25.00
100	2	5.56
N=	36	
*=	4	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
26	1	2.94
34	1	2.94
36	3	8.82
40	1	2.94
42	1	2.94
48	1	2.94
50	2	5.88
56	1	2.94
60	1	2.94
62	2	5.88
66	3	8.82
68	2	5.88
70	2	5.88
72	2	5.88
74	2	5.88
76	1	2.94
78	2	5.88
80	1	2.94
82	1	2.94
84	1	2.94
88	1	2.94
90	2	5.88
N=	34	
*=	6	

Q22	COUNT	PERCENT
0	3	8.11
10	7	18.92
20	2	5.41
30	2	5.41
50	3	8.11
60	4	10.81
70	7	18.92
80	5	13.51
90	3	8.11
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q23	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.70
10	4	10.81
20	3	8.11
30	2	5.41
40	1	2.70
50	4	10.81
60	3	8.11
70	6	16.22
80	8	21.62
90	4	10.81
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q24	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.41
20	3	8.11
30	4	10.81
50	4	10.81
60	2	5.41
70	5	13.51
80	8	21.62
90	7	18.92
100	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q25	COUNT	PERCENT
0	6	16.67
10	6	16.67
20	7	19.44
30	6	16.67
40	2	5.56
50	5	13.89
60	2	5.56
80	1	2.78
90	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q26	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.56
20	4	11.11
30	4	11.11
40	1	2.78
50	2	5.56
60	4	11.11
70	6	16.67
80	9	25.00
90	3	8.33
100	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
20	1	2.86
24	1	2.86
28	1	2.86
30	1	2.86
32	1	2.86
34	1	2.86
36	2	5.71
46	1	2.86
48	1	2.86
52	1	2.86
54	2	5.71
58	2	5.71
60	1	2.86
64	1	2.86
66	4	11.43
68	3	8.57
70	1	2.86
74	1	2.86
78	3	8.57
80	1	2.86
84	1	2.86
86	2	5.71
90	1	2.86
100	1	2.86
N=	35	
*=	5	

Q27	COUNT	PERCENT
10	2	5.41
20	6	16.22
30	4	10.81
40	4	10.81
50	5	13.51
60	5	13.51
70	2	5.41
80	6	16.22
90	3	8.11
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q28	COUNT	PERCENT
10	4	10.81
30	5	13.51
40	2	5.41
50	6	16.22
60	1	2.70
70	8	21.62
80	6	16.22
90	5	13.51
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q29	COUNT	PERCENT
0	1	2.70
10	2	5.41
20	3	8.11
30	3	8.11
40	4	10.81
50	7	18.92
60	4	10.81
70	5	13.51
80	7	18.92
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q30	COUNT	PERCENT
0	6	16.22
10	6	16.22
20	12	32.43
30	2	5.41
40	3	8.11
50	4	10.81
60	2	5.41
70	2	5.41
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q31	COUNT	PERCENT
20	1	2.70
30	3	8.11
40	2	5.41
50	4	10.81
60	4	10.81
70	6	16.22
80	11	29.73
90	5	13.51
100	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
28	1	2.70
32	1	2.70
34	1	2.70
38	1	2.70
40	2	5.41
44	2	5.41
48	1	2.70
50	1	2.70
52	3	8.11
54	1	2.70
58	4	10.81
60	1	2.70
62	1	2.70
64	1	2.70
66	1	2.70
70	3	8.11
72	5	13.51
74	1	2.70
76	1	2.70
80	1	2.70
82	1	2.70
84	2	5.41
88	1	2.70
N=	37	
*=	3	

