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Conflict resolution in six United Methodist colleges in North Carolina: A plan

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CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN SIX UNITED METHODIST COLLEGES IN NORTH CAROLINA: A PLAN

by

Patricia Satterfield Padgett

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
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Approved by

Joseph E Bryson

Dissertation Advisor

APPROVAL PAGE

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PADGETT, PATRICIA SATTERFIELD. Conflict Resolution in Six United Methodist Colleges in North Carolina: A Plan. (1987) Directed by: Dr. Joseph E. Bryson. Pp. 170.

This study was undertaken to explore conflict and conflict resolution in organizations in general, and United Methodist institutions of higher education in North Carolina in particular. Further, the study was an effort to develop a useful plan for conflict resolution for these institutions. The basic research method used was the survey of literature, with attention to the literature of organizational conflict and conflict resolution, the literature of private institutions of higher education in North Carolina, and the literature of existing, and proven effective, experiences used in conflict resolution.

Three specific research techniques, beyond survey of the literature, were used to obtain information on the colleges:

(1) College Survey Instrument. This instrument was developed by the writer from variables that emerged in literature available on the four-year private college in North Carolina, and specifically on the United Methodist College. From the information gathered, matrices were developed of all the four-year private colleges. These matrices presented profiles of each United Methodist college which were helpful in determining which conflict resolution experiences were appropriate to the college environment of each institution.

(2) College President/Faculty Attitude Survey. This survey was done to help determine faculty and administration perception of self-perception, image of college, and presence of, if any, conflict on their campus. The surveys were answered anonymously and returned to the writer.

(3) Interview Instrument. Personal interviews of each United Methodist four-year college president were conducted. The questions asked related to role perception, attitudes toward conflict, and methods of resolving conflict.

The conclusions reached as a result of all the methods of research culminated in an extensive plan for conflict resolution to be used in the private institution of higher education.

The study achieved its purposes. This plan is feasible and should prove valuable for conflict resolution in private colleges.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The four-year private college in North Carolina has received increasing criticism internally and externally in the present decade. The institution has experienced rising operating costs and tuition fees while simultaneously trying to adapt to a different student population.

The institution's sister, the public college, has also had to respond to these problems. But, while the public college is governed by state and federal policy guidelines, each private college is governed by individual governing boards unrelated to other private colleges. Even those colleges of the same religious denomination are individual in governance. Public colleges are state-policy dictated institutions. Private colleges are locally influenced by the individual Boards of Directors, who determine the policy the school uses.

The Board of Directors reviews current and proposed programs and financial matters. Their role is as an overseer of the entire operation of the college.[1] They have hired a president of the college and day-to-day problems

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[1] Michael M. Myers, Fact Book on Higher Education in the South, 1981 and 1982, (Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1982), p. 35.

are handled through its office. It is between the Office of the President and the Board of Directors that conflict occurs and is hard to resolve.

The most negative product of the unresolved conflict situation is the effect that the problem has on the individual student. Queens College in Charlotte, NC, and Greensboro College in Greensboro, NC, are two specific examples of how the end result in conflict situations is first a lowering of student morale, then lower admissions applications, and finally a college that is operating in the red financially. Queens College is an example of how the college can come back successfully.[2]

The college president, the chief executive officer of the private college, has the sole responsibility for the daily operations of the college. The campus CEO, unlike the complementary CEO in industry, has a distinctively different organization in which to function. Balderston has said that the setting of higher education administration is different from the business setting in five very unique areas: (1) goals, (2) service, (3) technology, (4) professionals, and (5) vulnerability to the environment.[3]

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[2]Clyda S. Rent, "The Transformation of Queens College," The Admissions Stategist, Spring, 1985, p. 46-56.

[3]Frederick E. Balderston, "Strategic Management Approach for the 1980's: Navigating in the Trough," Journal of Higher Education, March/April, 1984, p. 112-115.

The campus operating environment is different from the business environment and conflict resolution techniques useful in business are ineffective on the campus.

In view of this unique problem, perhaps a specific plan for implementing conflict resolution techniques for the private college should be considered.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are (1) to compare current techniques of conflict resolution in private four-year colleges in North Carolina, (2) to determine effective methodology for implementing the proposed model, and (3) to develop a plan for conflict resolution specifically for the four-year private college.

Need for the Study

Private colleges appear to be more affected by unresolved conflict than do public colleges. Private colleges also appear to experience a greater turnover of administrators, including the president and faculty. Neither institution is free from internal conflict, but the basic power structure of each can give some indication of potential problems.[4]

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[4]Julianne R. Brawner, The Kudzu-Ivey Guide to Southern Colleges, (Atlanta: Kudzu-Ivey Publishing, 1983), p. 135.

Of the volumes available on basic information about private colleges, and practical guides to organizational conflict resolution, none are specifically prepared for the private college and conflict resolution. When a college seeks outside help with inside problems, the only usual sources of help come from the business sector. The private college has not escaped using outside consultants to aid in problem solving. However, the unique nature of the private college causes the outside help to be doomed to failure before it begins. The private college structure does not lend itself to solutions that are suitable to the business sector, and conflict resolution has not been available to the college in well-defined, specific programs.

The private college is unique in yet another way. It is very susceptible to a good public relations image. More than the public college, the image of the private college is a drawing card for admissions candidates. Unresolved conflict is at the heart of colleges with severe financial problems. (Wake Forest University and Duke University are private institutions in the state of North Carolina. Neither of these schools, however, has pressing financial problems due to the tremendous endowments of the Babcock, Reynolds, and Duke Foundations.)[5]

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[5]Ellen Earle Chaffee, "Successful Strategic Management in Small Private Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, March/April, 1984, p. 212-215.

Limitations of the Study

This study will be limited to six four-year private colleges in North Carolina. Each college is connected with the United Methodist Church. Duke University, the seventh of the United Methodist Church colleges, will not be used in this study.

Definitions of Terms

In order to clarify the meaning of specific terms, the following words are defined:

Conflict: Mutual antagonism of ideas, interests, etc., specifically as the antagonism relates to the campus environment.

Conflict Resolution: The act of terminating antagonism, or reducing the conflict into a simpler form that can be dealt with.

Non-traditional Student: A college student who is 22+ years old, a part-time student, lives off-campus, and has a full-time job. In the year 2000, the typical student will have the characteristics of the present-day non-traditional student.

Power: Potential for exerting force. The campus Board of Directors and the President of the college have power over the administrators and faculty of an institution.

Organizational Structure: The individual parts of the private college that can function apart and together.

Professional Bureaucracy: An institutution whose primary figures are professional people who generally work separately for the organization, but who can work together.

Closed Bureaucracy: An institution whose primary figures are formalized, usually functional, and whose work is standardized.[6]

Methods and Procedures

Selection and Sample

There are seven United Methodist four-year colleges in North Carolina. This study will include six, excluding Duke University. The sample will further include one faculty member and one administrator in each college.

Characteristics of the Model

The plan will be a conflict resolution plan. It will consist of a plan that will determine the current type of conflict resolution programs being used currently, and will introduce a conflict resolution program. The model will use the dimensions of personal and organizational conflict resolution.

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[6]Charles E. Osgood, George J. Suci, and Percy H. Tannenbaum, The Management of Meaning, (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1957), p. 218.

Materials Used

A simple interview instrument will be distributed to both college participants in all six colleges.

Interviews

A faculty member and an administrator from each campus will be interviewed. Personal interviews will be the optimum choice, but in the case that personal interviews are not possible, letters or telephone calls will be used.

Anthropological Research Methods

Due to the nature of the study, two methods appropriate to the field of anthropological research will be utilized in addition to interviewing: (1) observation, and (2) journalizing.

Analysis of Data

Survey Population

From the personal interviews and information from the interview instrument, a configuration of the typical administrator and the typical faculty member will be determined. This will include such data as educational background, continuing education events attended, perceived image of the college where working, and other pertinent data.

Perceived Patterns of College Image

The instrument and the interview should give a pattern of how each component, faculty and administration, sees their role on the campus, and how the image of the college is perceived by the community.

Administrative Attitude

Administrative attitude will be measured through the use of a Semantic Differential. A Semantic Differential consists of a group of selected concepts and relevant bipolar adjectives. The administrator indicates his or her feelings about each concept on the basis of a four-point scale.[7] The specific concepts to be rated in this study include the following: College, Management, Colleagues, Communication, Conflict, and Me.

Faculty Attitude

Faculty attitude will also be measured through the use of a Semantic Differential. The specific concepts to be rated in this study are the following: Teaching, College, Colleagues, Communication, Conflict, and Me.

The particular concepts for administration and faculty were chosen because of their relevance to the research problem, conflict resolution in the private four-year college. As Kerlinger stated, "one of the general requirements for the selection and use of concepts is that they must elicit varied responses from different individuals."[8]

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[7]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 2nd. ed., (New York: Holt Rhinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1972), p. 178.

[8]Ibid.

An appropriate set of scales, or bipolar adjectives, will be selected which will be applicable to the stated concepts. A four-point scale will be used. The scales will be representative of the evaluation factor. Kerlinger noted that in studies of attitudes, scales of only the evaluation factor are needed.[9] The scales will include such adjectives and pairs as "pleasant-unpleasant" and "good-bad."

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[9] *Ibid*., p. 185.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RATIONALE FOR THE PLAN

Nature and Functions of Conflict

Webster defines conflict as "a clash, competitive or mutual interferences of opposing or incompatible forces or qualities (as ideas, interest, wills)."[10] Gluckman wrote that "conflict need not disrupt a social system,...indeed it may contribute towards the maintenance of society."[11] In their studies of management and conflict, Blake and Mouton point out that "conflict can delay or prevent the achievement of organization objectives and personal goals, and from that standpoint is bad. But at the same time, conflict can promote innovation, creativity and the development of new ideas...,and from that standpoint, conflict is good."[12] Coser writes that "far from being always a negative factor that tears apart, conflict may contribute in many ways to the maintenance of groups and collectivities as well as to the cementing of interpersonal

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[10] Noah Webster, Webster's School Dictionary, (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1980), p. 187.

[11] Max Gluckman, Customs and Conflict in Africa, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1959), p. 61.

[12] Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry, (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), p. 64.

relations.".[13]

The concept of conflict is basic to the understanding of conflict resolution. As McEnery writes:

> It is desperately important for human progress that those in power understand conflict more clearly.[14]

Development of Definitions

Luce and Raiffa say that there has been no shortage of definitions for conflict.[15] Robert C. North describes both the universality and inevitability of conflict:

> Conflict emerges whenever two or more persons (or groups) seek to possess the same object, occupy the same space or the same exclusive position, play incompatible roles, maintain incompatible goals or undertake mutually incompatible means for achieving their purposes....In analyzing relationships between individuals and groups, we are not concerned, then, whether the relationship contains conflict: we assume that it does.[16]

As early as 1918 Charles Horton Cooley wrote that "conflict and cooperation are not separable things but phases of one process which always involves something of

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[13]Lewis A. Coser, "Social Aspects of Conflict," International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, (New York: Macmillan Co., and The Free Press, 1968), Vol. 3, p. 23.

[14]J. H. McEnery, "Toward a New Concept of Conflict Evaluation," Conflict, January, 1985, p. 97.

[15]R. D. Luce and H. Raiffa, Games and Decisions, (New York: John Wiley, 1957), p. 238.

[16]Robert C. North, "Political Aspects of Conflict," International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, January, 1968, pp. 226-228.

both."[17] Pondy succinctly says that "conflict is not necessarily bad or good."[18] Mason is more decisive as to the two roles of conflict when he states that:

> There are two general types of conflict: those which work to build tensions and stimulate drive in individuals and those which work to motivate an entire organization.[19]

Robbins writes that concept of conflict has given birth to more schools of thought than any other subjects except God and love.[20] Blake and Mouton say that "from a practical point of view, then, conflict might as well be accepted as inevitable."[21] McEnery's approach is that "any relationship between individuals or groups has been analyzed as necessarily involving conflictual as well as cooperative (or integrative) elements."[22] Robbins summarizes the definitions of conflict as follows:

> In spite of the divergent meanings the term has acquired, several common themes underlie most

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[17] Charles Coley, Social Progress, (New York: Scribner, 1918).

[18] L. R. Pondy, "Organizational Conflict: Concepts and Models," The Management of Change and Conflict, (London: Penguin Books, 1967), pp. 296-320.

[19] Joseph G. Mason, How to Build Your Management Skills, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), p. 152.

[20] Stephen P. Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, 3rd ed., (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1986), p. 337.

[21] Blake and Mouton, Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry, p. 143.

[22] McEnery, Conflict, pp. 37-87.

> definitions. Conflict must be perceived by the parties to it. Whether conflict exists or not is a perception issue. If no one is aware of a conflict, it is generally agreed that no conflict exists.[23]

Huseman, Hatfield, Lahiff, and Penrose say that:

> In conflict situations perception plays a major role. In some cases perception may be the cause of conflict. Whatever the cause of a conflict situation, those involved must be aware of the conflict in order for it to exist.[24]

Perceptions related to conflict are illustrated by Huseman, Hatfield, Lahiff, and Penrose in five distinct situations. The conflict situations are as follows:

1. Intra-individual conflict occurs when the designated perceiver experiences conflict within himself or herself. Such conflict may arise from personal or job responsibilities and may influence, either directly or indirectly, job performance.

2. Inter-individual conflict exists between the designated perceiver and another individual within the organization. Although the other person need not be aware of the conflict, the perceiver of the conflict situation recognizes the present or future impact it can have on job performance.

3. Intra-group conflict occurs between the designated perceiver and his or her immediate group within the organization. The immediate group can consist of one's work team, department, or union. Whether fully or only partially aware of the conflict issue, the perceiver realizes

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[23] Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, p.

[24] Richard C. Huseman, John D. Hatfield, John M. Penrose, Jr., and James Lahiff, Business Communications Strategies and Skills, (Chicago: The Dryden Press, 1984), p. 215.

that it can directly or indirectly affect job performance.

4. Inter-group conflict arises between the designated perceiver's immediate group and another group within the organization. Again, the perceiver's involvement may not be critical, but he or she must be aware of the situation and the potential impact it can have on work performance.

5. Organization-environment conflict arises between the perceiver's organization and the environment it is part of. Environment may refer to the city, country, or world in which the organization exists. Whatever the context, the environmental boundary should be defined so that the conflict situation is accurately understood. As with the other conflict circumstances, the perceiver may be acutely aware or only casually aware of the conflict and its effect upon job performance.[25]

To further aid in understanding the relationship shared by conflict and perception, Deutsch writes that:

> Given the fact that the ability to place oneself in the other's shoes is notoriously underemployed and underdeveloped in most people, and also given that this ability is impaired by stress and inadequate information, it is to be expected that certain typical biases will emerge in the perceptions of actions during conflict.
>
> If each side in a conflict tends to perceive its own motives and behavior as more benevolent and legitimate than those of the other side, it is evident that the conflict will spiral upward in intensity.[26]

Stoner and Wankel define conflict as "a difference between two or more organization members or groups aris-

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[25] Ibid., p. 220.

[26] M. Deutsch, "Productive and Destructive Conflict," The Management of Change and Conflict, (London: Penguin Books, 1967), p. 300.

ing from the fact that they must share scarce resources or work activities and/or from the fact that they have different status, goals, values, or perceptions."[27]

Funk and Wagnall's Standard Desk Dictionary defines conflict as follows:

noun 1. A struggle; battle.

2. Mutual antagonism, as of ideas, interests, etc.

3. A clash between contradictory impulses within an individual.

verb 1. To come into collision; be in mutual opposition, clash.

2. To engage in battle; struggle.[28]

The definitions offered here are descriptive in nature. Deutsch and Robbins have written many articles and books on the subject of conflict and their definitions have been included here. But, these authorities on the subject of conflict differ in their use of the term "conflict." However, the authors provide sufficient leeway in discussion of descriptive definitions for the researcher to make decisions about the final form of the definitions after an exploration of uses.

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[27] James A. Stoner and Charles Wankel, Management, 3rd ed., (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1986), p. 240.

[28] Funk & Wagnall's Standard Desk Dictionary, 1983 ed., (U.S.: Lippincott & Crowell Publishers, 1980), p. 201.

Additionally, the researcher found that there is an altogether different understanding of conflict in the realm of international justice. The definitions dealing with the term "conflict" deal with the influence of power in conflict interaction in the international scope.

In the past thirty years organizations have changed their attitudes on conflict. Stephen P. Robbins has written about this change and has identified three views prevalent in this evolution, which are distinguished as follows:

1. The Traditional View

> The traditional view of conflict is that it is bad and that it is harmful. Conflict was to be avoided at all costs. This view is that managers of an organization have position power to direct the organization through sound business management principles.[29]

Frederick Taylor, the Father of Scientific Management, also believed that proper application of the principles of management scientifically could abolish the age-old conflict between management and labor.[30] The essence of the principles of scientific management as practiced by Taylor are as follows:

> First. Managers should develop a science for each element of a man's work, which replaces the old rule-of-thumb method.

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[29] Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, pp. 338-339.

[30] Ibid.

> Second. Managers should scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the workman, whereas in the past he chose his own work and trained himself as best he could.
>
> Third. Managers should heartily cooperate with the men so as to insure all of the work being done in accordance with the principles of the science which has been developed.
>
> Fourth. There is almost equal division of the work and the responsibility between the management and the workmen. The management takes over all the work for which they are better fitted than the workmen, while in the past almost all of the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown upon the men.[31]

The traditional view of conflict within an organization prevailed in the United States in the 1920's and 1930's.

2. The Behavioral View

> The behavioral position states that conflict is normal in all organizations. This inevitability of conflict within an organization could be used to benefit job performance, and so was not at all bad. It was to be accepted as a natural occurrence.[32]

This view prevailed in the 1940's through the 1960's.

3. The Interactional View

> This viewpoint is in direct opposition to the traditional view. The traditionalist believes that conflict is bad, and should be avoided. The interactionist encourages conflict because this view is that the presence of conflict will prevent an organization from becoming static, apathetic and nonresponsive to needs of change

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[31] Frederick W. Taylor, Principles of Scientific Management, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1911), p. 26.

[32] Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, pp. 338-339.

and innovation within the organization.[33]

The interactionist view has prevailed since the 1970's. Table 1 simply explains the differences in the traditional versus the interactional views on conflict within an organization.[34]

Robbins takes the interactionist view further by saying, "good and bad conflict can exist within an organization."[35] The potential for helping or hindering job performance is the basic qualification for determining whether existing conflict is functional or dysfunctional, good or bad. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between conflict and jcb performance.[36]

Conflict, then, does exist within organizations. It can be used as a positive force to improve job performance, or it will exist and hinder job performance. In order for the conflict to be used positively it has to be resolved. As Deutsch says:

> The writings on personality development unfortunately have little to say about productive conflict; the focus is on pathelogical conflict. Yet, each of us knows from his own personal experiences as well as from the biographies of such men as Freud, Darwin, and St. Augustine

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[33]Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, pp. 338-339.

[34]Stoner and Wankel, Management, 3rd ed., p. 241.

[35]Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, p. 339.

[36]Stoner and Wankel, Management, 3rd ed., p. 241.

Table 1

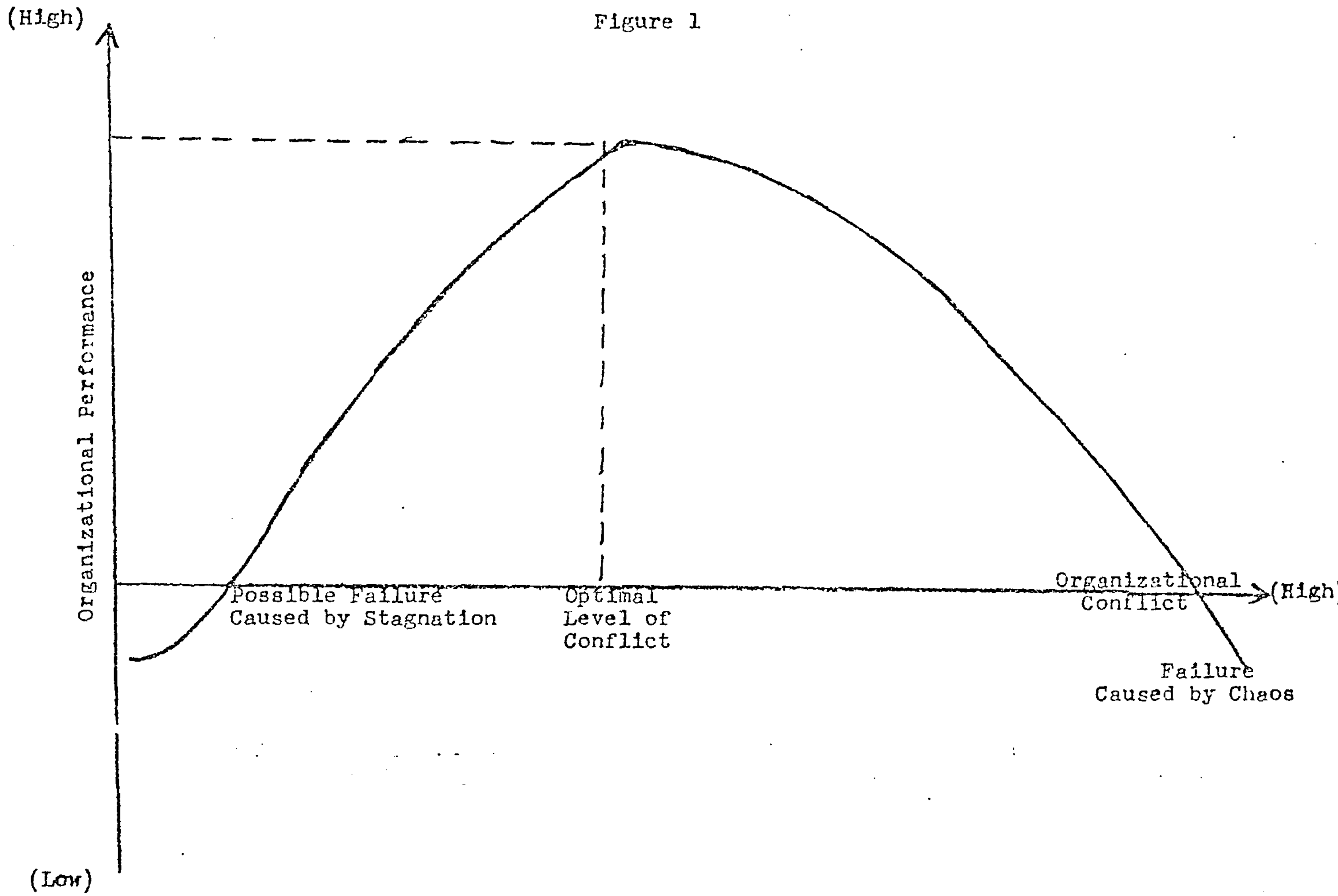
Traditional and Interactional Views of Conflict[37]

Traditional View	Interactional View
Conflict is avoidable.	Conflict is inevitable.
Conflict is caused by management errors in designing and managing organizations or by troublemakers.	Conflict arises from many causes, including organizational structure, unavoidable differences in goals, differences in perceptions and values of specialized personnel, and so on.
Conflict disrupts the organization and prevents optimal performance.	Conflict contributes to an detracts from organizational performance in varying degrees.
The task of management is to eliminate conflict.	The task of management is to manage the level of conflict, and its resolution for optimal organizational performance.
Optimal organizational performance requires the removal of conflict.	Optimal organizational performance requires a moderate level of conflict.