Q32	COUNT	PERCENT
1	1	2.78
2	1	2.78
5	1	2.78
10	8	22.22
20	10	27.78
25	2	5.56
30	4	11.11
40	3	8.33
50	1	2.78
60	1	2.78
70	1	2.78
75	2	5.56
80	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q33	COUNT	PERCENT
1	1	2.78
5	5	13.89
10	10	27.78
15	3	8.33
20	4	11.11
30	3	8.33
40	3	8.33
50	2	5.56
60	3	8.33
75	1	2.78
90	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q34	COUNT	PERCENT
2	1	2.78
5	4	11.11
10	9	25.00
15	1	2.78
20	3	8.33
25	2	5.56
30	2	5.56
40	3	8.33
50	2	5.56
55	1	2.78
60	1	2.78
70	2	5.56
75	1	2.78
80	3	8.33
85	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q35	COUNT	PERCENT
1	2	5.56
2	1	2.78
5	6	16.67
10	11	30.56
15	2	5.56
20	4	11.11
25	1	2.78
50	2	5.56
60	3	8.33
70	2	5.56
75	1	2.78
80	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q36	COUNT	PERCENT
2	2	5.56
5	3	8.33
10	8	22.22
15	2	5.56
20	6	16.67
25	2	5.56
30	2	5.56
35	1	2.78
40	1	2.78
50	2	5.56
60	3	8.33
70	3	8.33
75	1	2.78
N=	36	
*=	4	

AVG. COUNT	PERCENT	
1	1	2.78
3	1	2.78
7	1	2.78
9	2	5.56
10	2	5.56
12	3	8.33
15	1	2.78
16	1	2.78
18	2	5.56
20	7	19.44
22	2	5.56
23	1	2.78
28	1	2.78
31	1	2.78
34	2	5.56
38	1	2.78
56	1	2.78
61	1	2.78
62	1	2.78
67	1	2.78
69	1	2.78
72	2	5.56
N=	36	
*=	4	

Q38	COUNT	PERCENT
1	14	36.84
2	16	42.11
3	6	15.79
4	2	5.26
N=	38	
**=	2	

Q39	COUNT	PERCENT
1	5	13.16
2	23	60.53
3	7	18.42
4	3	7.89
N=	38	
**=	2	

Q40	COUNT	PERCENT
1	19	50.00
2	14	36.84
3	4	10.53
4	1	2.63
N=	38	
**=	2	

Q41	COUNT	PERCENT
1	12	31.58
2	19	50.00
3	7	18.42
N=	38	
**=	2	

Q42	COUNT	PERCENT
1	11	28.95
2	15	39.47
3	11	28.95
4	1	2.63
N=	38	
**=	2	

APPENDIX III

The Analysis

Below are the results of all of the analysis of variance tests for the main hypotheses and additional information on statistical tests for the subhypotheses.

ROLE OF LEADER

Analysis of Variance on "Envisioning the Future" (Q. 7)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	175	175	0.21	0.644
Error	86	69973	814		
TOTAL	87	70147			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	40.68	25.61
Yes	51	43.53	30.45

NOTES: SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on "Encouraging Others" (Q. 8)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	70	70	0.08	0.784
Error	86	79258	922		
TOTAL	87	79327			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	50.14	29.52
Yes	51	48.33	30.95

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on "Creating a Setting for Action" (Q. 9)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	122	122	0.13	0.716
Error	86	78790	916		
TOTAL	87	78913			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	54.86	27.58
Yes	51	57.25	32.07

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on "Controlling the Process" (Q. 10)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	0	0	0.00	0.997
Error	86	60986	709		
TOTAL	87	60986			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	51.35	25.07
Yes	51	51.37	27.70

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on "Setting an Example" (Q. 11)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	12	12	0.01	0.912
Error	85	81137	955		
TOTAL	86	81149			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	64.46	29.58
Yes	50	65.20	31.83

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on Means of Leadership Role Tasks (Q. 7-11)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	32	32	0.09	0.765
Error	85	30028	353		
TOTAL	86	30060			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	51.76	18.06
Yes	50	52.98	19.32

NOTES: SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Leadership Role (Q. 32)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	2586	2586	4.36	0.040
Error	84	49805	593		
TOTAL	85	52391			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.44	21.39
Yes	50	38.56	26.26

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Leadership Role (Q. 37)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	0.163	0.163	0.26	0.610
Error	88	54.560	0.620		
TOTAL	89	54.722			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	1.8947	0.8634
Yes	52	1.9808	0.7273

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

ROLE OF ACCOMMODATOR

Analysis of Variance on "Adapting to the Environment" (Q. 12)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	3947	3947	5.01**	0.028
Error	85	66988	788		
TOTAL	86	70935			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	65.83	27.08
Yes	51	52.16	28.74

NOTES : ** Statistically Significant at the 0.05-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

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Analysis of Variance on "Performing Cost-Benefit Analysis" (Q. 13)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	2868	2868	3.03*	0.086
Error	86	81524	948		
TOTAL	87	84393			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	68.92	28.26
Yes	51	57.35	32.49

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

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Analysis of Variance on "Modifying Ideas" (Q. 14)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	2223	2223	2.39	0.125
Error	86	79851	929		
TOTAL	87	82075			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	64.59	30.15
Yes	51	54.41	30.70

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

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Analysis of Variance on "Using Unmodified Ideas" (Q. 15)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	692	692	1.93	0.169
Error	86	30890	359		
TOTAL	87	31582			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	27.84	17.97
Yes	51	22.16	19.63

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

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p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

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Analysis of Variance on "Seeking New Ideas" (Q. 16)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	98	98	0.13	0.724
Error	86	67447	784		
TOTAL	87	67545			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	63.51	24.97
Yes	51	61.37	30.00

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Analysis of Variance on Means of Accommodation Role Tasks (Q. 12-16)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	756	756	1.92	0.169
Error	85	33444	393		
TOTAL	86	34200			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	66.61	18.45
Yes	51	60.63	20.75

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Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Accommodation Role (Q. 33)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	3632	3632	4.80**	0.031
Error	84	63506	756		
TOTAL	85	67138			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	25.17	22.44
Yes	50	38.34	30.60

NOTES : ** Statistically Significant at the 0.05-level.

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Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Accommodation Role (Q.38)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	0.992	0.992	1.39	0.242
Error	88	63.008	0.716		
TOTAL	89	64.000			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	2.2105	0.7766
Yes	52	2.4231	0.8932

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ROLE OF INFORMER

Analysis of Variance on "Examining Strengths and Weaknesses" (Q. 17)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	998	998	1.34	0.250
Error	86	63924	743		
TOTAL	87	64922			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	63.78	23.14
Yes	51	56.96	29.88

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Analysis of Variance on "Examining Opportunities and Threats" (Q. 18)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	440	440	0.55	0.461
Error	85	68231	803		
TOTAL	86	68671			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	57.03	25.59
Yes	50	52.48	30.19

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Analysis of Variance on "Reviewing Trends" (Q. 19)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	722	722	0.87	0.353
Error	85	70251	826		
TOTAL	86	70973			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	57.03	25.70
Yes	50	51.20	30.80

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Analysis of Variance on "Making Decisions about Data" (Q. 20)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	226	226	0.45	0.507
Error	83	42169	508		
TOTAL	84	42395			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	35	31.71	19.48
Yes	50	28.40	24.44

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Analysis of Variance on "Determining PICs" (Q. 21)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	340	340	0.43	0.512
Error	84	66063	786		
TOTAL	85	66403			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	65.83	26.66
Yes	50	61.80	28.99

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Analysis of Variance on Means of Informer Role Tasks (Q. 17-21)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	385	385	0.98	0.325
Error	82	32174	392		
TOTAL	83	32559			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	34	63.24	17.72
Yes	50	58.88	21.10

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Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Informer Role (Q. 34)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	153	153	0.20	0.656
Error	84	64513	768		
TOTAL	85	64666			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	32.56	27.04
Yes	50	35.26	28.18

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Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Informer Role (Q. 39)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	0.186	0.186	0.31	0.577
Error	88	52.303	0.594		
TOTAL	89	52.489			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	1.6579	0.7807
Yes	52	1.7500	0.7638

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ROLE OF INTEGRATOR

Analysis of Variance on "Connecting with Comprehensive Plan" (Q. 22)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	54	54	0.06	0.809
Error	85	77588	913		
TOTAL	86	77641			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	49.19	31.74
Yes	50	47.60	29.04

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Analysis of Variance on "Connecting with Operating Plans" (Q. 23)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	186	186	0.21	0.646
Error	85	74389	875		
TOTAL	86	74575			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	56.76	28.68
Yes	50	53.80	30.23

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Analysis of Variance on "Linking with Programs" (Q. 24)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	910	910	1.11	0.295
Error	85	69691	820		
TOTAL	86	70602			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	63.24	27.19
Yes	50	56.70	29.65

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Analysis of Variance on "Making Links between Plans and Budgets" (Q. 25)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	851	851	1.69	0.198
Error	84	42424	505		
TOTAL	85	43276			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.78	22.94
Yes	50	21.40	22.13