[37] *Ibid.*

Figure 1

The Relationship Between Conflict and Job Performance



> that intense inner conflict is often the prelude to major emotional and intellectual growth.[38]

The researcher discovered that presence and inevitability of conflict within an organization is generally accepted by those in the fields of business management, communications, and organizational behavior. Why conflict occurs and how conflict can be resolved are the next topics to be discussed here.

Huseman, Lahiff, Penrose, and Hatfield say that "there are certain social relationships that characterize various kinds of conflict."[39] The authors have established nine specific, informal situations that can lead to conflict within an organization. There is no discrimination between the business sector or higher education because they state that these are settings in which conflict may occur, regardless of the structure or setting. These settings are briefly given as follows:

1. Ambiguous jurisdiction. People personalize their jobs, and therefore take exception when someone seems to be taking the job away. Job specifications can limit this type of conflict.

2. Conflict of interest. Moonlighting, a second job away from the real position, is part of this conflict, but conflict of interest can exist on the job, too, as a

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[38] M. Deutsch, Conflict Resolution, (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1973), p. 358.

[39] Huseman, Hatfield, Penrose, and Lahiff, Business Communications Strategies and Skills, pp. 200-205.

person gets involved in dealing with an on-site job that is out of his/her purview.

3. Communication barriers. Space or time separations, or perceived differences in education or lifestyle, can create settings that are conducive to conflict.

4. Dependence of one party. Dependence on another for information needed for a report, for example, or another's delegation of authority can cause conflict.

5. Differentiation in organizations. Minute specialization can lead to overlapping of jobs and conflict.

6. Association of the parties. Newness in association usually breeds caution, but the more associates know each other, the more likely they are to lift the barrier and argue. This can be constructive as well as destructive. This setting is carefully avoided by some people who never mix business with pleasure in fear of causing business to become too personal.

7. Need for consensus. Unless an organization is designed to agree to be in agreement, as in a Quaker Society arena, the chance for consensus is low and therefore conflict is sure to arise in some form.

8. Behavior regulations. An organization's rules and regulations, while preventing conflict, often cause other conflict with those in the organization that try to escape the rules.

9. Unresolved prior conflict. Suppression of anger and distrust over prior conflicts generally inflates what really happened in the conflict. The end result is the snowball effect that continues to cause problems for those involved.[38]

Although the nine settings given can cause conflict within any organization, change and the succeeding re-

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[40] Ibid.

sistance to change appear to be the primary reasons for conflict.

Change and Conflict

Funk and Wagnall's Standard Desk Dictionary defines change as "to make different; alter."[41] Change does exist in the dynamic society of this decade. Hersey and Blanchard say, "the question is no longer if change is to occur, but how to confront change."[42] The authors go on to say:

> Although change is a fact of life, if managers are to be effective, they can no longer be content to let change occur as it will. They must be able to develop strategies to plan, direct, and control change.[43]

Change is a major attribute of thriving organizations. Riley and Balderidge interpret change in the academic arena as follows:

> Most change management is largely based on intuition and seat-of-the-pants strategy. Certainly there are no valid, tested scientific principles of change. Stimulating and managing change could, however, be less an intuitive process if knowledge based on social science research and experience of practicing change agents were applied. At least three things are needed to understand change processes in educational organizations: a comprehensive organizational perspective, that is, an understanding of crucial organizational subsystems and processes involved in innovation; familiarity with strategies that can be used to cause and sup-

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[41] Funk & Wagnall's Standard Desk Dictionary, p. 185.

[42] Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977), p. 210.

[43] Ibid.

> port educational changes,, such as leadership dynamics, the role of change agents, the dynamics of organizational politics, and the use of program evaluation processes; and practical experience with the dynamics of educational change, either from actually administering a changing institution or from gaining vicarious experience through the case studies of actual attempts to change educational organizations.[44]

The rapid changes in technology and the change in population demographics at the institution of higher education have caused management in education to take a look at how their organization can cope with the fast-paced changes.

Institutions of higher education are only beginning to struggle wih the ramifications of the fact that the non-traditional student is quite possibly going to become the typical student before the year 2000. Many students will be older, twenty-five years old and up. Many will commute rather than live in a dormitory. They will have families they are responsible for rearing. The student affairs offices will become more involved in financial planning, childcare, and inexpensive college concerts, etc. The campus as it has been known will change.[45]

The first place the change in population has been felt is at the small, private college. Many private colleges

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[44]Gary L. Riley and J. Victor Balderidge, Governing Academic Organizations, (Berkley: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1972), p. 158.

[45]Robert J. Griffore and Jed Lewis, "Antecedents of Characteristics of Adult Students," College Student Journal, Spring, 1983, pp. 395-399.

have dissolved, but many are now aware of the changes to come, and are finding methods to help stabilize their schools. "Strategic planning tells you how to get where you want to go" writes Rent from Queens College in Charlotte, North Carolina.[46]

One study was conducted to determine what specific management models were used in successful small, private colleges that were experiencing financial problems as a result of the shift in college population. The results of the study showed two distinct strategies used in management.

The first strategy used was an adaptive model. It attuned the organization to the dynamics of the business world and helped, through a marketing orientation, to up-date the school's program offerings to more closely align with what business and industry needed.[47]

The interpretive model is the other strategy. It is the management of meaning. It gets its name from the idea that the organization is a network of people who communi-cate within the organization. It is believing in the organization and doing what is in the best interests of the whole institution.[48]

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[46]Rent, The Admissions Strategist, pp. 46-56.

[47]Chaffee, Journal of Higher Education, pp. 212-215.

[48]Ibid.

Both of these strategies were found in private colleges that are successful. Both strategies were used after the colleges were in deep financial trouble and it appeared they would have to close.

The writer found the final results to be surprising. The model showed that the school using the interpretive model was actually more successful than the school using the adaptive model. The adaptive model was found to be less resilient and less able to change with change.

The interpretive model was found to be more resilient and open to change. It was also discovered that this model was successful in an organization that was receptive to, and practiced, a variety of communication techniques both in and out of the organization.

Studies to determine the best strategy to be used in a college is a fairly new concept. As long as colleges grew,and students graduated and found jobs, the college could remain an ivory tower where theories of good management practices were taught, but were seldom practiced.

Besides strategy, there is another approach that educational administrators can employ to accomplish the task of making changes in the academic environment. The approach is the quality circle.[49]

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[49] Larry Chase, "Quality Circles in Education," Educational Leadership, February, 1983, pp. 18-20.

According to Larry Chase, the quality circle is:

> A participative management tool designed to systematically harness the brain power of employees to solve an organization's problems of productivity and quality. While there are certainly many differences in ways industry and education operate, they do share one attribute: the public distrusts the quality of their products.[50]

"The quality circle is a small group of employees (5-12) who voluntarily meet on a regular basis to identify, analyze, and solve various problems," according to Chase.[51] Generally, the group is from the same or similar work area, and work together, and the problems discussed are familiar to all participants. The process includes specific steps to accomplish the goal of problem solving. Figure 2 illustrates how the quality circle operates.[52]

The quality circle is approached with skepticism by some school administrators who do not believe that this method is really any better in solving problems especially related to change in the school institution. If a participative approach is needed, then the use of Theory Z has merit.[53]

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[50] Ibid.

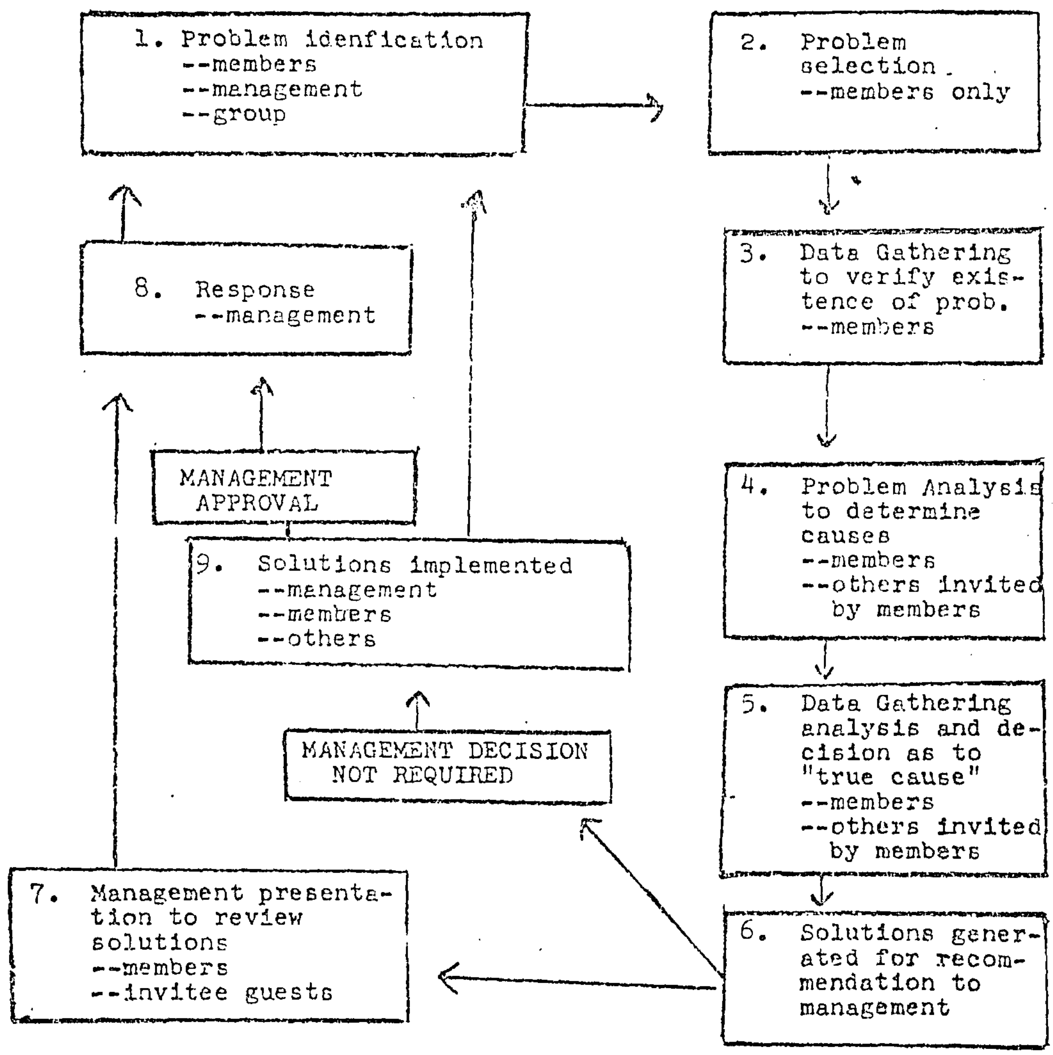
[51] Ibid.

[52] Ibid.

[53] James O'Hanlon, "Theory Z in School Administration," Educational Leadership, February, 1983, pp. 16-18.

Figure 2

Quality Circle Process



Theory Z is possibly the most popular concept in management since Frederick W. Taylor practiced his theories of Scientific Management and became known as the Father of Scientific Management.[54] Theory Z followed the normal progression after Theories X and Y, which were proposed by Douglas McGregor.[55] McGregor's theories are based on assumptions about the viewpoints managers have of the nature of human beings. How the manager views human beings will determine how the subordinates are treated by the manager, and how the manager will interpret changes in the organization to the subordinate. These assumptions are as follows:

> Under Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers are
>
> 1. Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
>
> 2. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
>
> 3. Employees will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
>
> 4. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.
>
> In contrast to these negative views toward the nature of human beings, McGregor listed four

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[54]Edwin B. Flippo, Management, A Behavioral Approach, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970), p. 87.

[55]Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, p. 124.

other assumptions that he called Theory Y

1. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.

2. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.

3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.

4. Creativity--that is, the ability to make innovative decisions--is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.[56]

There is no evidence to confirm that either set of assumptions is valid or that acceptance of Theory Y assumptions and altering one's actions in consequence leads to more motivated subordinates who will accept changes in the work environment.

In 1981 William Ouchi set forth Theory Z which attempts to integrate common management practices in the United States and Japan into one common framework.[57] Ouchi identified seven essential dimensions that are different in important management practices in both countries. These seven dimensions are as follows:

1. length of employment

2. mode of decision making

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[56]Robbins, Organizational Behavior, Concepts, Controversies, and Applications, p. 125.

[57]William Ouchi, Theory Z, (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1981), p. 45.

3. location of responsibility
4. speed of evaluation and promotion
5. mechanisms of control
6. specialization of career path
7. nature of concern for the employee.[58]

Theory Z is a management model based on four interdependent characteristics: 1) commitment to an overall philosophy; 2) emphasis on the long term; 3) trust in organization members; and, 4) participative decision making. According to Chase, "Implementation of Theory Z to school administration may have potential for addressing two long-time problems in American education: teaching as a subculture and the segmented nature of the individual school."[59] Chase further states:

> Commitment to Theory Z, while absolutely necessary, will not be enough for successful implementation. Administrators and teachers alike will need to learn the skills of participative decision making. These skills cannot be assumed to exist; definitive activities for their development must be undertaken. Furthermore, strategies for collecting feedback on the attempts to change the management style need to be identified and established to guide the Theory Z implementation. These strategies may be similar to those used later to evaluate the effectiveness of decisions made in the participative process.[60]

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[58] Ibid.

[59] Chase, Educational Leadership.

[60] Ibid.

Ouchi says:

> While the implementation of Theory Z in the school situation can be accomplished by being carried out by administrators and faculty members working together, the chief administrator is the key to success. Implementation of Theory Z must begin at the top and work down through the organization.[61]

Bruce-Briggs is one writer who has come out against implementation of Theory Z in industry or education in the United States. He says, "it is dangerous to try to apply Japanese methods out of the context of a labor force disciplined by a social hierarchy controlled by an oligarchy, in industry or in educational institutions."[62]

Chase attemps to illustrate the differences in Japanese organizations and the American school as a starting place to determine if Theory Z might have a chance to be tested in the academic arena. The illustration is as follows:

Characteristics of Staff Organizations

Japanese Organizations	American Schools
1. Lifetime employment	1. Short-term employment that may become lifetime employment
2. Slow evaluation and promotion	2. Slow evaluation and slow, or more likely, no promotion
3. Nonspecialized career path	3. Semi-specialized career paths

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[61] Ouchi, Theory Z.

[62] B. Bruce-Briggs, "The Dangerous Folly called Theory Z," Fortune, May 7, 1984, pp. 41-53.

Japanese Organizations	American Schools
4. Implicit control mechanisms	4. Explicit control mechanisms
5. Collective decision making	5. Individual decision making
6. Holistic concern	6. Segmented concern
7. Corporate responsibility	7. Individual responsibility[63]

Ouchi goes on to develop a modified American Organization Type Z that includes the most important and workable characteristics of both the Japanese and American qualities of organization. Ouchi's Type Z is as follows:

Modified American Organization Type Z

1. Long-term employment
2. Collective decision making
3. Slow evaluation and promotion
4. Individual responsibility
5. Implicit, informal control with explicit, formalized measures
6. Moderately specialized career paths
7. Holistic concern, including family[64]

It is helpful to understand various possible management styles and tools which may help in change situations. However, at this point an understanding of why people are resistant to change is appropriate.

Resistance and Overcoming Resistance to Change

Why individuals within organizations resist change has been talked about and written about for decades. Flippo has identified seven specific sources for the attitude of

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[63] Chase, Educational Leadership.

[64] Ouchi, Theory Z.

resistance to change. These sources are as follows:

1. Insecurity. Insecurity is usually suggested as the major source of general resistance. The present is known, understood, and has been absorbed. Change introduces some degree of uncertainty.

2. Social losses. The mere fact that management wishes to impose a change is evidence of the employee's lack of independence. The individual may have to choose between cooperation with management and the friendship of his fellow workers. The price in social relationships may be high.

3. Economic losses. There are many changes introduced by management which inflict economic loss upon employees. Even without the loss of job, change raises the possibility of reduced earnings, or of the same earnings accompanied by an accelerated pace or increased contribution.

4. Stability. If the organization's past history has been highly stable, it is doubly difficult to introduce a change. When personnel have not only adjusted to the status quo, but have begun to feel that it is a permanent situation, the inauguration of even the most minor change is considered to be revolutionary and highly disruptive.

5. Unanticipated repercussions. Few if any changes can be kept completely isolated: there are usually repercussions felt by other parts of the organization. These affected areas may bring about the downfall of the proposed change.

6. Inconvenience. Despite possible social and economic losses, there is in any change a certain amount of inconvenience and extra effort required to make the adjustment. Old habits must be unlearned and new practices assimilated. Thus, inconvenience is a factor which may stimulate some resistance, but it is not the most fundamental source of opposition.

7. The union. If there is at present a labor union, its representatives are at times inclined to oppose on principle any change suggested by management regardless of the proposal. Thus, it is expected that the union will produce some real

> or feigned resistance, even in cases where union leaders recognize that proposed changes are both good for union members and are inevitable.[65]

"Resistance to change is a signal to managers that something is wrong with the change proposal.... Managers, therefore, must determine the actual causes of resistance and then remain flexible enough to overcome them in an appropriate manner," according to Stoner and Wankel.[66] Implementing and managing change are important parts of a manager's job. To aid the administrator in the task of overcoming resistance to change, John P. Kotter and Leonard A. Schlesinger have identified six techniques. The techniques are as follows:

> 1. Education and communication. If the need for and logic of the change are explained early--whether individually to subordinates, to groups in meetings, or to entire organizations through elaborate audiovisual education campaigns--the road to successful change may be smoother.
>
> 2. Participation and involvement. According to a classic study by Lester Coch and John French, resistance to change can be reduced or eliminated by having those involved participate in the design of the change.[67]

Management by objectives (MBO) became popular in 1954 when Peter Drucker developed the approach to participative

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[65] Flippo, Management, A Behavioral Approach, p. 61.

[66] Stoner and Wankel, Management, 3rd ed.

[67] Lester Coch and John R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, No. 4, 1948, pp. 512-532.

decision making. MBO is "a formal, or moderately formal, set of procedures that begins with goal setting and continues through performance review. The key to MBO is that it is a participative process, actively involving managers and staff members at every organizational level."[68] MBO has become a successful and well-utilized management tool in the last 30 years. Many American organizations use this method for planning and goal setting. Many others are expected to use it in the future. In 1969 Tosi and Carroll reviewed the literature on MBO and noted the following major advantages of the program, in order of importance:

1. It lets individuals know what is expected of them.

2. It aids in planning by making managers establish goals and target dates.

3. It improves communication between managers and subordinates.

4. It makes individuals more aware of the organization's goals.

5. It makes the evaluation process more equitable by focusing on special accomplishments. It also lets subordinates know how well they are doing in relation to the organization's goals.[69]

In addition to the considerable time and effort involved in the proper implementation and follow-up of this

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[68] Peter F. Drucker, The Practice of Management, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), p. 78.

[69] Henry L. Tosi and Stephen J. Carroll, "Managerial Reaction to Management by Objectives," Academy of Management Journal II, December, 1968, pp. 415-426.

method, George S. Odiorne noted several key problems that should be controlled for success in using MBO:

1. Management style and support. If top managers prefer a strong authoritarian approach and centralized decision making, they will require considerable reeducation before they can implement an MBO program.

2. Adaption and change. MBO may require many changes in organizational structure, authority patterns, and control procedures. Many managers must support these changes. Those who participate only because they are forced to go along with the organization may easily doom the program to failure.

3. Interpersonal skills. The manager-subordinate goal-setting and review process requires a high level of skill in interpersonal relations. Many managers have neither previous experience nor natural ability in these areas. Training in counseling and interviewing may be required.

4. Job descriptions. Framing a specific list of individual objectives and responsibilities is difficult and time-consuming. In addition, job descriptions must be reviewed and revised as conditions within the organization change. This is particularly critical during the implementation stages, when impact of the MBO system itself may cause changes in duties and responsibilities at every level.

5. Setting and coordinating objectives. Setting challenging, yet realistic, objectives is frequently a source of confusion for managers. There may be problems in making the objectives measurable, in finding a happy medium between targets that are too easy and those that are impossible, and in describing the objectives clearly and precisely. In addition, it may be difficult to coordinate the overall objectives of the organization with the personal needs and objectives of individuals.

6. Control of goal achievement methods. Considerable frustration can result if one manager's efforts to achieve goals are dependent on the achievements of others within the organization.

For example, production-line managers cannot be expected to meet a target of assembling 100 units per day if their department is being supplied with parts for only 90 units. Group goal setting and flexibility are needed to solve this type of problem.

7. Conflict between creativity and MBO. Tying performance evaluation, promotion, and compensation to the achievement of objectives may be counterproductive if it tends to discourage innovation. If managers fail to try something new and possibly risky because their energies are devoted to their specific MBO objectives, some opportunities may be lost. To guard against this danger, Odiorne argues that a commitment to innovation and change should be a part of the process of establishing goals.[70]

Paul Lawrence agrees that involving employees and other concerned groups, including stockholders, is a primary method for overcoming resistance to change. Lawrence also suggests that "in order to avoid resistance, managers should take into account what the social effeccts of change will be.[71] Or as Nord says, "The capacity of any system for adapting to changing contingencies in its environment is inversely related to its dependence upon instinct, habit, or tradition."[72]

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[70] George S. Odiorne, MBO II, A System of Managerial Leadership for the 80's, (Belmont, Calif.: Fearon Pitman, 1979), p. 189.

[71] Paul R. Lawrence, "How to Deal With Resistance to Change," Harvard Business Review, January-February, 1969, pp. 107-109.

[72] W. R. Nord, Concepts and Controversy In Organizational Behavior, (Santa Monica: Goodyear Publishing, Inc., 1976), p. 357.

3. Facilitation and support. Easing the change process and providing support for those caught up in it is another way managers can deal with resistance. Retraining programs, allowing time off after a difficult period, and offering emotional support and understanding.

4. Negotiation and agreement. It is sometimes necessary for a manager to negotiate with avowed or potential resisters to change, and even to obtain written letters of understanding from the heads of organizational subunits that would be affected by the change.

5. Manipulation and co-optation. Sometimes managers covertly steer individuals or groups away from resistance to changes, or they may co-opt an individual, perhaps a key person within a group, by giving him or her a desirable role in designing or carrying out the change process.

6. Explicit and implicit coercion. Managers may force people to go along with a change by explicit or implicit threats involving loss or transfer of jobs, lack of promotion, and the like. Such methods, though not uncommon, risk making it more difficult to gain support for future change efforts.[73]

Keller and Schlesinger devised a chart that summarizes the six techniques for overcoming resistance. The chart is an interpretation of when one of the techniques may be used and the advantages and disadvantages of using each approach in various situations. Table 2 illustrates the methods for dealing with resistance to change.[74]

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[73]John P. Kotter and Leonard A. Schlesinger, "Choosing Strategies for Change," Harvard Business Review, March-April, 1979, pp. 167-168.

[74]Ibid.

Table 2

Methods for Dealing with Resistance to Change[75]

	Method	When To Use	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.	Fducation Communication	There is a lack of information or inaccurate information and analysis.	Once persuaded, people will often help implement the change.	Can be very time-consuming if many people are involved.
2.	Participation and Involvement	The initators do not have all the information they need to design the change, and others have considerable power to resist.	People who participate will be committed to implementing change, and any relevant information they have will be integrated into the change plan.	Can be very time-consuming if participators design an inappropriate change.
3.	Facilitation and Support	People are resisting because of adjustment problems.	No other approach works as well with adjustment problems.	Can be time-consuming and still fail.
4.	Negotiation and Agreement.	Some person or group with considerable power to resist will clearly lose out in a change.	Sometimes it is a relatively easy way to avoid major resistance.	Can be too expensive if it alerts others to negotiate for compliance.
5.	Manipulation and Co-optation	Other tactics will not work or are too expensive.	It can be a relatively quick and inexpensive solution to resistance problems.	Can lead to further problems if people feel manipulated.
6.	Explicit and Implicit coercion	Speed is essential, and the change initators possess considerable power.	It is speedy and can overcome any kinds of resistance.	Can be risky if it leaves people angry with the initiators.

[75] *Ibid*.

Higher Education: A Distinctive Organization

Although the basic principles of business management can be found in the institution of higher education, the environment in academics is different than the environment in the business sector in several important ways. The characteristics of the organization of higher education are different due to these variances, the population in the organization, however, requires different understandings about the way people work, and the way in which they perceive their roles in the institution. As Balderidge states:

> Colleges and universities are different from most other kinds of complex organizations. Their goals are more ambiguous and contested, they serve clients instead of seeking to make a profit, their technologies are unclear and problematic, and professionals dominate the work force and decision-making process. Thus colleges and universities are not standard bureaucracies, but can best be described as organized anarchies.[76]

In 1947 Max Weber wrote a monumental book on bureaucracies. In his book he includes research on the college or university which includes "such elements as tenure, appointment to office, salaries as a rational form of payment, and competency as the basis of promotion."[77]

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[76] Victor Balderidge, Power and Conflict in the University, (New York: John Wiley, 1971), p. 154.

[77] Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, (New York: Free Press, 1947), p. 183.

The academic arena is more easily understood by applying the bureaucratic model and comparing the arena with political and bureaucratic characteristics. Table 3 summarizes decision making, governance and leadership.[78] Herbert Stroup, writing specifically on the bureaucratic factors as applied to the college or university, gave the following:

> 1. The university is a complex organization under a special charter, like most other bureaucracies. This seemingly innocent fact has major consequences, especially as the charter issuee seeks to exercise control.
>
> 2. The university has a formal hierarchy, with offices and a set of bylaws that specify the relations between those offices. Professors, instructors, and research assistants may be considered bureaucratic officers in the same sense as deans, chancellors, and presidents.
>
> 3. There are formal channels of communication that must be respected.
>
> 4. There are definite bureaucratic authority relations, with certain officials exercising authority over others. In a university the authority relations are often vague and shifting, but no one would deny that they exist.
>
> 5. There are formal policies and rules that govern much of the institution's work, such as library regulations, budgetary guidelines, and procedures of the university senate.
>
> 6. The bureaucratic elements of the university are most vividly apparent in its people-processing aspects: record keeping, registration, graduation requirements, and a multitude of other routine, day-to-day activities designed to help the modern university handle its masses of students.

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[78] Ibid.

Table 3

Three Models of Decision Making, Governance, and Leadership[79]

Assumptions about structure	Hierarchical bureaucracy	Community of peers	Fragmented, complex professional federation
Social	Unitary: integrated by formal system	Unitary: integrated by peer consensus	Pluralistic: encompasses different interest groups with divergent values
Basic theoretical foundations	Weberian bureaucracy, classic studies of formal systems	Professionalism literature, human-relations approach to organization	Conflict analysis, interes group theory, community power literature
View of decision-making process	"Rational"decision making; standard operating procedures	Shared collegial decision: consensus, community participation	Negotiation, bargaining, political influence, political brokerage, external influences
Cycle of decision making	Problem definition; search for alternatives; evaluation of alternatives; calculus; choice; implementation	As in bureaucratic model, but in addition stresses the involvement of professional peers in the process	Emergence of issue out of social context, interest interest articulation; conflict; legislative process implementation of policy; feedback
Basic leadership image	Hero	"First among equals"	Statesman
Leadership skills	Technical problem-solving skills	Interpersonal dynamics	Political strategy, interpersonal dynamics, coalition management
Management style	"Scientific Management"	Management by consensus	Strategic decision making
Expectation	Very high; people believe the hero-leader can solve problems and he tries to play the role	Modest: leader is developer of consensus among professionals	Modest: leader marshals political action but is constrained by the counter efforts of other groups

[79] Ibid.

7. Bureaucratic decision making processes are used most often by officials assigned the responsibility for making routine decisions by the formal administrative structure. Examples are admissions procedures, handled by the dean of admissions; procedures for graduation, routinely administered by designated officials; and financial matters, usually handled in a bureaucratic manner by the finance office.[80]

Bill Johnson has come a step farther in understanding the unique characteristics of the academic arena that make it a different organization than the business organization:

1. Goals. Colleges do have goals but they are more often than not ambiguous and so are rarely tested. The goals are generally not substantiated as to whether the goals are workable.

2. Service. Institutions of learning can be compared to the assembly line in industry. The products that are made are the students as they go through a well-defined course of study for four years and then are graduates. Responding in a service mode, the student should have the first allegiance of the faculty and staff.

3. Technology. Unlike the business sector that has various levels of management as well as predetermined technology that, working together, can predetermine how a product will be when it has undergone the assembly, faculty operate in an arena where technology is problematic and difficult at best to tell how a student will "turn out."

4. Professionals. The faculty member must perform a variety of tasks in order to "turn out" the college graduate. The professional works in an unpredictable environment with unpredictable clients and unpredictable routines. Even what is prepared to teach in class is often changed during the class in order to blend in

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[80] Herbert Stroup, Bureaucracy in Higher Education, (New York: Free Press, 1966), p. 88.

with the particular population in that class. Professional employees have certain characteristics that separate them from the nonprofessional. One author has suggested the following attributes of the professional:

a. Professionals demand autonomy in their work. Having acquired considerable skill and expertise in their field, they demand freedom from supervision in applying the skills and expertise.

b. Professionals have divided loyalties. They have "cosmopolitan" tendencies and loyalty to their peers at the national level and this may sometimes interfere with loyalty to their local organizations.

c. There are strong tensions between professional values and bureaucratic expectations in an organization. This can intensify conflict between professional employees and organizational managers.

d. Professionals demand peer evaluation of their work. They believe that only their colleagues can judge their performance, and they reject the evaluations of others, even those who are technically their superiors in the organization.

5. Vulnerability to the environment. Prior to 1964, the majority of colleges were insulated from the external environment. Whatever management style was used, whatever the method of recruitment of faculty used, and whatever admission policy was employed, was determined by the individual college, both private and state-owned.

   In the 1960's, the external environment of the college changed. Administration, faculty and client roles changed. Each segment is still delineated, but the responsibility each group has on the other groups is very apparent. The changes have made each group vulnerable, but each group thinks they are the most vulnerable.[81]

Bureaucratic institutions, whether in business or higher education, suffer when the workplace is altered by change. Part of the resistance to change for the academician results from the conditioning for professionalism that is received on the university while a student. As Johnson writes:

> ...teachers are conditioned in university training programs and through association memberships to think of themselves as professionals. Professionalism commonly implies that relationships will be collegial and egalitarian, that the individual will exercise autonomy, and that the primary role responsibility is to the client. There is great potential for conflict as teachers attempt to exercise professional norms of behavior in a bureaucratic organization based upon hierarchy of authority, organizationally prescribed role responsibilities, and role responsibility to the organization.[82]

Weber's work on bureaucracies was a huge success in 1947. His work as it specifically relates to the academic arena has been elaborated on by Balderston. His premise is that although the university is indeed a bureaucracy, as defined by Weber, it is also a professional bureaucracy. He says that the multinational corporation operates in a closed bureaucracy and that there are vast differences in each type of system. The differences be-

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[81] Bill Johnson, "Organizational Structure and Ideology in Schooling," Educational Theory, Fall, 1985, pp. 333-343.

[82] Ibid.

tween each institution, as seen by Balderston, are shown in Table 4.[83] The table illustrates in a simple form the various components of both the closed and professional bureaucracy. That table may help to uncloud the issue of why a college or university behaves the way it does. It may help to understand why the characteristics of the university or college: 1) has unclear goals; 2) has a responsibility first to client services; 3) operates in unclear technology; 4) stresses professionalism at all levels; and 5) is more vulnerable to the environment than even its business bureaucratic counterpart, according to Cohen and March.[84]

The Plight of Private Institutions of Higher Education

Private education as an important resource for the world, according to Kraushaar, "is currently in serious jeopardy."[85] The problems faced by the institution are like those faced by most segments of society. Goldmark explains it this way:

> When we combine the brief span of accomplishments by modern civilizations into a single graph and plot them on the scale of human

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[83] Balderston, Journal of Higher Education, p. 112-115.

[84] Michael D. Cohen and James G. March, Leadership and Ambiguity: The American College President, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974), p. 135.

[85] O. F. Kraushaar, American Nonpublic Schools, (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1972), p. ix.

Table 4

Closed Bureaucracy/Professional Bureaucracy[86]

	Closed Bureaucracy	Professional Bureaucracy
Key coordinating mechanism	Standardization of work	Standardization of skills
Key part of organization	Technostructure	Operating Core
Design parameters: specialization of jobs	Much horizontal & vertical specialization	Much horizontal specialization
Training and indoctrination	Little	Much of each
Formalization of behavior	Much formalization/ bureaucratic	Little formalization/democratic
Grouping	Usually functional	Functional and market
Unit size	Wide at bottom/ narrow elsewhere	Wide at bottom/ narrow elsewhere
Planning and control systems	Action planning	Little planning and control
Liaison devises	Few liaison devises	Liaison devices in administration
Decentralization	Limited horizontal decentralization	Horizontal and vertical decentralization
Functioning: strategic apex	Fine tuning, coordination of functions, conflict resolution	External liaison, conflict resolution
Operating core	Routine, formalized work with little discretion	Skilled, standardized work with much individual autonomy
Middle line	Elaborated and differentiated resolution staff liaison	Conrolled by professionals; much mutual adjustment
Technostructure	Elaborated to formalized work	Little

[86]Balderston, Journal of Higher Education, pp. 112-115.

Table 4 (continued)

	Closed Bureaucracy	Professional Bureaucracy
Support staff	Often elaborated to reduce uncertainty	Elaborated to support professionals; machine bureaucracy structure
Flow of authority	Significant throughout	Insignificant (except in support staff)
Flow of regulated systems	Significant throughout	Insignificant (except in support staff)
Flow of informal connunications	Discouraged	Significant in administration
Work constellations	Insignificant, especially at lower levels	Some in administration
Flow of decision making	Top down	Bottom up
Contingency factors:		
Age and size	Typically old and large (2nd stage)	Varies
Technical system	Regulating, but not automated, not very sophisticated	Not regulating or sophisticated
Environment	Simple and stable	Complex and stable
Power	Technocratic and external control	Professional operator control

> history over the past ten thousand years, the curve shoots up almost vertically pointing at infinity. We can look at this sudden and frightening increase in the rate of change equally as the measure of how rapidly we use our resources and how far we are from planning ahead.[87]

The Influential Carnegie Commission on Higher Education said that:

> Society is changing in many ways, including more education per capita, more affluence, more urbanization, constantly newer technology (particularly in the electronic field), higher aspirations among women and minority group members, a new interest in designing the future through the hand of man, among many others. In total, these forces will change the surrounding society substantially and thus will have indirect as well as direct impacts on the purposes of higher education.[88]

Alvin Toffler's book, Future Shock, published in 1972, was probably the most thorough piece of research on changing society at that time. He says: "change is avalanching upon our heads and most people are grotesquely unprepared to cope with it."[89] Toffler further states, "The Super-Industrial Revolution will consign to the archives of ignorance most of what we now believe about democracy and

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[87] P. C. Goldmark, The New Rural Society, (Stamford, Conn.: Goldmark Communications Corporation, 1972), p. 1.

[88] The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, The Purposes and the Performance of Higher Education in the United States, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973), p. 53.

[89] Alvin Toffler, Future Shock, (New York: Bantam Books, 1970), p. 12.

the future of human choice."[90]

Toffler explains that institutions and people of the future will be faced with "overchoice" and that increasingly more colleges and schools will offer options to what was known as "traditional education" in the 1960's. He says of schools: "The whole administrative hierarchy of education, as it grew up, followed the model of industrial bureaucracy."[91]

The strategy of social futurism is summed up by Toffler with this statement: "To master change, we shall therefore need both a clarification of important long-range social goals and a democratization of the way which we arrive at them."[92]

In 1983 Toffler published Previews & Premises. It offers some proposals for dealing with the changes in society, but first he vividly describes the changes we face. He says:

> What is happening is not like a hurricane that sweeps across the landscape, leaving the earth itself unchanged. It is more like the beginnings of an earthquake. For the subterranean structure on which all our economics are based is now, itself, shifting, cracking. In our efforts to prevent a major collapse, we are dealing with surface phenomena rather than focussing on the deep-structure, where the

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[90] Ibid, p. 263.

[91] Ibid, p. 400.

[92] Ibid, p. 477.

really big changes are occurring.[93]

The role of change is acknowledged by Bennis who states: "We live in an age...when unpredictable change destroys old values before new ones can be developed"[94] and says further that the answer is "a joint effort that involves mutual determination of goals."[95]

Private institutions of higher education have felt significant fluctuations in enrollment over the past decade, and as Kraushaar writes:

> Combining these sources of information, statistical and otherwise, leads to the following general conclusion: a ground swell of private school growth began soon after the Great Depression of the 1930's, the trend accelerated significantly after the Second World War, and crested in the midsixties. Since then, the decline in Catholic school enrollment has evidently more than offset increases in small but growing groups of Protestant and Jewish schools, black schools, segregationist academies, and experimental... schools.[96]

Also noted by Kraushaar is that schools that are members of the National Association for Independent Schools "show a slow but steady growth, but at a rate

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[93]Alvin Toffler, Previews & Premises, (New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1983), p. 9.

[94]W. G. Bennis, "A New Role for the Behavioral Sciences: Effecting Organizational Change," Administrative Science Quarterly, October, 1963, p. 127.

[95]Ibid, p. 139.

[96]Kraushaar, American Nonpublic Schools, p. 17.

slower than that of the public institution."[97]

Many private colleges and universities have had severe economic problems to the point that they regularly submit to government funding. When one church-related college in North Carolina had to undergo some programming changes in order to get aid, the president of the college said he was "dismayed at church-related schools which seem to be de-emphasizing religion so they can become secular enough to qualify for government funds."[98]

Most private institutions in North Carolina request funding annually from government sources. The writer found that Gardner-Webb College in Boiling Springs, North Carolina was the only four-year private college in the state that had not received any kind of government funding since it began in 1905, according to a report published in Accredited Postseccondary Institutions and Programs, Including Institutions Holding Preaccredited Status.[99]

The downhill slide in enrollment in private colleges was reversed in 1975, according to this article. But, this reversal did not take enrollment away from the public insti-

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[97] Ibid.

[98] H. Harris, "Church Related Colleges Change," Greensboro Daily News, September 29, 1975, pp. A3.

[99] Accredited Postsecondary Institutions and Programs, Including Institutions Holding Preaccredited Status, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983), p. 391.

tutions. As Harris states:

> Several denominations recently decreased the amount of money spent on their own colleges and increased funding for chaplaincies at state-supported schools. Church officials cited the increasing enrollments at state schools and decreasing enrollments at church schools as the major reason for the changes in funding.[100]

Rexford Moon provided one of the most eloquent statements on the plight of private higher education when he said: "The majority of private institutions make no extensive plans simply because of a bleak uncertainty that they can survive long enough to make planning worthwhile."[101]

The private institution is not alone in its funding problems. Rather, the problem is a universal one effecting all institutions of learning. As Kraushaar says:

> All along we have stressed the diversity that characterizes the private school world as a whole. But there is one respect in which non-public schools are all alike, and that is in their concern over how to make ends meet. There is little or no diversity in respect to this well-nigh universal financial plight.[102]

He states further that "...changes in some schools appear

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[100] Harris, "Church Related Colleges Change," p. A4.

[101] Rexford G. Moon, Jr., National Planning for Education, (New York: Academy for Educational Development, 1970), p. I-10.

[102] Kraushaar, American Nonpublic Schools, p. 201.

to be virtually dictated by the sharp drop in client interest."[103] Maciariello and Enteman agree that there is another problem, that of being labor intensive, that causes the costs of schools to rise more rapidly than that of general inflation.[104] They go on to explain that the costs rise more because they are accompanied by a decline in the pool of applicants to the school.[105] E.P. Eddy contends that small, nationally oriented liberal arts colleges are having enrollment problems and suggests a "reassessment of values."[106]

Kraushaar summarizes the plight of private higher education and the problem of change when he says:

> To remind the schools that much more is at stake than immediate survival, essential as that is, may seem like a hard saying in a time of mounting deficits. But deficits can be beneficial in one respect: they provide a sharp stimulus for a total reassessment of goals and practices.[107]

Private higher education does face an uncertain future and must re-evaluate their methods of educating and staying

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[103] Ibid, p. 221.

[104] J. A. Maciarello and W. F. Enteman, "A System for Management Control in Private Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, No. 45, 1974, pp. 595-596.

[105] Ibid, p. 598.

[106] E. P. Eddy, "Will Private Colleges Survive the 70's?", The Independent School Bulletin, February, 1973, pp. 27-28.

[107] Kraushaar, American Nonpublic Schools, p. 264.

open. As uncertainty becomes more prevalent, private colleges and universities must find their special role and meet the challenges they face. Wise gives a clear direction to private institutions of higher education:

> To assume--as many private colleges do--that faculty, students and interested citizens (religious or social groups, foundations and governmental agencies) will continue to support the college because of traditional loyalties is a serious misreading of contemporary forces in the society. Unless the private college articulates its purposes clearly and unless it elicits a considerable degree of freely given commitment of these purposes, the present difficulties are likely to expand.[108]

The Role of the College President in Conflict Resolution

Upton Sinclair said of the college president, "he spends his time running back and forth between mammon and God."[109] Many of the presidents in the twentieth century private colleges do spend most of their time looking for resources for funding. Their colleges do need financial assistance.