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Analysis of Variance on "Linking to the Vision of the Future" (Q. 26)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	448	448	0.61	0.438
Error	84	62070	739		
TOTAL	85	62518			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	58.61	26.20
Yes	50	63.24	27.86

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Analysis of Variance on Means of Integrator Role Tasks (Q. 22-26)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	1	1	0.00	0.967
Error	83	33095	399		
TOTAL	84	33095			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	35	60.17	20.55
Yes	50	59.99	19.55

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Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Integrator Role (Q. 35)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	950	950	1.37	0.246
Error	84	58412	695		
TOTAL	85	59362			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	23.72	24.67
Yes	50	30.46	27.52

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Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Integrator Role (Q. 40)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	0.028	0.028	0.05	0.824
Error	88	48.861	0.555		
TOTAL	89	48.889			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	1.8684	0.7041
Yes	52	1.9038	0.7736

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ROLE OF CHANGE MASTER

Analysis of Variance on "Modifying Long-Term Outlook" (Q. 27)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	23	23	0.04	0.849
Error	85	52838	622		
TOTAL	86	52860			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	50.27	24.78
Yes	50	51.30	25.05

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Analysis of Variance on "Altering Short-Term Outlook" (Q. 28)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	1394	1394	1.90	0.172
Error	85	62348	734		
TOTAL	86	63742			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	57.30	25.46
Yes	50	49.20	28.22

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Analysis of Variance on "Changing Decision-Making Processes" (Q. 29)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	5555	5555	9.54***	0.003
Error	85	49477	582		
TOTAL	86	55032			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	52.16	24.17
Yes	50	36.00	24.10

NOTES : *** Statistically Significant at the 0.01-level.

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Analysis of Variance on "Allowing Natural Processes to Progress" (Q. 30)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	451	451	1.08	0.302
Error	85	35537	418		
TOTAL	86	35988			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	25.41	20.49
Yes	50	20.80	20.41

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Analysis of Variance on "Creating a Setting for Change" (Q. 31)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	29	29	0.04	0.835
Error	85	56711	667		
TOTAL	86	56740			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	67.03	20.26
Yes	50	68.20	29.26

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Analysis of Variance on Means of Change Master Role Tasks (Q. 27-32)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
SPP	1	342	342	1.27	0.264
Error	85	22975	270		
TOTAL	86	23317			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	37	60.27	15.91
Yes	50	56.26	16.82

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p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

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Analysis of Variance on Percent of Work in Change Master Role (Q. 36)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	2870	2870	3.80*	0.055
Error	84	63465	756		
TOTAL	85	66335			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.75	22.68
Yes	50	39.46	30.46

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

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Analysis of Variance on Level of Involvement in Change Master Role (Q. 41)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	2.011	2.011	3.43*	0.068
Error	88	51.645	0.587		
TOTAL	89	53.656			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	2.0526	0.8366
Yes	52	1.7500	0.7106

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

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Analysis of Variance on Mean of Task Means (Q32-Q36)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	1729	1729	3.24*	0.075
Error	84	44835	534		
TOTAL	85	46563			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	36	27.33	20.85
Yes	50	36.42	24.58

NOTES : * Statistically Significant at the 0.10-level.

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Analysis of Variance on Mean of Involvement Questions (Q37-Q41)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
SPP	1	0.013	0.013	0.04	0.840
Error	88	28.651	0.326		
TOTAL	89	28.665			

SPP	N	MEAN	STDEV
No	38	1.9368	0.5975
Yes	52	1.9615	0.5503

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STRUCTURAL SUBHYPOTHESES

Correlation Analysis Results

The following is a listing of the correlation analysis results which yielded a Coefficient of Determination (R^2) of 0.100 or greater.