However, Alvin Toffler writes in his book, The Third Wave, that we are moving toward a society that will place great importance on cognitive abilities. He calls it a "cognitariat society: a group that is well-educated,

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[108] W. M. Wise, The Politics of the Private College, (New Haven, Conn.: The Hazen Foundation, 1972), p. 10.

[109] Upton Sinclair, The Goose-Steps, A Study of American Education, (Pasadena: 1923), p. 386.

sophisticated, and does more work using their brains than any other society in the history of mankind."[110] He believes that "higher education as it exists today is ill-equipped to handle the dynamics of the changes ahead, and so must get on with the task of changing curriculum and teaching methods in order to meet the needs of tomorrow."[111]

R. Freeman Butts has written that the role of the college is to prepare citizens to live in a society that is governed by man-made laws. In order to achieve this goal the curriculum offered should lead to "critical judgement and discrimination, enabling citizens to view political issues from an informed perspective."[112] To this end, the author proposes a set of ten value-oriented claims that should be used as a foundation for making changes in the academic arena:

1. Justice
2. Freedom
3. Equality
4. Diversity

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[110] Alvin Toffler, The Third Wave, (New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1980), p. 65.

[111] Ibid, p. 66.

[112] R. F. Butts, "Organizational Adaptation and Higher Education," Journal of Higher Education, March-April, 1984, p. 138.

5. Authority as legitimate power
6. Privacy
7. Due process
8. Participation
9. Personal obligation for the public good
10. International human rights[113]

The ideas of Butts and Toffler are not totally new to the educator or the administrator. Many of the concepts are those set forth by the founding fathers of the United States. There are those in education who agree that the system needs to take a forward look at society and to revamp current policies in education. The question arises, "Who will direct the changes?"

In organizational entities, the administrator, or leader, is the change agent. Other groups have influence on the president, such as employees, faculty, and boards of directors, but the president is the ultimate source of information and power.

The president is, in most instances, the political figure that has such a tremendous influence on the atmosphere on a campus. If the president possesses the characteristics necessary to encourage change and to see the important task of higher education as the next century approaches, then the chances are good that new directions

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[113] Ibid, p. 139.

can be established.

Too often the criteria governing boards use for recruiting a college president are based on characteristics that are not necessarily those a good academician and administrator possesses. The following remarks from a board chairman reveals this position:

> Boards expect too much of a college president ....We start out looking for one, we want him to be brilliant, attractive, handsome, with a beautiful wife, happily married, with nerves of steel, a great salesman and money-raiser, with academic credentials that impress the faculty, young ideas that make him popular with the students, endurance to go day and night, naturally good health, and impeccable credentials.[114]

If the preceding quote is used as an example of the traits not especially desirable in the selection process, what traits are desirable?

According to Thomas J. Sergiovanni, the particular leadership of a college contributes uniquely to school competencies and excellence. The leadership forces he contends are necessary for effective leadership are as follows:

1. The <u>technical leader</u> assumes the role of management engineer. By emphasizing concepts such as organization development, time management and contingency leadership theories, he will be able to provide planning, organizing, coordinating, and scheduling to the life of the college,

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[114]Joseph F. Kauffman, "Profile of the Presidency in the Next Decade," <u>Educational Record</u>, Spring, 1984, p. 10.

and be skilled in strategy planning to insure optimum effectiveness.

2. The human leader assumes the role of human engineer. He emphasizes such concepts as human relations, interpersonal competence, and motivational theories. He encourages, supports, and helps to develop the human organization of the college.

3. The educational leader brings professional knowledge to the areas of curriculum development and teaching effectiveness to the college.

4. The symbolic leader assumes the role as the "chief," and by his behavior gives signals to others of what is important.

5. The cultural leader seeks to strengthen the particular values, beliefs, and culture of the college that make it unique.[115]

The president who carefully balances each of the leadership forces as suggested by Sergiovanni has a predictably higher success rate in accomplishing changes on a campus.[116] However, as a leader, he will have followers. The faculty members will be the largest constituency of followers a president is likely to have who can play a key role in change as well. Faculty are a powerful force in initiating changes in programming for the college.

The president and the faculty are usually the sources for initiating changes in the college in academic matters. The typical faculty committee is composed of members who

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[115]Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Leadership and Excellence in Schooling," Educational Digest, October, 1984, p. 8.

[116]Ibid, p. 9.

are appointed to the committee by the president. This appointive system is illustrative of the basic power relationship between changes and the president. The faculty can suggest change, but the president is ultimately the one who allows the change to take place.[117]

Libraries are full of publications suggesting methods useful in helping organizations adapt to change. The university and the business organization have more in common than is usually thought, and therefore, principles of adapting to change are similar for both.

The following proposals are useful in both environments. One is based on information found in a variety of periodicals and books on business administration, one is based on available material on the subject of change in the university setting. If the reader substitutes university/ president and business/CEO for each of the scenarios given, it will be shown that good management principles are really useful in both environments.

To be an effective change agent, the organization must be skilled in implementing innovation, reform, and adaptation. The leader will have to be both adept and knowledgeable at instituting organizational change.

Top level officials are seen as mystery people, people who are somehow in charge, but are rarely seen by most of

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[117] Ibid, p. 9.

the persons below. Each organization has its company culture. As Pascale says:

> Organizations that socialize effectively use their cultures to manage ambiguity, ever present in such matters as business politics and personal relationships.[118]

Certain myths prevail about what a CEO does each day:

> Life gets less complicated as the manager reaches the top of the pyramid.
>
> The manager at the top level knows everything that's going on in the organization, can command whatever resources he may need, and therefore can be more decisive.
>
> The general manager's day is taken up with making broad policy decisions and formulating precise objectives.
>
> The top executive's primary activity is conceptualizing long-range plans.[119]

According to Dr. Wrapp of the Graduate School of Business, University of Chicago, the CEO who is really effective should possess five important skills. He knows how to:

1. Keep open many pipelines of information.

   No one will quarrel with the desirability of an early warning system which provides varied viewpoints on an issue. However, very few managers know how to practice this skill, and the books on management add precious little to our understanding of the techniques which make it practicable.

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[118] Richard Pascale, "Fitting New Employees into the Company Culture," Fortune, May 28, 1984, p. 38.

[119] J. Wrapp, "Good Managers Don't Make Policy Decisions," Harvard Business Review, July/August, 1984, p. 65.

2. <u>Concentrate on a limited number of significant issues</u>.

   No matter how skillful the manager is in focusing his energies and talents, he is inevitably caught up in a number of inconsequential duties. Active leadership of an organization demands a high level of personal involvement, and personal involvement brings with it many time-consuming activities which have an infinitesimal impact on corporate strategy. Hence this second skill, while perhaps the most logical of the five, is by no means the easiest to apply.

3. <u>Identify the corridors of comparative indifference</u>.

   Are there inferences here that the good manager has no ideas of his own, that he stands by until his organization proposes solutions, that he never uses his authority to force a proposal through the organization? Such inferences are not intended. The message is that a good manager therefore is adept at sensing how hard he can push.

4. <u>Give the organization a sense of direection with open-ended objectives</u>.

   In assessing this skill, keep in mind that I am talking about top levels of management. At lower levels, the manager should be encouraged to write down his objectives, if for no other reason than to ascertain if they are consistent with corporate strategy.

5. <u>Spot opportunities and relationships in the stream of operating problems and decisions</u>.

   Lest it be concluded from the description of this skill that the good manager is more an improviser than a planner, let me emphasize that he is a planner and encourages planning by his subordinates. Interestingly, though, professional planners may be irritated by a good general manager. Most of them complain about his lack of vision. They devise a master plan, but the president (or other

> operating executive) seems to ignore it, or to give it minimum acknowledgement by borrowing bits and pieces for implementation. They seem to feel that the power of a good master plan will be obvious to everyone, and its implementation automatic. But the general manager knows that even if the plan is sound and imaginative, the job has only begun. The long, painful task of implementation will depend on his skill, not that of the planner.[120]

The president of the college is the primary change agent for that organization. As the leader in the organization, the president is responsible for all things on a campus, but answers only to the board of directors. The board is the policy-making body, but the president has to be knowledgeable on the subject of implementation in order to effect change.

Policy as a Vehicle for Change Implementation

In his article on the subject of shifting power away from the campus, Mumper explains the reasons in the shift when he says:

> Over the past decade...policymaking in higher education has changed dramatically. Demographic shifts leading to declining enrollments...fiscal stress forcing retrenchment, public cries for accountability, and the changing demands of today's students of all ages have worked together to shift policy power away from traditional academic arenas and into political ones.[121]

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[120] Wrapp, Harvard Business Review, p. 68.

[121] Michael Mumper, "Faculty and the State Policy Process," Journal of Higher Education, May/June, 1983, p. 294.

John M. Thomas and Warren G. Bennis say that planned change is "the deliberate design and implementation of a structured innovation, a new policy or goal, or a change in operating philosophy, climate, and style."[122] "Planned change is one method of dealing with change. Reaction to the signs that changes are needed, making piece-meal modifications to deal with particular problems as they arise, is another method of dealing with change," according to Stoner and Wankel.[123]

Kurt Lewin developed a model for understanding the change process.[124] Later Edgar H. Schein defined the terms with Lewin's model.[125] The model is illustrated in Figure 3.

The necessity of a model for aiding the change process is indicative of the resistance to change that is a prime factor in organizational conflict. As Stoner and Wankel state, "A major obstacle to the implementation of new policies, goals, or methods of operation is the resistance

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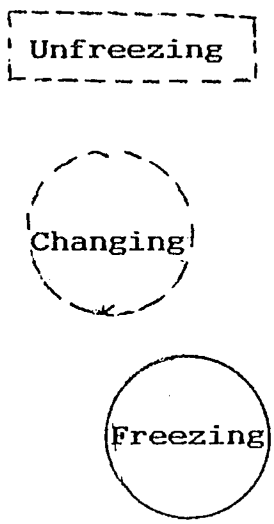
[122] John Thomas and Warren Bennis, eds., The Management of Change and Conflict, (Baltimore: Penguin, 1972), p. 209.

[123] Stoner and Wankel, Management, 3rd ed., p. 356.

[124] Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in Social Science," Human Relations-1, 1947, p. 24.

[125] E. H. Schein, Organizational Psychology, (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980), p. 245.

Figure 3



1. Unfreezing involves making the need for change so obvious that the individual, etc., can see and accept it.

2. Changing requires a trained change agent to foster new values, attitudes, through identification and internalization.

3. Refreezing means locking the new behavior pattern into place by support or reinforcement so that it becomes the new norm.

of organization members to change."[126] Greiner says, "the reactions to change can be shown on a continuum ranging from traditional to behavioral."[127]

It has been established in this paper that the president of the university or college is the primary change agent of that organization. As the change agent, the president personally will encounter resistance. As Flippo notes, "the human problems of change, however, are most apparent in those areas where management itself has initiated the change."[128] But, Roethlishberger says, "Regardless of who may institute the change, the employee affected

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[126] Stoner and Wankel, Management, 3rd ed., p. 355.

[127] Larry E. Greiner, "Patterns of Organizational Change," Harvard Business Review, May/June, 1967, p. 120.

[128] Flippo, Management, A Behavioral Approach, p. 90.

is compelled to react in some manner to the specific change that is proposed."[129]

Policy is produced as a result of conducting a change within an organization. Written policy is, itself, a change agent which may be threatening to those affected by the changes. Michael Gilbert writes of educational policy:

> Policy-making is perhaps the most important of the board's responsibilities. Its other functions--budget approval, employment of personnel, tribunal in matters of controversy--often have policy implications or may be policy approval. It is imperative that policy-making occur in a methodical and impartial manner, because good policy-making procedures usually lead to functional policies and successful operations.[130]

In order to create a model of policies to be used in implementing change, a basic understanding of the principles of policy should be known. Policy is a part of the primary elements of management. It is bound to the principle of planning, which is the phase that establishes organizational objectives.

Whether in business or education, administrative principles can be found functioning to carry through the purpose of the organization. Early management theorists, Henri Fayol, W. H. Newman, and Luther Gullick, developed

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[129] R. J. Roethlisberger, Management and Morale, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1946), p. 214.

[130] Michael Gilbert, "Understanding Educational Policy," Thrust, September, 1984, p. 21.

their perceptions of phases of administration functions in order of their importance. Figure 4 compares these management theories and the phases of administration each developed.

Figure 4

Phases of Administration as Listed By Fayol, Gullick, and Newman [131, 132, 133]

Fayol	Gullick	Newman
Planning	Planning	Planning
Organizing	Organizing	Organizing
Commanding	Staffing	Assembling
Co-ordinating	Directing	Directing
Controlling	Co-ordinating	Controlling
	Reporting	
	Budgeting	

Although the three management theorists may disagree on some of the functions, they are all in agreement that planning is the most important of all the functions of management. Planning is the first step, the reason for existence for most companies. A researcher can find

[131] Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management, (New York: Pitman Publishing Corp., 1949), p. 239.

[132] William H. Newman, Administrative Action, (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 273.

[133] Luther Gullick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization," Papers on the Science of Administration, (New York: Columbia University College of Public Administration, 1937), p. 152.

articles written about very successful organizations that are run-by-the-seat-of-the-pants, but the majority of organizations have a strategic plan. Written policy is the backbone of the organization. As Gilbert says:

> Much has been written about the theory of policy. The people (or things) who cause policy to be developed may not be the policy writers, who may not be the policy makers (approvers), who most often are not (and should not be) the policy implementers/ administrators. Basically, policy provides a framework within which organizational functions, operations and programs are implemented--policy is a general guide to action. The means of administering policy are usually called rules, regulations and procedures--administrative tools that may not be approved formally by the policy makers. (Actually, they need not be approved; rules, regulations, and procedures must be in concert with policy to be effective.)[134]

A policy is a written plan that is a guide to action. It is a standard for the persons associated with the enterprise in various capacities to accomplish the purposes of the institution. In the planning process of 1) purpose, 2) mission, 3) objective, and 4) strategy, policy process is found in the strategy step. The major elements of strategic planning, according to Griffin, are:

1. It focuses on matching the resources and skills of the organization with the opportunities and risks present in the external environment.

2. It is performed by top-level managers.

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[134]Gilbert, "Understanding Educational Policy," p. 21.

3. It has a long-run time frame.

4. It is expressed in relatively general, nonspecific terms.[135]

The larger the organization, the more guides to action are needed. Also, the more public an organization, the more likely government funding plays a role in policy. The massive federal legislation associated with the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, caused more policy formulation throughout industry and education in order to comply with the laws, than any other single piece of legislation in the history of the United States.[136]

In fact, the more obligated an organization is to the government, at any level, the more the institution is likely to be reviewed for compliance with the Civil Rights Act.

There are many management books, policy books, and information extracted from periodicals on the subject of the policy process. The following process, the seven steps, are suggested as a method to accomplish the policy process:

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[135]Ricky W. Griffin, Management, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1984), p. 133.

[136]Higher Education in American Society, Philip G. Altbach and Robert O. Berhahl, eds., (New York: Prometheus Books, 1981), p. 164.

1. Policy Formulation

   Policy formulation requires that the policy be written by one who has expertise in the subject area. One trained as an accountant should be the one who writes company policy from the Financial Accounting Standards Board Pronouncements.

   Additionally, there are generalizations in policy formulation that will help in the implementation process of the guide to action. The following are principles to this end:

   a. Policies should be based on known principles in the operative area concerned.

   b. Subordinate policies should be supplementary to superior policies.

   c. Policies should be complementary to coordinate policies.

   d. Policies should be definite, understandable, and preferably in writing.

   e. Policies should be flexible.

   f. Policies should be reasonably comprehensive in scope.

2. Policy Dissemination

   The new policy should be given to people who are responsible for actually applying the policy. The three levels of management: lower, middle, and upper, who have responsibility for other employees should be the ones who receive the new policy first.

3. Policy Education

   Those who are responsible for the application of the policy should have explained why the change is necessary. A wide-range of media (group meetings, memoranda, policy manuals, etc.) are helpful aids in the education process.

The new policy should be thoroughly communicated. The chances of adapting to the change brought on by the new policy are higher if the purpose of the change is communicated. Information should be communicated in three different methods in order to be clearly understood.

4. Policy Acceptance

   Any policy change, whether seen as a positive or as a negative change, will usually go through a stage of non-acceptance before it enters an acceptance stage. Change alters patterns of living and working in an organization and may at first be seen as unsettling to those who must change in order to adapt to the new policy.

   Varying lengths of time, usually longer if the change is very different from existing policy, should be considered when determining the acceptance period.

Riley and Baldridge explain how policy may effect those who must change with the policy:

> Organizational changes are complex, and the effects are interwoven throughout various subsystems. Goals cannot be changed without affecting group attitudes and technology; the environment cannot shift substantially without formal authority structures being seriously affected; major upheavals in individual or group morale certainly have repercussions on decision processes and other formal systems. In short, a change in one subsystem almost surely results in changes in other subsystems. Any strategy of research or any active program of organizational change must carefully analyze possible interconnections.[137]

Figure 5 is given to illustrate in model-form how initiating change also involves the consideration of

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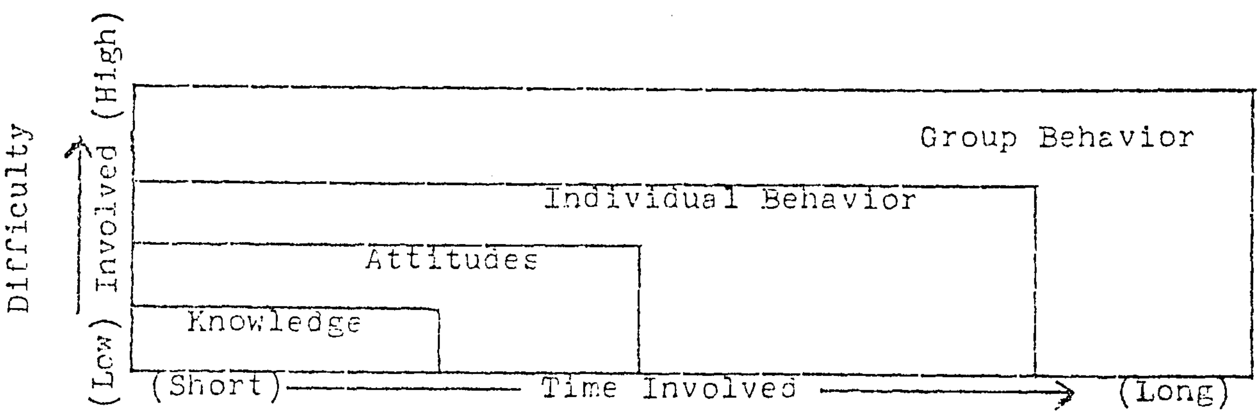
[137]Riley and Balderidge, Governing Academic Organizations, p. 91.

Figure 5

Time Required for People Change



the level of difficulty of four major changes in people. The levels of change are knowledge, attitudes, individual behavior and group behavior. It can be seen that group behavior, as within an organization, takes the longest time to accomplish.[138]

5. Policy Application

   Part of policy application involves explanation time after time to those directly responsible for implementation.

6. Policy Interpretation

   This is a constant process for as long as the policy is in effect. Reinterpretation is the primary reason policy manuals exist.

7. Policy Control

   An organization that allows for feedback from those applying the policy is the best

> environment for a new policy. General observation, regular reports, and unsolicited complaints are effective means of policy control.[139]

The president is the change agent and policy is the vehicle for change on the university or college campus. This is a difficult and complex task, but as Tashman, Carlson, and Parke state:

> Notwithstanding these considerations, it is clear that strategic planning in a university environment cannot be implemented without centralized assumption of risk. "We need to commit ourselves," President Frank Newman of the University of Rhode Island said.
>
> Laissez-faire management within a feudal academic structure is inappropriate for the future of the university. To flourish, perhaps to survive, a university needs management (CEO) that is aggressively entrepreneurial.[140]

Change on the college campus will occur. Whether an institution chooses to have a plan of action for the possible changes, or whether the college chooses to simply react to the changes as they happen, is the question. The research to this point in this work has been to explain conflict, change, resistance to change, the college presi-

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[139]Richard N. Owens, Introduction to Business Policy, (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1954), p. 53.

[140]L. J. Tashman, R. Carson, and E. L. Parke, "Management Lesson in Curriculum Development," Educational Record, Winter, 1984, p. 56.

dent as the change agent, and policy as the vehicle for change in the academic arena.

The remaining chapters will deal with profiles of the colleges of this study, a plan for conflict resolution specifically for the small four-year private college, and suggestions for implementation of the plan.

CHAPTER III

DATA AND ANALYSIS

Data contained in this chapter includes 33 private four-year colleges and universities in North Carolina. The name, geographic location, and religious affiliation of each college is given in Tables 5, 6, and 7, and Figure 6. Additionally, information specifically comparing each of the four-year colleges affiliated with the United Methodist Church is provided. These particular United Methodist colleges confer only the baccalaureate degree.

The six United Methodist colleges were chosen by the writer primarily for accessibility. Working with the Western North Carolina Conference of the United Methodist Church Council for Higher Education and having taught in one of the United Methodist Colleges in North Carolina, the writer could have the advantage of professional relationships to conduct the necessary research.

The Survey Instrument

Data was obtained via a survey instrument which includes 33 specific questions about each college. The purpose of this research was to determine similarities and differences between the 33 four-year private colleges in North Carolina. From the 33 questions, 18 variables were selected to compile the information. Availability of the

Table 5

Four-Year Private Colleges in North Carolina*

1. Atlantic Christian College
2. Barber-Scotia College
3. Belmont Abbey College
4. Bennet College
5. Campbell University
6. Catawba College
7. Davidson College
8. Duke University
9. Elon College
10. Gardner-Webb College
11. Greensboro College
12. Guilford College
13. High Point College
14. Johnson C. Smith University
15. John Wesley College
16. Lenoir-Rhyne College
17. Livingstone College
18. Mars Hill College
19. Meredith College
20. Methodist College
21. North Carolina Wesleyan College
22. Pfeiffer College
23. Piedmont Bible College
24. Queens College
25. Roanoke Bible College
26. Sacred Heart College
27. Saint Andrews Presbyterian College
28. Saint Augustine's College
29. Salem College
30. Shaw University
31. Southeastern Baptist Theological Seminary
32. Wake Forest University
33. Warren Wilson College

*Indicates the number assigned to each college as a means of cross-reference throughout this study.

Table 6

Geographic Location of Private Colleges

Three Major Growth Areas in North Carolina

I. Charlotte-Metrolina

3. Belmont Abbey
7. Davidson
14. Johnson C. Smith
22. Pfeiffer
24. Queens
26. Sacred Heart

II. Golden Triad

Greensboro - High Point - Winston-Salem

4. Bennett
11. Greensboro
12. Guilford
13. High Point
15. John Wesley
23. Piedmont Bible
29. Salem
32. Wake Forest

Table 6 (continued)

III. Research Triangle

Durham - Raleigh

8. Duke
19. Meredith
20. Methodist
28. St. Augustine's
30. Shaw

IV. Others

1. Atlantic Christian - Wilson, NC
2. Barber-Scotia - Concord, NC
5. Campbell - Buies Creek, NC
6. Catawba - Salisbury, NC
9. Elon - Elon College, NC
10. Gardner-Webb - Boiling Springs, NC
16. Lenoir-Rhyne - Hickory, NC
17. Livingstone - Salisbury
18. Mars Hill - Mars Hill, NC
21. North Carolina Wesleyan - Rocky Mount, NC
25. Roanoke Bible - Elizabeth City, NC
27. St. Andrews - Laurinburg, NC
31. Southeastern Baptist Theological - Wake Forest, NC
33. Warren Wilson - Swannanoa, NC

Table 7

Religious Affiliation of Four-Year Private Colleges and Universities in North Carolina

Presbyterian Church of the U.S.A.

2. Barber-Scotia
7. Davidson
14. Johnson C. Smith
24. Queens
33. Warren Wilson

Roman Catholic Church

3. Belmont Abbey
26. Sacred Heart

Southern Baptist Church

5. Campbell
10. Gardner-Webb
18. Mars Hill
19. Meredith
23. Piedmont Bible (was)
31. Southeastern Baptist Theological
32. Wake Forest

United Methodist Church

4. Bennett
8. Duke
11. Greensboro
13. High Point
20. Methodist
21. N. C. Wesleyan
22. Pfeiffer

United Church of Christ

6. Catawba
9. Elon
25. Roanoke

AME Zion

17. Livingstone

Christian Missionary

1. Atlantic Christian

Episcopal

28. St. Augustine's

General Baptist

30. Shaw

Lutheran

16. Lenoir-Rhyne

Moravian

29. Salem

Pilgrim Holiness

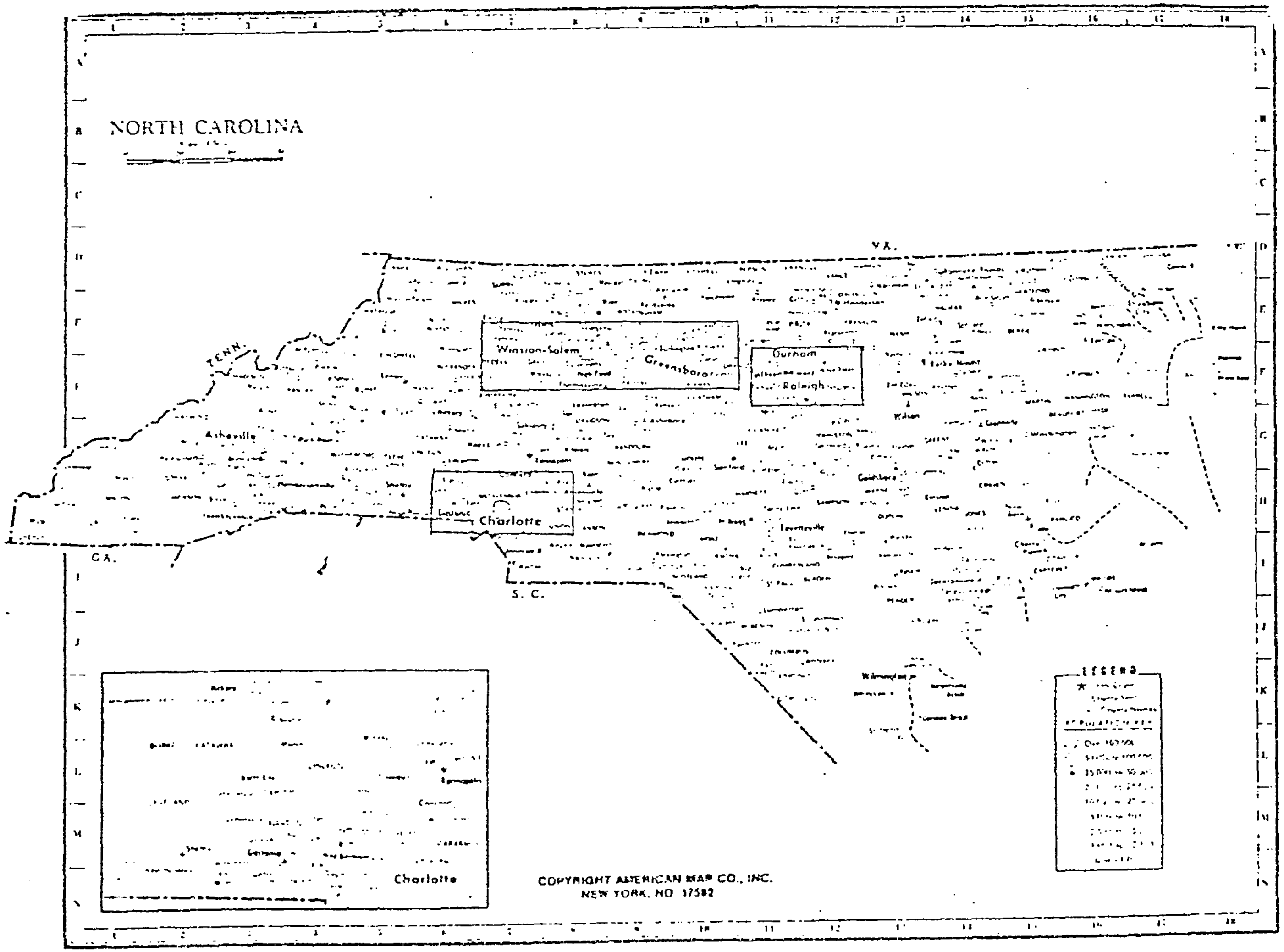
15. John Wesley

Quaker (Friends)

12. Guilford

Figure 6

North Carolina Growth Areas



information was the primary reason the final variables were selected. The survey instrument can be seen in Appendix A. The selected variables used in this study can be seen in Appendix B. Information obtained on each of the 33 colleges is reported in matrix form and is given in Tables 8, 9, 10, and 11.

To provide as much clarity as possible of the information collected from the survey, the writer chose to develop a composite matrix specifically for the six United Methodist colleges. Each four-year United Methodist college was visited and information found through the survey instrument was verified. The information was found to be correct and is reported in Tables 12 and 13.

College President/Faculty Attitude Survey

To measure the attitude of both the college president and a faculty member of each college, a questionnaire featuring 30 questions, and based on the Likert scale, was used. The identical instrument was used by both faculty and president of each college. The instrument was used to help determine how each participant felt about teamwork, decision-making, communication, satisfaction, and confidence.

This attitude survey was adapted from a similar scale devised for the Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro,

Table 8

Matrix of Four-Year Private Colleges Constructed From Selected Variables*

College or University	Age of School	Campus Acreage	Church Affiliation	Continuing Ed. Program	Date Began	Enrollment	Honor Societies	Intercollegiate Sports
Atlantic Christian College	83y	-	Xtian Miss.	Y	1902	1,600	Y	No
Barber-Scotia College	118	40	Presby	No	1867	750	No	No
Belmont Abbey College	109	300	Roman Cath.	Y	1876	800	Y	Y
Bennett College	112	55	United Meth.	Y	1873	605	Y	Y
Campbell University	98	850	Baptist	Y	1887	3,056	Y	Y
Catawba College	134	210	Un. Ch. Christ	Y	1851	950	Y	Y
Davidson College	148	50	Presby	Y	1837	1,350	Y	Y
Duke University	147	878	United Meth.	Y	1838	10,000	Y	Y
Elon College	113	145	Un.Ch. Christ	Y	1872	2,300	Y	Y
Gardner-Webb College	80	1,200	Baptist	Y	1905	1,400	Y	Y
Greensboro College	147	30	United Meth.	Y	1838	600	Y	Y
Guilford College	148	300	Quaker	Y	1837	1,200	Y	Y
High Point College	61	73	United Meth.	Y	1924	1,100	Y	Y
Johnson C. Smith University	118	75	Presby	Y	1867	1,400	Y	Y
John Wesley College	82	15	Nonden	NO	1903	100	Y	No
Lenoir-Rhyne College	94	56	Luth.	No	1891	1,200	Y	Y

*Tables 8-11 are matrices of each of the four-year private colleges in North Carolina.

Table 9

College or University	Age of School	Campus Acreage	Church Affiliation	Continuing Ed. Program	Date Began	Enrollment	Honor Soc.	Intercollegiate Sports
Livingstone College	106	272	AME Zion	No	1879	1,000	Y	No
Mars Hill College	126	150	Bapt	No	1856	1,500	Y	Y
Meredith College	80	225	Bapt	Y	1899	1,500	Y	Y
Methodist College	38	600	Un. Meth	Y	1957	900	Y	Y
North Carolina Wesleyan College	25	200	Un. Meth	Y	1960	850	Y	Y
Pfeiffer College	100	365	Un. Meth	Y	1884	850	Y	Y
Piedmont Bible College	40	6	NonD	Y	1945	450	Y	Y
Queens College	128	35	Pres	Y	1857	500	Y	Y
Roanoke Bible College	37	20	Ch. Chr	Y	1948	142	Y	Y
Sacred Heart College	93	100	Rom. Cath	Y	1892	400	Y	Y
Saint Andrews Presbyterian College	25	820	Pres	Y	1960	754	Y	Y
Saint Augustine's College	118	110	Epis	Y	1867	1,175	Y	Y
Salem College	113	57	Mora	Y	1772	540	Y	Y
Shaw University	120	15	Gen. Bapt	No	1865	1,500	Y	Y
Southeastern Baptist Theological Seminary	34	615	Bapt	No	1951	1,200	Y	Y
Wake Forest University	29	320	Bapt	Y	1956	5,000	Y	Y
Warren Wilson	91	1,100	Pres	Y	1894	500	Y	Y

Table 10

College or University	# of Faculty	# of Library Books	# of Programs Offered	Part of Area Consortium	% of Faculty holding doctorate	Predominant Race	Predominant Sex	Residential or Commuter	School Setting	Social Frat.
Atlantic Christian College	100	117,985	10	No	--	W	W	R	ST	Y
Barber-Scotia College	87	44,125	18	No	50	B	W	R	ST	Y
Belmont Abbey College	57	79,000	19	Y	45	W	M	R	R	Y
Bennett College	53	76,000	30	Y	47	B	W	R	U	Y
Campbell University	136	91,570	36	No	55	W	M	R	ST	Y
Catawba College	69	170,000	35	No	55	W	M	R	ST	Y
Davidson College	110	250,000	19	Y	82	W	M	R	ST	Y
Duke University	1,515	2,66[illegible]882	*	Y	--	W	M	R	C	Y
Elon College	114	150,000	22	--	41	W	M/F	B	ST	Y
Gardner-Webb College	82	10,200	19	No	45	W	____	R	ST	Y
Greensboro College	39	108,000	35	Y	59	W	W	R	C	Y
Guilford College	100	175,000	27	Y	--	W	M/W	B	C	Y
High Point College	52	100,000	26	Y	50	W	M/W	B	C	Y
Johnson C. Smith Univ.	92	86,000	24	Y	--	B	M/W	B	C	Y
John Wesley College	13	16,000	10	No	1	W	M	R	C	Y
Lenoir-Rhyne College	95	109,000	35	Y	4	W	M	R	ST	Y

Table 11

College or University	# of Fac.	# of Lib. Books	# of Prog. Offered	Part of Area Consortium	% of Fac. w/Doc.	Predominant Race	Predominant Sex	Residential or Commuter	School Setting	Soc. Frat. & Soro.
Livingstone College	50	98,000	25	No	33	B	M/W	R	ST	Y
Mars Hill College	118	85,000	30	No	43	W	M	R	ST	Y
Meredith College	91	90,000	24	Y	55	W	W	R	C	Y
Methodist College	52	71,600	25	--	44	W	M	R	ST	Y
North Carolina Wesleyan College	41	75,000	20	--	48	W	M/W	R	ST	Y
Pfeiffer College	64	79,300	25	--	--	W	M	R	ST	Y
Piedmont Bible College	33	40,000	6	No	8	W	M	R	C	Y
Queens College	50	95,000	32	Y	52	W	W	R	U	Y
Roanoke Bible College	13	--	7	No	30	W	M	R	ST	Y
Sacred Heart College	19	53,000	24	Y	47	W	M/W	R	ST	Y
Saint Andrews Presbyterian College	54	90,000	28	Y	59	W	M/W	R	ST	Y
Saint Augustine's College	64	13,000	28	Y	50	W	M/W	R	C	Y
Salem College	87	100,000	29	Y	39	W	W	R	C	Y
Shaw University	67	80,000	19	Y	--	B	M	R	C	Y
Southeastern Baptist Theological Seminary	94	120,000	5	Y	94	W	M	R	ST	Y
Wake Forest University	600	682,333	*	Y	--	W	M	R	C	Y
Warren Wilson College	66	70,000	20	No	32	W	M	R	ST	Y

Table 12

Matrix of Four-Year United Methodist Colleges in North Carolina*

College or University	Age of School	Campus Acreage	Church Affiliation	Continuing Ed. Program	Date Began	Enrollment	Honor Societies	Intercollegiate Sports
Bennett College	112	55	United Metho.	Y	1873	605	Y	Y
Greensboro College	147	30	United Metho.	Y	1838	600	Y	Y
High Point College	61	73	United Metho.	Y	1924	1,100	Y	Y
Methodist College	38	600	United Metho.	Y	1957	900	Y	Y
North Carolina Wesleyan College	25	300	United Metho.	Y	1960	850	Y	Y
Pfeiffer College	100	365	United Metho.	Y	1885	850	Y	Y

*Tables 12 and 13 are matrices of each of the Six Four-Year United Methodist Colleges in North Carolina.

Table 13

Four-Year United Methodist Colleges

College or University	# of Faculty	# of Library Books	# of Programs Offered	Part of Area Consortium	% of Faculty holding doctrate	Predominant Race	Predominant Sex	Residential or Commuter	School Setting	Social Frat./ Sororities
Bennett College	53	76,000	30	Y	47	B	W	R	U	Y
Greensboro College	39	108,000	35	Y	59	W	W	R	U	Y
High Point College	52	100,000	50	Y	50	W	M/W	R	C	Y
Methodist College	52	71,600	25	--	48	W	M	R	C	Y
North Carolina Wesleyan College	41	75,000	20	--	48	W	M/W	R	R	Y
Pfeiffer College	64	79,300	25	--	--	W	M	R	C	Y

North Carolina.[141] The instrument was adapted so that it could be useful in identifying attitudes of college presidents and faculty members. See Appendix C for a sample of the College President/Faculty Attitude Survey. This survey is an example of the Likert scale.

The Likert scale was chosen because of its flexibility. According to Hopkins and Stanley:

> Likert scales are very flexible and can be constructed more easily than most other types of attitude scales. To generate items, it is often helpful to "role play" and make statements that typify positive and negative attitudes. Ordinarily, items should be a mixture of positive and negative statements to add variety to the scale and reduce the... tendency to respond perfunctorily. But statements should not be made artificially negative.... As in cognitive assessment, the use of simple language and vocabulary is desirable.[142]

The grading scale for this instrument was 1-4, rather than than the 1-5 scale usually used in the Likert scale. This chosen technique eliminates middle-of-the-road answers. The point values were not assigned until the researcher received the completed instruments. The respondents did not know there was a point value to their answers. The scale used, 1-4, gave the highest value to

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[141]"Profile of a School (Form 'T')", Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, North Carolina.

[142]Kenneth D. Hopkins and Julian C. Stanley, Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1981), p. 294.

the most positive answer.

The instructions given to each respondent are as follows:

1. On the lines below each item, please check the point which, in your opinion, is currently where your college is located.

2. Since each president/faculty deals in generally different areas of responsibility, when answering the questions consider the average situation or reaction.

Although the surveys were personally given to the college personnel, they were not answered until a later time and then were returned to the writer. Each survey was anonymous, except in one situation when a faculty member signed the instrument.

In addition to the attitude questionnaire, a personal visit was made to each college to interview the president. Without exception, each president gave the researcher time and consideration throughout the visit, not allowing any distractions to interfere with the interview.

An interview instrument was developed to be used at each college. The instrument can be seen on page 91. The instrument was helpful in the interview process. It gave direction and organization to the process, facts that were noted by all the interviewees.

Very soon after each interview, a journal was kept by the researcher in order to retain information gained through the interviews with the instrument. General conclusions were drawn from the the interviews. The conclusions for each question are given as follows:

1. How do you see your role in the position of president?

   Five of the presidents saw their role as a facilitator, an enabler. One president saw himself as the "head" of the college with all the responsibility totally in his hands.

2. To whom do you report?

   All six presidents agreed that they report to the board of the directors, even the one who saw his role differently than the others.

3. How much information did you have about the present college you serve prior to becoming president?

   Except in one case, the presidents had only a little knowledge, other than statistics, about the college. The exception was a president who had served in the same state as president of another United Methodist college.

4. How did you spend the first four months of your presidency?

   Each president spent the first four months getting to know the faculty members, but especially the board members, of the college. No major changes were begun during this early phase.

5. Do you feel totally responsible for academics and funding?

   Without exception, all responded "yes" to funding, but only three felt entirely responsible for academics.

6. In what specific areas do you feel conflict is most likely to occur on campus?

   Three of the presidents cited students as the source of conflict on the campus. Three responded the source was dissatisfied faculty and staff members.

7. Do you feel you are the primary change agent for the college?

   All responded "yes."

8. Do you see conflict on the campus as bad? As good?

   All six presidents responded that continued conflict on the same subject for any period of time is bad. Only one president responded that conflict can be good.

9. Do you see conflict on the campus as inevitable?

   All responded that conflict on the campus is inevitable. One of the presidents responded that it was necessary as a tool for development of the faculty and staff.

10. What plans/methods of "disarming" conflict do you use?

    One president responded that going "head-on" to the source of the conflict was the best disarming method. The other five presidents responded that each situation determined the disarming technique used.

11. In meeting with and talking with other college presidents, do you feel that this college is fairly typical of other similar colleges in terms of kinds and extent of conflict present?

    As with the moderate answers generally given on the attitude survey, a moderate answer was always given to the question. It generally stated that each college had some conflict sometime, but that all organizations experience conflict. (The answers to this question did not vary from the answers given to a similar question in #9.)

12. Do you feel a comraderie with any college president to the extent that you could "really" discuss college problems with that person?

    Five of the presidents responded that their family members, rather than another college president, were the source of problem discussions. One of the presidents responded that only another college

> president would understand college problems, and that he did have such a confidant.

As the third chapter of this dissertation concludes, it should be reiterated that change is inevitable in any dynamic organization and should be viewed as a positive force within the changing organization. As Brubaker and Nelson say:

> Complexity in a large, fast-moving society is inevitable, organizations will reflect such complexity, and educational decision makers should see such complexity as a challenge rather than an inherent evil.[143]

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[143] D. L. Brubaker and R. H. Nelson, Jr., "Pitfalls in the Educational Change Process," Journal of Teacher Education, Spring, 1975.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PLAN FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Introduction

Change exists in every organization. Societal and institutional changes are a constant fact in organizational entities. The choice is how to deal with change when it occurs: whether to have a plan for action, or whether to simply react when change occurs.

An organization that fails to communicate a plan for change, even if such a plan exists, will eventually have to face the conflict that is likely to happen in a reaction environment. When conflict is not dealt with, it does not go away. Instead, it becomes unresolved conflict that can lead to a dysfunctional organization.

The writer exhausted the Resources in Education (ERIC), and the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE) in an attempt to find publications of plans for conflict resolution. At this point in time, there are no plans that specifically deal with conflict resolution that offer a specific course of action to resolve conflict and to maintain the institution so that conflict can be resolved before the organization becomes dysfunctional. This dissertation is an attempt to create a plan specifically for conflict resolution in private post-secondary education, which includes a plan for maintenance as well.