Role Perception Variable	Structural Variable	Note	R^2
Leader: Envisioning future	Management staff		0.123
Leader: Encouraging others	Population change		0.112
Leader: Creating setting	Management staff		0.123
Leader: Creating setting	Admin. budget as a percent		0.128
Leader: Setting an example	Board size (reported)	INV.	0.124
Leader: Setting an example	Admin. budget per capita		0.141
Leader: Setting an example	Admin. budget as a percent		0.114
Leader: Controlling[RS]	Admin. budget per capita	INV.	0.162
Leader: Controlling[RS]	Admin. budget as a percent	INV.	0.151
Leader Avg. of Tasks	Management staff		0.107
Accommodator: Adaptation	Admin. budget per capita		0.172
Accommodator: Adaptation	Admin. budget percent		0.141
Accommodator: C-B analysis	Admin. budget percent		0.100
Accommodator: New ideas	Admin. budget per capita		0.102
Accommodator Avg. of Tasks	Admin. budget per capita		0.136
Informer: "S-W" analysis	Admin. budget per capita		0.135
Informer: "O-T" analysis	Admin. budget per capita		0.194
Informer: Reviewing trends	Admin. budget per capita		0.228
Informer: Reviewing trends	Total budget per capita		0.100
Informer: Determining PICs	Admin. budget per capita		0.158
Informer Avg. of Tasks	Admin. budget per capita		0.239
Integrator: Comp. plan link	Local gov't officials	INV.	0.109
Integrator: Comp. plan link	1980 population	INV.	0.107
Integrator: Comp. plan link	Admin. budget per capita		0.115
Integrator: Comp. plan link	Admin. budget as a percent		0.176
Integrator: Operating link	Admin. budget per capita		0.143
Integrator: Operating link	Admin. budget as a percent		0.235
Integrator: Program links	Admin. budget per capita		0.195
Integrator: Program links	Admin. budget as a percent		0.136
Integrator: Linking new ideas	Board size (reported)	INV.	0.127
Integrator: Plans/Budgets[RS]	CEO tenure (reported)	INV.	0.149
Integrator: Plans/Budgets[RS]	CEO Tenure (secondary)	INV.	0.131
Integrator: Plans/Budgets[RS]	No. of CEOs (secondary)		0.134
Integrator Avg. of Tasks	Board size (reported)	INV.	0.100
Integrator Avg. of Tasks	1980 population	INV.	0.112
Integrator Avg. of Tasks	Admin. budget per capita		0.160
Integrator Avg. of Tasks	Admin. budget as a percent		0.173
Change Master: Long-term	Admin. budget per capita		0.127
Change Master: Short-term	Admin. budget per capita		0.120
Change Master: Setting	Board size (reported)	INV.	0.107
Change Master: Setting	Admin. budget per capita		0.110
Change Master Avg. of Tasks	Admin. budget per capita		0.130

NOTES: Board refers to Board or Council.
 (reported) refers to information reported on the survey.
 (secondary) refers to information from secondary sources.
 INV refers to a relationship that is in a direction contrary to the expected.
 [RS] refers to the response set variables which were expected to be negatively-associated with the strategic planning process. (INV on a response set variable indicates an unexpected positive-to-positive relationship).

Correlation Analysis Results -- Continued

Role Perception Variable	Structural Variable	Note	R ²
Leader: Pct. of Work	Type of government	INV.	0.122
Leader: Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.155
Leader: Pct. of Work	Total budget per capita		0.128
Accommodator: Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.158
Informer: Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.263
Integrator: Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.151
Change Master: Pct. of Work	Management staff		0.139
Change Master: Pct. of Work	Staff involvement		0.243
Change Master: Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.128
Average of Pct. of Work	Admin. budget per capita		0.227
Average of Pct. of Work	Total budget per capita		0.100
Leader: Involvement	Staff involvement		0.120
Leader: Involvement	Local gov't officials		0.120
Leader: Involvement	Planning budget as percent		0.118
Accommodator: Involvement	Total budget (reported)		0.144
Accommodator: Involvement	FTEs: Non-school		0.143
Accommodator: Involvement	Management staff		0.106
Accommodator: Involvement	Planning staff		0.145
Accommodator: Involvement	Citizen involvement		0.111
Accommodator: Involvement	Local gov't officials		0.100
Accommodator: Involvement	1980 population		0.146
Accommodator: Involvement	1990 population		0.130
Accommodator: Involvement	1992 population		0.129
Accommodator: Involvement	Administrative budget		0.136
Accommodator: Involvement	Planning budget		0.150
Accommodator: Involvement	Total budget		0.161
Change Master: Involvement	Total budget (reported)		0.102
Change Master: Involvement	FTEs: Non-school		0.119
Change Master: Involvement	Planning staff		0.323
Change Master: Involvement	Citizen involvement		0.117
Change Master: Involvement	Local gov't officials		0.104
Change Master: Involvement	1980 population		0.103
Change Master: Involvement	1990 population		0.121
Change Master: Involvement	1992 population		0.126
Change Master: Involvement	Administrative budget		0.177
Change Master: Involvement	Planning budget		0.174
Change Master: Involvement	Total budget		0.132
Average of Involvement	Total budget (reported)		0.119
Average of Involvement	FTEs: Non-school		0.111
Average of Involvement	Planning staff		0.198
Average of Involvement	Local gov't officials		0.135
Average of Involvement	1980 population		0.115
Average of Involvement	1990 population		0.119
Average of Involvement	1992 population		0.121
Average of Involvement	Administrative budget		0.144
Average of Involvement	Planning budget		0.157
Average of Involvement	Planning budget as percent		0.100
Average of Involvement	Total budget		0.131