This chapter will suggest a specific plan for conflict resolution and for maintaining the resolved conflict. The plan is designed to be used for faculty and administration in the higher education environment.

Pfeiffer and Jones are internationally known as writers, lecturers and experience facilitators in the field of leadership development. Professionals in leadership development adhere to the research and writings of these two people. Over the past 15 years they have developed a vast compilation of experiences to be used in training and development. The writer examined each of the experiences published by Pfeiffer and Jones and chose the following ten experiences to be used in this conflict resolution plan. Each experience was chosen to develop competition, group problem-solving, or organization development with the institution of higher education. Additionally, introductory experiences are included in order to aid in the opening sessions.

A summary of each experience to be used in the plan is given below. The suggested order in which each of the experiences is to be used follows the summaries.

Experiences Summarized

1. Conflict Fantasy: A Self-Examination

   To facilitate awareness of strategies for dealing with conflict situations; to examine methods of responding to conflict; to introduce the strategy of negotiation and to present the skills required for successful negotiation.[144]

2. Conflict Resolution: A Collection of Tasks

   To generate data about how groups resolve conflict.[145]

3. Creative Products: Intergroup Conflict Resolution

   To examine the effects of collaboration and competition in intergroup relationships; to demonstrate the effects of win-win and win-lose approaches to intergroup conflicts; to practice intergroup planning and problem solving.[146]

4. Datatrak: Dealing with Organizational Conflict

   To illustrate the types of conflict that can arise within a work group; to provide the participants with an opportunity to experience and deal with organizational conflict.[147]

5. Giving and Receiving Feedback

   To give techniques for giving and receiving

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[144] J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, (LaJolla, Calif.: University Associates, Inc., 1974), p. 22.

[145] Ibid, 1970, p. 70.

[146] Ibid, 1980, p. 69.

[147] J. William Pfeiffer and Leonard D. Goodstein, eds., The 1984 Annual: Developing Human Resources, (San Diego: University Associates, Inc., 1984), p. 74.

effective feedback.[148]

6. Greeting Cards: An Organizational Simulation

   To observe a group's organizational style and functioning; to gather data on individuals' responses to creating and operating a production-centered organization; to give group members feedback on their organizational behavior.[149]

7. Getting Acquainted: A Potpourri

   To be used as ice-breakers in human relations training events.[150]

8. Organization Structure: Communication Patterns

   To demonstrate the varying effectiveness of different organization structures; to diagnose working relationships within an intact group; to illustrate less efficient modes of communication.[151]

9. Strategies of Changing: A Multiple Role-Play

   To acquaint people with three different interpersonal strategies for trying to effect change in human systems.[152]

10. Supervisory Behavior/Aims of Education: Consensus-Seeking Tasks

   To explore the relationships between subjective involvement with issues and problem-solving; to teach effective consensus-seeking behaviors in task groups.[153]

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[148] R. H. Nelson, Jr., Giving and Receiving Feedback, Mimeographed paper, Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, N.C., 1978.

[149] Pfeiffer and Jones, Handbook, 1972, p.44.

[150] Pfeiffer and Jones, Handbook.., Volume IV, p. 3.

[151] Ibid, p. 34.

[152] Ibid, p. 32.

[153] Pfeiffer and Jones, Handbook.., Volume III, p. 84.

Schedule and Events of the Plan

The schedule and events were chosen to promote the highest possible level of participant involvement and learning. The plan is designed to be an opportunity for enjoyment and compatible learning. It is the hope of the researcher that this plan can be a challenge to the institution and to the participants and that the experience will be one that is positive rather than a perfunctory ordeal to be endured.

The areas of content being exercised in these experiences are as follows:

Competition

Group Problem-Solving

Ice-Breakers

Organization Development

First Session

Introduction/10 minutes

Getting Acquainted/45 minutes

Conflict Fantasy/45 minutes

Break/15 minutes

Strategies of Changing: A Multiple Role-Play/2 hours

Lunch/1 hour

Second Session

Supervisory Behavior/Aims of Education: Consensus-Seeking Tasks/1 1/2 hours

Break/15 minutes

Conflict Resolution: A Collection of Tasks/1 hour
(to be chosen at the discretion of the leader)

De-briefing Session: Lecture on Feedback/30 minutes

Third Session

Creative Products: Intergroup Conflict Resolution/
3 hours

Break as needed

Lunch/1 hour

Fourth Session

Datatrak: Dealing with Organizational Conflict/
2 1/2 hours

Break as needed

Feedback/30 minutes

Fifth Session

Greeting Cards: An Organization Simulation/4 hours

Break as needed

Lunch/1 hour

Sixth Session

Organization Structure: Communication Patterns/1 hour

Break/15 minutes

Conflict Resolution: A Collection of Tasks/1 hour
(to be chosen at the discretion of the leader)

Feedback/Catch-up/1 hour

The Experiences

Each of the experiences to be used in The Plan are presented on the following pages. These experiences are being given in their entirety to insure ease of understanding in the reading and implementation of this plan.

<u>Conflict Fantasy: A Self- Examination</u>

Group Size:
Eight to forty participants.

Time required:
Approximately forty-five minutes.

Materials:
1. Newsprint and felt-tipped pens.
2. Pencils and paper for all participants.

Physical Setting:
A quiet room protected from intrusions during private portions of the experience.

Process:
1. The participants are asked to join the facilitator in a fantasy designed to help them examine their individual conflict-resolution strategies. For approximately ten minutes, the facilitator guides the group through the following fantasy. (The facilitator should feel free to embellish the fantasy and to change the setting to fit the particular group.)

2. (Getting into the fantasy.) The facilitator asks participants to get comfortable, close their eyes, get in touch with themselves at the present moment (the sounds around them, the feel of their bodies, etc.), and relax.

3. (The fantasy.) The facilitator says, "You are walking down a street (or a hallway or a trail) and begin to see in the distance a familiar person. Suddenly you recognize that it is the person you are most in conflict with at present. You realize that you must decide quickly how to deal with this person. As he/she comes closer, a number of alternatives flash through your mind.... Decide right now what you will do and then imagine what will happen."

The facilitator pauses to let the fantasies develop.

"It's over now. The person is gone. How do you feel? What is your level of satisfaction with the way things went?"

4. (Getting out of the fantasy.) The facilitator asks participants to begin to return to the present, gradually to become aware of pressures on their bodies, of the chair, of the floor, then to attend to the sounds in the room, and finally to open their eyes when they feel ready.

5. After participants emerge from the fantasy, the facilitator asks them to spend five minutes writing (1) the alternative ways of action they had considered, (2) the one they chose to act upon, and (3) the level of satisfaction they felt as to the fantasized outcome.

6. Each participant is asked to share with two others the alternatives considered, the one chosen, and the level of satisfaction attained. (It is not necessary that the particulars of the personal situations be shared.) A volunteer in each triad keeps a list of all types of alternatives mentioned during the discussion.

7. The whole group is reconvened to share all the alternatives generated. These are listed on newsprint.

8. The facilitator displays on newsprint A Continuum of Responses to Conflict Situations and explains the Continuum (see below). Then the participants are asked to sort the alternatives listed into the appropriate strategy categories.

		Power	Negotiation
Avoidance	Defusion	Confrontation	

A Continuum of Responses to Conflict Situations

9. The facilitator leads a discussion of the levels of satisfaction of persons choosing various strategies on the continuum. He starts with avoidance strategies and ends with the negotiation type of confrontation strategy. Volunteers are asked to give very brief accounts of their fantasy experiences.

10. The facilitator summarizes the outcomes of the experience and presents a brief theory input on negotiation as the strategy with the greatest potential payoff (win-win strategy). He emphasizes the skills necessary for successful negotiation.

Variations:

1. A participant can volunteer his fantasies to be role-played in front of the entire group. Role-players can

be coached by subgroups. Several role-plays can be carried out in succession.

2. Role-playing can be done in the triads, with one of the participants as an observer, one as the confronter, and one as the confrontee. Three rounds can take place, with roles switched on each round.

Conflict Resolution: A Collection of Tasks

Below are listed several activities that can be used to generate data about how groups resolve conflict. It is important that the facilitator be sensitive to the amount of data that can emerge and that he allow adequate processing time.

1. Line-up. Participants are instructed to position themselves in the order of their influences in the group. The person at the head of the line is the most influential. Staff may be included. The task may be carried out non-verbally. Other traits besides influence (supportiveness, risk-taking, verbosity) can be used.

2. Rating Leadership. Within a strict time limit, participants develop a rating scale on dimensions of leadership and rate each other.

3. Choosing a Family. Each participant chooses a family from among the other group members and explains the reasons for his choice.

4. Ambiguity. An unstructured situation is set up by directions such as the following: "During the next thirty minutes the task of the group is to decide how it wants to spend its time."

5. Elimination. Each group member nominates one other person to be eliminated from the group.

6. Similarities. Participants develop a list of all possible pairs of group members and rank-order them on similarity.

7. Kelly's Triangle. Participants develop a list of all possible triads in the group. Within each triad, two persons are to be designated similar to each other and different from the third.

8. Role Reversal. The facilitator introduces a controversial subject, such as women's liberation, sexual

freedom, or capital punishment. Each participant briefly expresses his position. Then the group discusses the subject, with each person arguing the point of view opposite to his own expressed position.

9. Subgrouping. The group is divided into two or more subgroups on the basis of predominant characteristics. Criteria could include sex, age, degree of participation, or political persuasion. Subgroups confront each other.

Creative Products: Intergroup Conflict Resolution

Group Size:
Any number of groups of eight to twelve members each.

Time required:
Two and one-half to three hours.

Materials:
1. A copy of the Creative Products General Situations Sheet for each participant.
2. A copy each of the Creative Products Personnel Information Sheet, the Creative Products Management Problem Sheet, and the Creative Products Management Salary Sheet for each member of a management team.
3. A copy of the Creative Products Personnel Information Sheet and a copy of the Creative Products Employee Problem Sheet for each member of the employee team.
4. A copy of the Creative Products Team Perception Sheet for each participant.
5. Name tags for each participant.
6. Blank paper and a pencil for each participant.
7. Newsprint, felt-tipped markers, and masking tape for each group.

Physical Setting:
A room large enough for all participants to meet comfortably as a total group, small work areas for each subgroup, and a table and four chairs for each management-employee grouping.

Process:
1. The facilitator divides the participants into groups of eight to twelve members each and divides each subgroup into two teams (management and employee). He directs each team to go to a separate location in the room.

2. The facilitator distributes a copy of the Creative Products General Situations Sheet, blank paper, and a pencil to each participant.

3. The facilitator distributes a copy of the Creative Products Personnel Information Sheet and the appropriate Creative Products Problem Sheet (Management or Employee) to each participant according to team designation. He also gives each member of a management team a copy of the Creative Products Management Salary Sheet.

4. Each team is informed by the facilitator that it has forty-five minutes in which to:

a. Read the appropriate background materials.

b. Agree on a role for each member from among those for the team (management or employee) on the Creative Products Personnel Information Sheet.

c. Decide as a team on a solution to the problem facing Creative Products and a strategy for gaining acceptance of the proposal from the other team (management or employee) in the subgroup.

5. The facilitator gives all members name tags and instructs them to fill in their role names and wear their name tags.

6. The facilitator tells each management team and each employee team to select one or two representatives to meet with representatives of the other team in a setting with a table and four chairs. The two to four representatives from each grouping then conduct a meeting to determine a course of action for Creative Products while other group members observe the negotiation. Members of the management and employee teams should sit behind their respective representatives during the negotiation session. (Thirty to forty minutes.)

7. The facilitator calls time and directs representatives to rejoin their teams. The facilitator then distributes a copy of the Creative Products Team Perception Sheet to each participant. He allows ten minutes for completion of the sheet (for "our team" and for "the other team.")

8. The facilitator instructs each management-employee group to conduct a discussion to debrief the activity, including the following points:

a. How negotiating representatives felt during the negotiation.

b. The kind of relationship evidenced between managers and employees during their joint meeting: collaborative (win-win) or adversarial (win-lose).

c. Specific behaviors on the part of each representative team member that were indicative of this relationship.

d. The effecctiveness of each team's original solution to the problem and strategy for gaining acceptance for that solution.

e. How observing members felt as the negotiation activity progressed.

(Fifteen minutes.)

9. Group members are then directed to share their responses to the items on the Creative Products Group Perceptions Sheet. Differences in group members' perceptions of their own group are noted and discussed. Special attention also is paid to differences in perceptions of "our team" and perceptions of "the other team".

(Fifteen minutes.)

10. The facilitator reconvenes the total group and leads a discussion of the effects of competition on intergroup problem solving. Participants are encouraged to identify factors that contribute to dysfunctional attitudes and to suggest specific strategies for creating a climate for collaboration. The facilitator records these strategies on newsprint. (Twenty to thirty minutes.)

11. Participants are formed into triads to discuss learnings and back-home applications of the strategies developed. (Fifteen to twenty minutes.)

Variations:

1. If participants have had prior experience with each other, they can be asked to explore the process of group perception formation and change. (Twenty to thirty minutes.)

2. The facilitator can have each participant complete the Creative Products Team Perception Sheet immediately after members are divided into subgroups and once again at the conclusion of the activity, preceding the discussion.

3. The content focus can be rewritten to reflect the concerns of the participants.

4. Team members can be allowed to pass notes to their representatives during the negotiation session.

Creative Products Management Problem Sheet

The preliminary analysis conducted by the company's management indicates that the company has no choice but to reduce its work force if it is to survive. The analysis has been a careful one, with other alternatives explored thoroughly. Accordingly, the problem facing management is to decide who must go. Its thinking is that the work force will have to be reduced to no more than five or six people.

In the time allotted, decide which employees are to be terminated and how and outline the strategy you will use to "sell" Creative's employees on this approach.

Representatives of Creative's employee group are scheduled to meet with Claude and Marcel Jones later in the day to discuss the company's situation and plans.

Creative Products General Situation Sheet

Creative Products, Inc., founded in 1965, is a small, family-owned specialty product manufacturer.

The company got off to a fast start, mostly because of its creative and innovative approaches to designing and solving the manufacturing problems of a product line that was new to the whole nation when the company began and which is still subject to fast changes. Both managers and workers have put in many long hours, often sacrificing their personal time to get the company off the ground and keep it competitive.

A significant downturn in the national and local economies has been experienced recently and is expected by most experts to last for another three to five years. At Creative Products, it is becoming increasingly obvious that some adjustments will have to be made if the company is to survive.

Confronted with the current economic conditions, management is about to conduct an analysis of the entire situation. However, having recently attended an executive seminar on human relations at a nearby university, Creative's president is also asking employees of the company to consider the situation and to meet with management to present any ideas they have as to how to deal with the company's current difficulty. It appears that unless the company can achieve cost reductions of approximately $30,000 per year, it will not be able to remain financially viable.

Creative Products Employee Problem Sheet

There has been general recognition among Creative's employees for the last few months that the company is in trouble and that something will have to be done. A particular concern among you is that management will decide to reduce the size of the work force, placing either you or some of your colleagues or friends out of work. You suspect that there is a great deal of slack in top management and that management salaries are highly inflated.

In the alloted time, consider how the problem facing the company might be resolved and outline the strategy you will use to "sell" management on this approach.

Claude Jones has asked for two representatives of your group to meet with him later in the day to discuss the situation facing the company.

Creative Products Personnel Information Sheet

Management Staff

Name	Position	Age	Date of Employment	Comments
Claude Jones	President	58	1/1965	One of company's founders. Health questionable.
Marcel Jones	Exec. V.P. & Manager of Manufacturing	32	6/1970	MBA, MS in Engr. Son of Claude Jones.
Pat Sadowski	Marketing Manager	53	2/1973	Increased sales markedly in 1st 2 years with the company.

Name	Position	Age	Date of Employment	Comments
Paul Jones	Managerial Trainee	24	3/1976	MBA, bright and creative, but insensitive to others. Adopted son of Claude Jones' brother. Has already lost 2 jobs due to inability to relate to others.
Marcia Phelps	Controller	38	3/1965	One of the group who started with the company.
Alfonso Rodriguez	Accountant	32	10/1975	Still in training under M. Phelps.
		Hourly Work Force		
Casper Michelson	Machinist	62	1/1965	Reputed to have solved original problems related to manuf. of Creative's leading product. Visibility slowing down due to age and health.
Quentin Salter	Set-up Man	35	11/1972	After a slow start has become 1 of hardest working employees. Limited intelligence and imagination.
Mary Levine	Packaging	57	6/1967	Always a reliable worker. Has son in Hawaii. Has expressed concern about effect on her job of new packaging machinery considered last year.

Name	Position	Age	Date of Employment	Comments
Stella Marquand	Tool & Dye Specialist	28	1/1976	Assoc. degree from Lamar Tech. Bright and creative. Has already brought about money-saving innovations.
Fred Chun	Maintenance	47	8/1968	Faithful if not overly intelligent. Some suspicion that his son's accidental death last year has resulted in beginning stages of alcoholism.
"Mugsy" Fredericks	Machinist	40	2/1966	Can really get the work out. Is as productive as 2 average machinists. Somewhat resented by other workers for pressure his performance places on them.
Alice McGovern	Mold Specialist	41	4/1974	Held in some disregard by other workers due to her fast-paced personal life outside of work. Possesses a skill crucial to the company's manufacturing process. Would be hard to replace.

Creative Products Management Salary Sheet

Name of Manager	Annual Salary
Claude Jones	$52,000
Marcel Jones	$40,000
Pat Sadowski	$33,000
Paul Jones	$17,000
Marcia Phelps	$31,000
Alfonso Rodriguez	$19,000

Creative Products Team Perception Sheet

Team_______________

Instructions: Below are two lists of several adjectives that might be used to describe your team and the other team. In each list, for each adjective, circle the number that indicates the degree to which you believe it is descriptive of your team and the other team (7=completely descriptive, 1=definitely not descriptive).

Own Team

Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Open minded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Self-Serving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irrational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Emotional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conservative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reasonable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Own Team

Inflexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unrealistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other Team

Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Open-minded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Self-serving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irrational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Emotional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conservative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reasonable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Inflexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unrealistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Datatrak: Dealing with Organizational Conflict

Group Size:
Twenty-six to thirty participants.

Time Required: Two to two and one-half hours.

Materials:

1. One copy of the Datatrak Background Sheet for each participant.
2. Seven or eight copies of the Datatrak Accounting Department Sheets (one for each of the six department members and one for each of the department's observer(s).
3. Six or seven copies of the Datatrak Purchasing Department Sheet (one for each of the five department members and one for each of the department's observer(s).
4. Six or seven copies of the Datatrak Operations Department Sheet (one for each of the five department members and one for each of the department's observer(s).
5. Seven or eight copies of the Datatrak Marketing Department Sheet (one for each of the six department members and one for each of the department's observer(s).
6. One copy each of the following role sheets (a different sheet for each of the twenty-two participants who are designated as department members):
   a. Datatrak Accounting Role Sheets 1 through 6;
   b. Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheets 1 through 5;
   c. Datatrak Operations Role Sheets 1 through 5;
   d. Datatrak Marketing Role Sheets 1 through 6.
7. One copy of the Datatrak Observer Sheet for each observer.
8. A pencil for each observer.
9. A clipboard or other portable writing surface for each observer.
10. A name tag for each participant. Prior to conducting the activity, the facilitator completes twenty-two of these tags with the job titles appearing on the role sheets and each of the four to eight remaining tags with the word "observer."

Physical Setting:
A room with movable chairs and plenty of space to accommodate four separate groups as well as a group-on-group configuration (See Process, Step 8).

Process:

1. After announcing that the participants are to be involved in an activity that deals with organizational conflict, the facilitator forms four groups and designates them as follows:
   a. The Accounting Department (seven or eight participants);

b. The Purchasing Department (six or seven participants);
c. The Operations Department (six or seven participants); and
d. The Marketing Department (seven or eight participants).

Each group is seated at a separate table.

2. Each participant is given a copy of the background sheet and a copy of the appropriate department sheet. The participants are instructed to read these handouts, beginning with the background sheet. (Ten minutes.)

3. Within each department the facilitator distributes the appropriate role sheets and gives each remaining member a copy of the observer sheet, a pencil, and a clipboard or other portable writing surface. All participants are asked to read their sheets, but are cautioned not to share the contents. (Ten minutes.)

4. Each participant is given a name tag that identifies his or her role. The facilitator instructs the participants to put on their tags.

5. The facilitator emphasizes the importance of maintaining roles during the role play and then elicits and answers questions about the task. After telling the department managers that they have thirty minutes in which to conduct their meetings and make their decisions, the facilitator instructs them to begin.

6. At the end of the thirty-minute period, the facilitator stops the group meetings and asks the managers to spend five minutes announcing their decisions to their subordinates and explaining their rationales.

7. The role plays are concluded. The observers are asked to provide their groups with feedback, and the remaining members within each group are asked to share their reactions to the feedback. (Fifteen minutes.)

8. The four managers are instructed to form a circle in the center of the room, and the remaining participants are asked to form a circle around the managers. The facilitator leads a discussion with the managers, requesting that the remaining participants listen but not participate. The following questions form the basis of the discussion:

a. How did the details of your role affect the way in which you directed the department meeting? How did these details affect your decision?

b. How might your decision have been different if you had not been required to play a role?

c. How did you deal with the conflicts that arose?

d. How effective were your methods for managing conflict?

(Twenty minutes.)