NOTES: Board refers to Board or Council.
 (reported) refers to information reported on the survey.
 (secondary) refers to information from secondary sources.
 INV refers to a relationship that is in a direction contrary to the expected.
 [RS] refers to the response set variables which were expected to be negatively-associated with the strategic planning process. (INV on a response set variable indicates an unexpected positive-to-positive relationship).

STAGES SUBHYPOTHESES

Analysis of Variance on Stages and Leader Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
STAGE	8	3063	383	0.56	0.807
Error	313	212393	679		
TOTAL	321	215457			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
1	39	59.49	27.72
2	36	53.06	27.86
3	38	57.89	27.23
4	38	59.47	27.89
5	37	55.27	26.67
6	37	55.95	23.97
7	34	57.35	24.90
8	32	53.28	23.06
9	31	49.35	23.51

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on Stages and Accommodator Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
STAGE	8	3411	426	0.58	0.795
Error	314	231306	737		
TOTAL	322	234717			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
1	40	54.25	30.39
2	35	46.71	30.89
3	38	49.61	27.07
4	38	50.26	25.17
5	37	53.92	26.22
6	37	56.76	24.61
7	35	51.86	26.57
8	32	57.66	25.43
9	31	52.42	26.86

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Analysis of Variance on Stages and Informer Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STAGE	8	1585	198	0.52	0.840
Error	284	107881	380		
TOTAL	292	109466			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
1	35	11.14	12.95
2	33	11.82	17.18
3	34	16.62	22.28
4	35	16.71	21.00
5	34	16.47	20.10
6	34	14.85	16.94
7	31	15.48	20.10
8	29	17.41	21.20
9	28	18.39	22.65

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F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

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Analysis of Variance on Stages and Integrator Role

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	p
STAGE	8	4292	536	0.78	0.624
Error	309	213591	691		
TOTAL	317	217883			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
1	37	42.30	27.04
2	35	35.14	26.83
3	38	45.26	26.99
4	38	39.47	24.07
5	37	43.65	26.42
6	37	47.70	27.55
7	34	45.88	25.60
8	31	45.32	26.55
9	31	45.48	25.28

NOTES : SPP refers to the Strategic Planning Process.

DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Analysis of Variance on Stages Change Master

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	P
STAGE	8	4747	593	0.83	0.579
Error	310	222414	717		
TOTAL	318	227160			

STAGE	N	MEAN	STDEV
1	39	55.64	27.61
2	35	47.57	28.55
3	38	56.71	24.50
4	37	54.73	23.63
5	37	56.08	27.41
6	37	62.43	26.29
7	34	59.85	27.21
8	31	57.90	27.50
9	31	54.84	28.50

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DF refers to Degrees of Freedom.

SS refers to Sum of Squares.

MS refers to Mean Squares.

F refers to the F-score for the analysis.

p refers to the probability of the two groups being from the same population.

MEAN refers average (mean) for each group.

STDEV refers to the Standard Deviation for each group.

Correlations Between Roles and Stages in Process

The following is a listing of the correlation analysis between the each of the five hypothesized roles and the stages in the strategic planning process.

<u>Role Perception</u>	<u>R²</u>
Leader	0.005041
Accommodator	0.003136
Informer	0.008464
Integrator	0.007225
Change Master	0.004624

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