11. After the managers have completed their discussion, the facilitator leads a total group discussion by eliciting answers to the following questions:

a. What were the consequences of your role behavior during the activity?

b. How did you feel about the constraints that your role placed on you?

c. How did the roles in your group affect the interaction of the members?

d. How might you have behaved in the same situation if you had not been required to play a role?

e. In your back-home work group, what methods does your supervisor use to manage conflict?

f. What steps can you take in the future to help to manage conflict in your own work group?

Variations:

1. Instead of requiring each manager to come to an individual decision regarding which employee to lay off, the facilitator may instruct the four managers to meet to help one another to determine which employee should be terminated from each department.

2. The facilitator may change the requirement that each department must lay off one employee. Instead, it may be stipulated that the entire organization must lay off two or three employees. In this case appropriate changes must be made to the handouts and the process.

Datatrak Background Sheet

Board
of
Directors

President

Accounting Department	Purchasing Department	Operations Department	Marketing Department

Organizational Structure

Products

Datatrak manufactures computer hardware and software designed to meet the specific needs of individual customers.

Organizational Objectives

The company's objectives are as follows:

a. To manufacture computers designed to meet the specific needs of individual customers.

b. To accomplish manufacturing in a manner that is cost effective to customers and that generates substantial revenue for the company and its stockholders.

Present Situation

The country is currently in the worst recession that it has ever experienced. Unemployment has reached 30 percent and is rising. The stock market has closed each day for the past several months in a downward trend that, some economists fear, may lead to a stock-market crash.

Datatrak, your employer, is feeling the effects of the recession and is presently trying to cope with a reduction in sales and profits. An outside auditing firm has audited the company's books and determined that if the company is to survive the recession, it must reduce expenses. Consequently, the board of directors has just announced that, as a cost-reducing measure, each department must lay off one employee. Each department manager has been asked to meet with his or her subordinates in order to elicit input and opinions regarding which position should be terminated; then the manager is to make the ultimate decision. The department meetings are to take place in a few minutes.

Datatrak Accounting Department Sheet

Finance Manager

Accounting Supervisor

Accounting Assistant	Cost Accountant	General Accountant	Auditor

Job Descriptions

Finance Manager:

Responsible for managing the accounting department and for presenting pertinent financial data to the president and board of directors to facilitate timely and sound business decisions.

Accounting Supervisor:

Responsible for directly supervising the accounting personnel and establishing and monitoring departmental budgets. Also responsible for other duties as assigned by management. Reports to the finance manager.

Accounting Assistant:

Responsible for typing reports, providing assistance to the accountants and the auditor when necessary, and helping to put together the monthly operating report. Also performs a monthly bank reconciliation.

Cost Accountant:
Responsible for accurately recording and classifying the cost of materials and properly providing the general accountant with this information for the preparation of the monthly operating report.

General Accountant:
Responsible for preparing the balance sheet, the statement of income and retained earnings, the statements of changes in the financial position, and the monthly operating report.

Auditor:
Responsible for ensuring that all departments comply with company financial policies and procedures. Also responsible for conducting periodic audits of inventories as necessary. Reports to the accounting supervisor for routine matters, but has the authority to consult the finance manager or to report directly to the president regarding significant matters.

Rumors About the Department

1. The accounting supervisor has no real work other than to the finance manager and then to communicate the manager's wishes to others.

2. The accounting assistant habitually arrives late, frequently socializes in other departments, and often calls in sick.

3. The cost accountant is rumored to be interviewing for positions with several competing companies.

Datatrak Accounting Role Sheet 1: Finance Manager

You have been with the company for fifteen years and have worked up through the ranks. The president will soon become the chairperson of the board of directors. Because you have been with the company longer than any of the other managers, you feel that you are a natural successor to the presidency, a position that is extremely important to you.

You are a very task-oriented person and believe that the task must be performed above all else. As far as you are concerned, this belief has enabled you to become a manager and has increased your qualifications for the presidency.

The accounting supervisor reports to you on the status of activities within the Accounting Department. The accounting assistant, cost accountant, general accountant, and auditor report to the supervisor. However, when matters of significant importance are concerned, the auditor has the authority to consult you or to report directly to the president.

The accounting assistant often complains to the supervisor about the work load, frequently calls in sick or asks for vacation and is often found socializing with friends on the phone or in other areas of the company. As a result, department work is often late.

The cost accountant, who has a degree in accounting, is very ambitious and often seems bored with the job. This person is frequently late at turning in work and becomes defensive when asked about its status. You have heard that the cost accountant is searching for another job.

The general accountant is very punctual at completing assigned tasks. This person is working toward a degree in night school, but is always receptive to your special requests.

The auditor, who also has an accounting degree, is very proficient, but tends to go over your head to the president with information that you feel is routine in nature.

<u>Datatrak Accounting Role Sheet 2: Accounting Supervisor</u>

You report to the finance manager. When the president becomes the board chairperson, you hope to be promoted to manager. For this reason, you are anxious to keep the present manager happy. For instance, the manager does not tolerate late reports from the department. However, you have to prod your subordinates in order to complete these reports on time. You are not interested in their excuses; you simply want them to perform their duties.

The cost accountant is the worst in this respect. The fact that this person is frequently late with work assignments angers the manager and makes you look bad as a supervisor. With any task, you must check on the cost accountant's work repeatedly if it is to be completed on time. These checks normally result in extremely defensive behavior on the part of the cost accountant.

The promotion to manager is extremely important to you. You have a son who is a senior in high school, and the increase in salary would enable you to send him to a prestigious college, as you have always wanted.

Datatrak Accounting Role Sheet 3: Accounting Assistant

The accounting supervisor does not seem to appreciate you and, in your opinion, assigns you an excessive work load. You have a lot of friends in other departments, and phoning them and seeing them during the day is one of the things you enjoy most about your job. You visit them on breaks, at lunch, and whenever you do not have work to do. However, you supervisor constantly reprimands you for socializing.

In most respects, you and the others in your department get along well. However, you think that the cost accountant, who always assigns you menial tasks such as filing and typing, is a little arrogant. This person seldom finishes work on time and frequently talks back to the supervisor in front of others. You feel that this is wrong and that the cost accountant should either appreciate the job more or find another one.

Two years ago you had open-heart surgery, which left you with large medical bills that were not entirely covered by your insurance. You have no income other that the salary from this job. It is essential for you to keep the job if you are to pay these bills.

Datatrak Accounting Role Sheet 4: Cost Accountant

Your supervisor is constantly on your back about completing work on time. You can only prepare your reports when you have received all of the necessary information from others, but the supervisor does not seem to understand this. You would like more challenging work, but your supervisor always gives the special assignments to the general accountant, who, unlike you, does not even have a degree. Although the general accountant's job requires less time to perform, your supervisor seems to be more impressed with this person than with you. You could perform this job as well as your own in the required amount of time, and yet the general accountant makes almost as much money as you. Although you are less than satisfied with your job, you have no intention of searching for a position with another company. Familial obligations necessitate your keeping this job at all costs. The economy is such that opportunities are very limited.

You are also aware that your immediate supervisor may be promoted soon, and either you or the auditor would then become the new supervisor. This position would open unlimited doors to you; you must have it if you are to be the least bit satisfied working at Datatrak. Because you and the auditor are equally qualified for the position, you are constantly looking for opportunities to discredit this person in front of your superiors.

Datatrak Accounting Role 5: General Accountant

The accounting supervisor gives you a great deal of support and is impressed not only with your work but also with your seeking a degree through night school.

The cost accountant appears to be envious of your good working relationship with your boss. This person always gives the supervisor a lot of flak and is constantly reminding you that you do not have a degree.

Although you and the accounting assistant get along well, this individual frequently seems to be preoccupied and spends a lot of time socializing with friends on the phone as well as in other areas of the building. This often requires you to do your own filing as well as other menial tasks while you could be performing more important duties.

You and the auditor are good friends. However, this person is often out of the office performing reviews of other departments, and you wonder how much of this time is spent on company business.

Acquiring an accounting degree would open a lot of doors for you in the company. Therefore, it is extremely important that you retain your job in order to finance this degree. If the economy ever improves, you might be able to go into business for yourself as an accountant.

Datatrak Accounting Role Sheet 6: Auditor

You report to the accounting supervisor on matters of routine importance. Regarding matters that are considered significant, you are authorized to consult the finance manager or to report directly to the president.

You get along well with the others in the department, but the audits that you must perform require you to be out of the office much of the time. Your supervisor frequently inquires about the status of these audits and pushes you to perform them in less time. You are a perfectionist and feel that this pushing will result in audits of lower quality.

If the present supervisor is ever promoted to finance manager, either you or the cost accountant will become the new supervisor. The fact that the cost accountant could be promoted worries you because you know that this person makes no attempt to get along with others in the department and is entirely motivated by self-interest.

You are engaged to be married in a few months. In these poor economic times, if you were to lose your job you would have to postpone the wedding.

Datatrak Purchasing Department Sheet

Purchasing Manager

Senior Buyer

Buyer

Procurement Specialist

Purchasing Assistant

Job Descriptions

Purchasing Manager:

Responsible for planning and supervising the effective procurement of materials and supplies requested by all departments within the company. Also responsible for ensuring that such items are bought after firm but fair negotiations and are delivered on a timely basis at the requested place and in excellent conditions.

Senior Buyer:

Responsible for planning and supervising the procurement of materials and supplies requested by all departments within the company. Also responsible for ensuring that such items are bought after fair negotiations and are delivered promptly and without damage.

Buyer:
Responsible for procuring materials, equipment, and services at the lowest possible cost consistent with the requirements of sound company operation. Also responsible for selecting vendors through an evaluation of price, availability, specifications, and other factors.

Procurement Specialist:
Responsibilities are the same as those of the buyer.

Purchasing Assistant:
Responsible for providing stenographical and other services necessary to maintain and support the functions of the Purchasing Department. Duties include transcribing material from handwritten or typed copy to final form through the use of word-processing equipment and operating terminal equipment to transmit and store textual and statistical information.

Rumors About the Department

1. The buyer is receiving kickbacks from vendors.

2. The senior buyer is eligible for early retirement, but wants to work a few more years to build a larger retirement fund. This person frequently arrives late and leaves early, apparently without regard for the consequences.

3. Although the company has a policy against nepotism, the procurement specialist has a close relative in upper management.

Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheet 1: Purchasing Manager

You have been with the company for ten years. You have an M.B.A. and several professional licenses. You reached your present position within the company very quickly and are the youngest company manager. During your three years in this position, you have initiated innovative improvements that have saved the company thousands of dollars. Your progress has not gone unnoticed; the president of the company and one of the vice presidents on the board of directors have both commended you on your management style and ideas, and it is rumored that you will probably replace this vice president when she retires.

In addition, you are very pleased with the people who work for you. You realize their worth as individuals as well as the importance of each of their jobs. Although some personality conflicts have arisen among several of your employees, you feel these problems have been straightened out and will not occur again. You are happy with the progress your department has made in the past and expect that it will continue to operate in a very professional manner.

Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheet 2: Senior Buyer

You are the oldest person in the Purchasing Department. You came up through the ranks and have gained valuable experience in many areas of the company. Having worked for the company for thirty years, you are eligible for early retirement. You want to work two more years in order to receive your full retirement benefits.

Because you have been with the company for such a long time, you feel that you are entitled to take certain liberties, and on several occasions you have done so without regard for the consequences. This practice has caused some resentment between you and other company employees. You have seen the company go through good times and bad, but its present financial situation is the worst to date.

Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheet 3: Buyer

You are the youngest person in the Purchasing Department. You joined the company three years ago, immediately after graduating from college. Although you have less seniority than anyone else in your department, you have worked hard and achieved a level of expertise at what you do. You are even going to school at night in order to obtain an M.B.A.

However, something happened recently that may jeopardize your job: the procurement specialist intimated that you were receiving kickbacks from vendors. Because your personal integrity is as important to you as succeeding in your work, you are hurt and outraged by this intimation. You are also wondering how to broach this subject with the purchasing manager.

Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheet 4: Procurement Specialist

You have been with the company for over twenty-five years. Although you do not have a college degree, you perform the same duties as a buyer (a job that requires a degree). You are resentful of the fact that the buyer has only been with the company for three years. You have also heard a rumor that the buyer is receiving kickbacks from vendors.

Another situation is causing you anxiety, too. You were hired before the company initiated its policy against nepotism. You have a close relative in upper management, and in the past this gave you a feeling of security. However, in light of the company's present financial situation as well as the policy against nepotism, you have begun to have reservations about the security of your relative's job as well as your own. If you were to lose your job, you could not enter the labor market and expect to make your current salary.

Datatrak Purchasing Role Sheet 5: Purchasing Assistant

For ten years you have performed the same job. You have a high school education and are currently attending night school at a local community college. You have always worked hard and done a good job, and you are well liked by everyone in your department. In addition, you have always taken on added responsibilities without being told to, but you tend to feel that the others in your department takeyou for granted. The only requirement for your job is a high school diploma, but because you have worked for the company for ten years you make considerably more money than someone who could be hired to fill your job.

On your salary you support yourself and your elderly parents; losing your job would be disastrous.

Datatrak Operations Department Sheet

Operations
Foreman

Software
Engineer

Assembly
Foreman

Assembly
Technician
II

Assembly
Technician
I

Job Descriptions

Operations Manager:

Responsible for the final design, assembly, and packaging of all computer hardware and software. Also responsible for keeping assembly costs to a minimum while maintaining maximum quality and ensuring that all orders are completed on time. Supervises two people, a software engineer and an assembly foreman.

Software Engineer:
Responsible for providing the software to meet each customer's needs. Also responsible for providing customers with manuals and training sessions on computer use and user language. Designs software diagnostic programs for troubleshooting the software packages. By virtue of experience and training, is the software expert in the company.

Assembly Foreman:
Responsible for ensuring that computer parts are stored and assembled properly. Also responsible for checking each computer after assembly to ensure that it is operational, properly packaged, and sent to the warehouse. Makes sure that the proper tools and equipment are available to assemble each machine. Supervises assembly technicians I and II.

Assembly Technicians I and II:
Responsible for assembling and packaging new computers and any spare parts required for existing computers, performing maintenance on tools and equipment necessary for assembling and delivering packaged computers to the warehouse for shipping. Strong background in electronics required for both positions.

Rumors About the Department

1. The assenbly foreman is given to back stabbing and to frequent outbursts that upset people throughout the organization.

2. The assembly technician II is a free spirit who is often late to work and frequently calls in sick.

3. The operations manager, who was the software design engineer before being promoted, spends a lot of time helping the present software engineer.

Datatrak Operations Role Sheet 1: Operations Manager

You are forty years old. You graduated from Georgia Tech. with a degree in electrical engineering and immediately went to work with IBM. Your training at IBM was in the design software systems. In addition, you completed your M.B.A. while working there. After ten years with IBM, you left to become a software engineer for Datatrak because the pay and promotional opportunities were better.

Based on your strong performance as a software engineer, you were promoted to operations manager two years ago. You are conservative, neat, and a stickler for detail. You get along well with everyone because of your noncontroversial style. You do not "rock the boat"; you carry out all of your tasks in a timely fashion, and you are, in every sense of the term, a "company person." You are well respected throughout the company and you feel that you are the likely successor to the president.

Your department consists of a software engineer, an assembly foreman, and two assembly technicians, I and II.

The software engineer, who was hired two years ago to replace you when you were promoted, is quiet and hard working. However, this person's software packages are often very complex and difficult for the user to apply. Therefore, you frequently become involved in the software design. Also, you keep reminding the software engineer of the need for programs that are simpler to use.

The assembly foreman was promoted from assembly technician II seven years ago when the previous foreman retired. The promotion was extremely unpopular because this person criticizes employees in all departments and, consequently, is disliked by many people. On the positive side, the foreman does have extensive knowledge and experience in assembly operations and does obtain acceptable results from subordinates. You would like this person to improve relations with others in the company so that the conflicts and problems that are currently being experienced with other departments will decrease.

The assembly technician II formerly was a computer technicial in the Air Force and was hired seven years ago to replace the technician who was promoted to assembly foreman. Although an outstanding technician and a whiz at electronics, this person is immature, and you attribute this immaturity to being unmarried. The technician frequently calls in sick or requests one day's vacation at the last minute, and this easy-going, carefree attitude bothers you.

The assembly technician I was hired three years ago when the sales volume was increasing. After a divorce, this person went to vocational school to become a computer technician and, although not great at the job, is dependable and conscientious.

Datatrak Operations Role Sheet 2: Software Engineer

You have a degree in electrical engineering and computer science and you have been with the company for two years. You are quiet and hard working. You consider your software packages to be very sophisticated and "state of the art." Although you wish you could be left alone to do your work, your boss is constantly interfering and making you change your software programs.

Datatrak Operations Role Sheet 3: Assembly Foreman

Seven years ago you were promoted to this position from that of assembly technician II. You have been with the company since its inception. You consider yourself a valuable employee; your knowledge of and experience in assembly operations make you perfect for this job.

You are an extrovert and enjoy conversation with anybody about anything. Often you point out deficiencies in your department as well as other departments so that they can be corrected and result in a more efficient operation.

Datatrak Operations Role Sheet 4: Assembly Technician II

You are a computer technician who learned this skill in the Air Force. Electronics and computers have always fascinated you, and you know you are an expert on the subject. You are thirty-five and have never married because you like an easy-going, carefree life style without responsibilities.

You like your work, and the money it pays you lets you lead the kind of life you enjoy. You would rather work for someone less abrasive than the assembly foreman, but you do admire this person's expertise in assembly operations.

Datatrak Operations Role Sheet 5: Assembly Technician I

You were married right out of high school and had two children shortly thereafter. One day your spouse walked out on you and the children and subsequently divorced you. Although you had your house, a clerical job, and some money in the bank, you were concerned about being able to provide adequately for your children. Consequently, you went to vocational school at night to become a computer technician.

You started work at this company three years ago. You consider yourself dependable and hard working. You have learned much about life the hard way and do not want your children to have to do the same. You worry about how you are going to put them through college.

Datatrak Marketing Department Sheet

Marketing
Manager

Advertising Supervisor — Marketing Secretary — Sales Supervisor

Advertising Assistant — Senior Salesperson

Job Descriptions

Marketing Manager:
Responsible for effectively coordinating the delicate balance between the national coverage of advertising and sales. Exercise control over both the advertising supervisor and the sales supervisor in order to maintain this balance. Tasks include implementing budgets passed on by superiors, effectively reporting department sales to superiors, and informing superiors of advertising needed to maintain proper market coverage.

Advertising Supervisor:
Responsible for managing all company advertising, maintaining a close relationship with the Operations Department in order to promote product lines, and advertising as effectively as possible within the limits of the budget. Works directly with the marketing manager.

Advertising Assistant:
Responsible for preparing all advertising layouts and coordinating all advertising efforts with various media. Good art background required.

Marketing Secretary:
Responsible for processing all paperwork for the department; answering all phone calls; and effectively managing all office equipment, such as copiers, typewriters, teletypewriter devices, and so forth.

Sales Supervisor:

Responsible for setting all sales quotas, covering major accounts, and solving any and all major sales problems. Must be sensitive to market needs and must maintain a close working relationship with the Operations Department so that each sale can meet the customer's time requirements.

Senior Salesperson:

Responsible for covering existing accounts in an assigned territory and acquiring enough new accounts to meet a quota.

Rumors About the Department

1. Although the company has a policy against nepotism, the sales supervisor is related to the president. Also, sales have been deteriorating since the sales supervisor held this position.

2. The marketing manager spends many work days playing tennis.

3. The marketing manager shows favoritism toward the marketing secretary.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 1: Marketing Manager

You hold an M.B.A. from a prestigious eastern school. You came up through the ranks and became a manager through the sales division of the Marketing Department. From the time you took over as manager until just recently, the company's sales have been the biggest ever. Only since the economy took a downturn and competition became more intense have sales decreased.

The decrease in sales has been a constant source of worry to you in recent months. To relieve the pressure, you have been taking a half-day of vacation twice a month to play tennis. However, in spite of the gloomy economic situation, you are convinced that sales can become what they once were with a more aggressive advertising campaign and with a sales force that is as large as or larger than the current sales force. Therefore, you cannot afford to lose any salespeople.

You have assessed your department to determine where you might be able to cut back, and the only area in which you could justify a cut is the advertising division. However, you have a lot of confidence in the advertising supervisor, who can do the job more than adequately.

On the other hand, the sales supervisor, who is related to the president, is not quite as capable or aggressive as you would like. Although you like the sales supervisor, this person lacks the desire to excel.

The present marketing secretary is the best that the department has ever had and consistently gives 110 percent. Consequently, you give this person more liberties than you have given the former secretaries. Lately, however, you have been wondering whether you should discontinue some of these liberties. It has been hinted in your presence that you show favoritism toward the secretary.

The advertising assistant is well liked in the department. This person is very talented, has turned out some excellent advertising campaigns, and works well with the advertising supervisor.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 2: Advertising Supervisor

You have been with the company longer than anyone else in the Marketing Department. Under your watchful eyes, the advertising branch of the department has become extremely valuable and has even won some awards. Although your peers consider you to be very capable, you feel that the marketing manager, who favors the sales division of the department, fails to recognize your worth. You fear for your job because of this fact. In addition, you believe that any upward movement in your department will be made by the sales supervisor, who is related to the president of the company.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 3: Advertising Assistant

You are the first advertising assistant that this company has ever had. You are excellent at advertising layout and were highly recruited when you graduated from college. In addition, you enjoy your work very much. However, because you have been with the company for a shorter time that anyone else in your department, you feel that during this period of economic instability you will be the first to be laid off.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 4: Marketing Secretary

You have been with the company for three years. Doing a good job has always been your primary concern at work; you are very dependable and conscientious. In addition, you like and are liked by almost everyone in the Marketing Department. You particularly respect the marketing manager because this person is extremely generous and allows you special privileges as a reward for your loyalty and your excellent work. The sales supervisor, who acts like a prima donna, is your least favorite coworker.

Because you have a retarded child who requires expensive institutional care, it is imperative that you keep your job.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 5: Sales Supervisor

You are related to the president of the company. After you were hired, the company instituted a policy against nepotism. However, because the president has assured you that the policy does not apply in your case, you have always felt secure in your job. Your primary concern is performing well so that you will be noticed for your work rather than your relationship to the president. You have risen from the ranks and you believe that you have done an adequate job. Although you are rather young to be a supervisor, you feel that your position is well deserved because you were educated at one of the best colleges in the country and you received an M.B.A. at an early age.

At this time you are not happy with your position, but you know that you must "pay your dues." You do not actually like marketing, and, because of poor economic conditions, overall sales have been low since you have been the supervisor. You have tried hard to do your best, but your heart is not in your job. Occasionally you have become frustrated because of the lack of cooperation you have received from your subordinates. The marketing secretary, in particular, places little importance on whatever work you request; no matter how urgent, your work receives less attention than everyone else's. However, you are willing to withstand this hardship because the economy is so bad and a move might be costly.

Datatrak Marketing Role Sheet 6: Senior Salesperson

You have been with the company longer that any other salesperson. You attended college for two years and then quit to join the service, where you were trained as a computer programmer. After leaving the service, you worked for a succession of computer companies and finally landed a job with this firm.

Your territory and quota are the largest in the company's history, and you are doing extremely well. You would like to be promoted to a supervisory position, but you feel that a promotion is unlikely because you are such a good salesperson. This feeling is reinforced by the fact that you have more experience than the sales supervisor and should have been named to that position. Even though there is a policy against nepotism, you feel that this supervisor achieved the position by virtue of being related to the company president.

Datatrak Observer Sheet

During the department meeting, you are to listen and observe carefully and make notes regarding answers to the following questions. After the role play has been concluded, you will be asked to state the answers to members of your department.

1. What types of conflicts arose?

2. What methods did the manager use to manage these conflicts?

3. How did the other department members respond to these methods?

4. How did the manager gather information from the subordinates?

5. How did he or she use the information to make the ultimate decision?

6. How would you describe the mood of the department at the beginning of the meeting? How did this mood change as the meeting progressed?

Giving and Receiving Feedback

"Feedback," is a term borrowed from cybernetics which refers to the partial or complete return of a process to its source. Feedback, as a communications term, refers to the verbal (oral or written) relay of perceptions of behavior and/or results relayed from a perceiver to the person or persons who behaved (see diagram below).

"feedback"

A BEHAVES ------> PERCEIVED BY B

Feedback can be verbal or nonverbal, constructive or destructive, effective or ineffective, understood or not understood, result in "positive" or "negative" behavior change, or no change at all. Our bias, however, is that feedback should be helpful to the person receiving it. It should help one understand better how his/her behavior is perceived and the results of that perception. It should provide a base for people to alter their behavior to make it more effective.

If feedback is to be helpful, the person receiving it should be able to: (1) understand the information; (b) accept the information; and (3) do something about it.

Feedback that is global is not likely to be understood. Example: "You did a lousy job" conveys displeasure, but why? Feedback that is too threatening is not likely to be accepted. Example: "You can't be trusted." Feedback that calls attention to something over which one has no control is hardly helpful. Example: "Men (or women) can't do this job anyway."

For those who wish to give more effective feedback, the following guidelines should be helpful.

1. Describe behavior relevant to desired performance or outcome.

2. Describe the situation in which the behavior occurred.

3. Check your observations with those of the person receiving the feedback. Do you agree on what occurred?

4. Describe what you perceived as the outcome or results of that behavior. Check your perceptions with those of the person receiving the feedback.

5. State your evaluation of the observed behavior relevant to desired performance, making clear what behavior you view as acceptable and unacceptable.

6. Ask feedback recipient to paraphrase what he/she has heard.

The person receiving feedback should recognize that feedback is always about behavior that has happened and can be changed. Thus, by openly seeking and understanding feedback, one gains valuable information about oneself that can be a base for improved future performance.

Just as there are effective ways of giving feedback, so there are effective ways to receive it. Some guidelines for receiving feedback are:

1. Listen, listen, listen <u>very</u> carefully.

2. Be aware that what you are hearing is one and only one feedback source.

3. Do not become defensive; you are hearing one person's opinions, not eternal truth.

4. Try to understand not only what the other person is saying, but why. What is his/her frame of reference?

5. Check perceptions, ask questions, make sure you understand.

6. Note silently areas of disagreement, but do not rebut the other person's remarks.

7. Take the information received, together with information from other sources, and decide if you wish to modify your behavior.

Greeting Cards: An Organization Simulation

Group Size:

Approximately twenty-four members. Two or more previously designated smaller groups may be joined into one larger group for this task.

Time Required:

Three to six hours (one afternoon and/or one evening session, for example).

Materials Needed:

1. Task, Requirements and Attitude Sheet for each member.
2. Product Specifications Sheet for each member.
3. One or two copies of each bulletin from the Acme Brokerage Co. (8:00 p.m., 8:15 p.m., and 8:30 p.m. are the same times used).
4. Two copies of the Rating Sheet for each member for pre- and post-testing.
5. Pencil for each member.
6. Ample supply of 8 1/2" by 11" sheets of paper.

Physical Setting:

Large room with movable desks, tables, and chairs to facilitate the group members arranging their own production environment.

Process:

1. If the group has not previously met as a whole before, the facilitator may arrange that they have lunch together to become acquainted or he may design some other social interaction with the total group before the task is discussed.

2. The facilitator may wish to briefly outline the task toward the end of this social period so that preliminary discussion of the task may take place.

3. The facilitator will distribute the Task, Requirements and Attitude Sheet and the Product Specifications Sheet to each member. The group is asked to meet in the room set aside for the production in order to organize itself for the task. A diagram of its organization or plan of operation must be submitted by the group to the facilitator at the end of a specified time period (1-2 hours).

The facilitator asks the group to select two observers who will not participate in any of the interaction from this point on. The observers will take notes on the behavior and interaction of the other group members. They are also reminded to choose one member who will be responsible for getting the market requirements from the Acme Brokerage Co.

The facilitator explains to the group that they may go about the task in any fashion which they choose. He explains that they need not go into actual production until the time indicated on the Task, Requirements and Attitude Sheet but that they may wish to have a pilot run to test, in a preliminary fashion, how the organization is working.

4. At the designated time, the facilitator receives the diagram or plan from the group and administers the Rating Sheet. The group processes the rating data.

5. At the time designated for production, the facilitator gives the first bulletin from the Acme Brokerage Co. to the group member who has been assigned this part of the task. He will continue to distribute a bulletin for each of the next two fifteen-minute segments. After forty-five minutes, he will stop production and ask the group to make its final tabulation. When the task is completed, he administers the Rating Sheet for the second time.

6. The facilitator asks the group to take a fifteen minute break while the results of the two Rating Sheets are being evaluated.

7. After the break, the data from the Rating Sheets will be reviewed and the production figures discussed. The facilitator will then ask the observers to give the group and/or individuals feedback. Finally, he will open up the entire task experience for group discussion and evaluation. (The facilitator may design this evaluation period in any way that seems appropriate to the group he is working with, perhaps giving different emphasis to the various aspects of evaluation.)

Task, Requirements, and Attitude Sheet

The group will create and operate a business organization which will produce a product. The positions in the organization are to be filled by the members of the group.

Be sure your organization can meet emergencies and shifting market demands, since these will be introduced into the exercise.

This exercise is focused primarily on problems of productivity rather than on problems of profitability. Consequently, you do not need to be concerned about problems of capital, retained earnings, balance sheets, pay scales, budget controls, purchasing, etc. Assume that all personnel are adequately paid. Raw materials and floor space will be made available as needed. You will be told what market conditions exist at the time your plant begins operating at 8:00 p.m. today.

The products are sheets of paper containing verses of the kind used in greeting cards. Products must conform to the standards outlined on the Product Specifications Sheet. You will need to work out some way of making sure that the specifications are met, and that data are gathered on: 1) total volume of output; 2) proper product mix (i.e., meeting the market demand for certain kinds of verse); and 3) percentage of rejects. Be sure that your records are set up to keep the data current. In determining volume and product mix figures, you can count only finished products in inventory at the end of any production period. Goods in process are not to be counted. Thus you will need a place to store finished inventory.

You will not need a sales force, but you will need some person to get market requirements from Acme Brokerage Co. In meeting changes in market requirements, excess finished inventory may be carried over to the next period, but work in process cannot be used this way.

Requirements for the organization are as follows:

1. Produce a large volume of verses that meet specifications and are of the types required to meet market demand.

2. Maximize creativity of all personnel as they do their work.

3. Encourage maximum involvement and self-direction among all personnel.

4. Maintain flexibility needed to deal with changes in market demand or with unexpected internal disturbances of the organization.

5. Provide for assistance and consultation for any personnel who is being blocked or hindered from doing a good job.

Each member should have a good attitude toward this task. Try to be creative in designing the organization rather than using existing organizations as models. You may even wish to use new names for any positions you create. Do not rely on textbook approaches--enjoy yourself!

Product Specifications Sheet

1. Each 8 1/2" by 11" sheet of paper must contain two different two-line verses. Both are about the same occasion, however.

2. The lines of each two-line verse must rhyme, but the two verses on the page need not rhyme with each other.

3. Each sheet must have a title at the top which shows the kind of occasion for which the verses are to be used. For example: New Year's, Mother's Day, Father's Birthday, Get Well, etc.

4. Every sheet must be different; no duplication of verses.

5. Grammar, spelling, punctuation and capitalization must be correct. Lines should have approximately the same meter, but this is not a rigid requirement.

6. Verses may be serious or humorous.

Sample Product

Birthday

I see that you are 82;

The years are sneaking up on you.

- - -

I wish you lots of cheer today;

In every sort of friendly way.

Greeting Card Bulletins

8:00 p.m. Bulletin

The Acme Brokerage Co. buys all of the cards of your company. The market conditions are such that between 8:00 and 8:15 they will purchase any number of verses in the following percentages:

50% New Year's Day verses

50% Valentine's Day verses

These market conditions may change and the Acme firm is always on the lookout for new markets.

8:15 p.m. Bulletin

The Acme Brokerage Co. now is prepared to purchase verses in the following percentages:

25% New Year's Day verses

25% Wedding Congratulations verses

20% verses for "sensitivity" cards

30% verses for Get Well Cards for facilitators

8:30 p.m. Bulletin

The Acme Brokerage Co. announces a change in market requirements. It will now purchase verses in the following percentages:

20% verses for men who have just become engaged

15% Halloween verses

15% Labor Day Greeting verses

5% St. Patrick's Day verses

20% Get Well verses for the Boss

25% verses to develop new markets

Greeting Card Rating Sheet

1. How strong is (was) your desire to help this organization work effectively?

_____ a. Extremely weak

_____ b. Very weak

_____ c. Weak

_____ d. Neither strong nor weak

_____ e. Strong

_____ f. Very strong

_____ g. Extremely strong

2. How satisfied are you (were you) with your own job assignment in the organization?

_____ a. Completely dissatisfied

_____ b. Very dissatisfied

_____ c. Dissatisfied

_____ d. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied

_____ e. Satisfied

_____ f. Very satisfied

_____ g. Completely satisfied

3. How free will you be (were you) to use your own initiative and creativity in helping this organization work well?

_____ a. Completely restricted from using initiative or creativity

_____ b. Very restricted

_____ c. Restricted

_____ d. Somewhat restricted, somewhat free

_____ e. Free

_____ f. Very free

_____ g. Extremely free to use initiative and creativity

4. Do you think there is (was) adequate provision for your getting help and consultation when you "get stuck" or have trouble in your work?

_____ a. Completely inadequate

_____ b. Very inadequate

_____ c. Inadequate

_____ d. Somewhat adequate

_____ e. Adequate

_____ f. Very adequate

_____ g. Completely adequate

Getting Acquainted: A Potpourri

Below are listed several structured experiences that can be used as ice-breakers in human relations training events. These getting-acquainted ideas can be employed in laboratories, conferences, class meetings, and other group meetings.

1. Superlatives. Participants are asked to study the composition of the group quietly and to decide on a superlative adjective that describes themselves in reference to the others. (Example: youngest, tallest, most up-tight.) Then they tell these adjectives, explain, and test the accuracy of their self-perceptions.

2. Hometown. Secure a large blank map from a school supplies dealer. Post the map and have each participant write his first name and hometown in the proper place on the map. (As he tells about his hometown, he is disclosing important things about himself.)

3. Demographics. On a chalkboard, the group lists all of the background data that they would be interested in knowing about each other, such as age, marital status, educational history, etc. Participants in turn tell who they are in reference to these demographic questions.

4. Progressive Inference. Post sheets of newsprint on the walls, one for each participant. Group members write their first names on the sheets and then begin four rounds of self-disclosure. First, each writes his favorite English letter (A, B, C, etc.) on his sheet, returns to his seat, explains his choice, and is questioned by his fellow participants. In rounds two-four, the content is his favorite word, then his favorite phrase, and finally his favorite sentence. (John Doe, General Electric Company, Atlanta, Georgia.)

5. Design. Subgroups are formed to brainstorm getting-acquainted ideas. They select representatives who meet in the center of the room to plan an ice-breaking activity. (This meeting may be interrupted for process observations by the remainder of the group.) After a break, the representatives conduct their own design.

6. Draw a Classroom. Participants are given paper and pencils and are instructed to draw a classroom. They have five to ten minutes to work privately in this phase. After everyone finishes they hold their drawings in front of them and circulate around the room without speaking (ten

minutes). Then they are asked to return to two or three interesting people to talk with them. Subgroups are formed to discuss the content of the drawings and to report to the total group. (Variations: draw an office or a shop.)

Organization Structures: Communication Patterns

Group Size:

At least eighteen participants. (See Variations section for use with smaller groups.) Several groups may be directed simultaneously.

Time Required:

Approximately one hour.

Materials Needed:

1. Decks of playing cards sufficient to make up the needed number of pre-set "hands" of five cards each. Three examples of card sequences for five "players" are illustrated below. (Groups working simultaneously should receive identical sets of hands.)

Hand #	1	2	3	4	5
Cards	A/C	5/C	6/C	A/H	4/D
	2/D	Q/H	7/C	7/D	6/H
	3/H	K/H	J/C	8/D	10/C
	4/C	A/D	9/C	9/D	2/C
	Q/D	5/H	Q/C	10/D	8/H

Common element: No Spades

Hand #	1	2	3	4	5
Cards	2/C	5/H	Q/S	7/C	K/C
	3/H	3/D	4/H	10/D	K/S
	7/S	9/D	4/C	8/D	8/S
	6/D	Q/D	K/D	6/C	6/H
	J/H	2/D	J/D	3/S	4/C

Common element: No Aces

Hand #	1	2	3	4	5
Cards	K/H	Q/D	J/H	K/D	Q/H
	2/S	3/S	4/S	8/S	9/S
	5/H	6/H	7/H	10/H	4/H
	8/D	9/D	2/D	3/D	7/D
	10/C	A/C	5/C	6/C	2/C

Common element: Red Face Card
King, Queen, or Jack

2. Paper and pencil for each group.

Physical Setting:

A room large enough to accomodate the number of groups comfortably with flexibility for demonstrating organization structures and for creating "offices." Enough chairs should be provided so that "offices" can contain an empty chair for individuals who come in to confer with another member. The "offices" should be spaced so that conferences can be confidential.

Process:

1. The facilitator announces that an experiment is to be conducted concerning organization structures. He forms three groups of five participants each (with a process observer for each group) and seats them as follows and explains the only possible communication lines as illustrated by the arrows. He may wish to post three diagrams:

Group 1 Group 2 Group 3

2. He announces that each group will have a problem to solve. Members will have rules to govern their communication, as follows:

a. They must go to the "office" of the person with whom they wish to confer, to talk privately without being overheard.

b. They may only speak with the person(s) previously designated with arrows in the above diagrams.

c. In Groups 1 and 2 the person in the starred position has to decide when the problem is solved, notify the facilitator, and communicate the solution. In Group 3 any member may perform these functions.

3. The facilitator distributes a hand of cards to each group member, being careful not to mix up the sets of hands, and supplies each group with a pencil and paper. He announces that, within each group, the five hands of cards have a common element. The groups must determine the common element using the communication rules previously presented. He then asks the groups to begin the task and takes note of the starting time.

4. As soon as each group finishes, the facilitator notes the time elapsed and asks the group spokesman for the solution, in writing. Groups that finish early are instructed to sit quietly and reflect on the problem-solving process that emerged and on feelings that they experienced during this phase.

5. Each group then caucusses with its observer to reconstruct its process. After about ten minutes the total group is reassembled to discuss differences across the three groups. The facilitator announces the elapsed times and solutions for each group. The facilitator may wish to give a brief lecturette on the characteristics of the three organization structures represented--hierarchical (Group 1), leader-centered (Group 2), and radial (Group 3).

Variations:

1. More than one member can be assigned to any given position. This may simulate organizational situations in which teams have to communicate with each other.

2. The number of positions can be varied.

3. The complexity of the problem can be varied by changing the number of cards in each hand or by building in a more subtle answer, such as three even-numbered cards in each hand.

Strategies of Changing: A Multiple Role-Play

Group Size:
Six participants and any number of observers, up to an audience of more than 100.

Time Required:
Approximately one hour. Can profitably be run for two hours, plus additional time for a general discussion of strategies for changing human systems.

Materials Needed:

1. System Description handout for everyone present.

2. Role Description handouts for each of the six participants. These should be typed on 5" by 8" cards.

3. Three sets of strategy instructions for the participants playing the change agent roles, typed on 5" by 8" cards.

4. Table(s) and/or chairs for six people.

5. Role-name and role-title signs, if there is a large audience.

Physical Setting:
Participants may sit around a table or in a circle. If there are observers, they may arrange themselves around the participants, or, if there is a large audience, participants in the exercise should sit at two tables set at a slight angle to each other and facing the audience.

Process:

1. The System Description handout is distributed to everyone present.

2. The facilitator selects or asks people to volunteer to take the roles of individuals who are involved in the situation described in the handout.

3. Each of the six participants is given a role description. The two participants who play the roles of Mrs. Green, Nurse, and Miss Dennis, Social Worker, i.e., the two who have the roles of the change agents, are given strategy instruction. On the first round they receive the rational-empirical strategy instructions. The other members of the multiple-role-play group are not told what these special strategy instructions given to the two change agents are.

4. The participants interact.

5. After ten to twenty minutes, the facilitator ends the interaction and leads the processing of what happened, eliciting data from participants and from observers of the audience. This may be done for ten to twenty minutes.

6. Steps 3, 4, and 5 are repeated, but with participants taking different roles. If it is a large group, new participants may be selected. Everything is the same, except that on this round the power-coercive strategy instructions are given to the two participants who have the change agent roles.

7. Steps 3, 4, and 5 are repeated as in Step 6, except that this time the normative-reeducative strategy is given to the change agents.

8. The facilitator may conclude the entire exercise by naming the three changing strategies that were being pursued, placing them in the larger, theoretical context of Benne and Chin's "General Strategies for Effecting Change in Human Systems." Or, the group can simply process the exercise, discussing which strategies seemed most effective, how different people responded to the different strategies, etc.

System Description: Strategies-of-Changing Exercise

The Pediatric Ward Administrative Meeting will start in a few moments. The ward is part of a metropolitan hospital located in the middle of a ghetto.

Typically, older children are either harnessed to little chairs in front of T.V. sets or lying in cribs, and infants are lying in cribs with bottles tied to the side of the crib so that they may be propped into the children's mouths; the nurses are busy writing, out in the nursing station, closed off from the ward, while aides are sweeping or making beds.

A nurse and a social worker from the ward, who are concerned about changing conditions on the ward, have asked to attend today's administrative meeting to express their concerns.

Role Descriptions: Strategies-of-Changing Exercise

Dr. Johnson, Chief Resident in Pediatrics

You are in charge of all pediatric services in the hospital, and you never have enough time to give personal attention to patients since most of your work is administrative: directing the residents, interns, and nurses who staff the various services and wards for which you are responsible.

Medicaid demands extensive reporting of the services provided by the hospital, and thus one of your primary administrative responsibilities is to make sure that these highly detailed reports are submitted correctly and on time. You depend on the nursing staff for these reports.

You feel torn about working in this manner. On the one hand, you would like to be more personally involved with both your patients and staff. On the other hand, the immediate pressure of the larger system forces you to work in this way in order to keep the pediatric service running and to utilize your own time most efficiently.

As convener of the meeting, you begin by saying, "Mrs. Green and Miss Dennis have asked to come to today's meeting," and look to them to take it from there.

Mr. Hartley, Assistant Administrator of the Hospital

Your orientation is basically managerial. You look at the hospital primarily in economic terms, and your main objective is to get the hospital off the deficit budget it has been on for several years. You are pleased with Dr. Johnson's responsible management of Medicaid reporting, but you have had to keep a tight rein on his interest in enlarging his staff.

Mrs. Bunch, Head Nurse of the Pediatric Ward

You have been on the ward for many years and have worked your way up to the position of Head Nurse. Over the years the clientele of the hospital has changed toward the lower end of the socioeconomic scale, and the number of children and the noise-level on the ward have increased. The newer children are more aggressive and louder than the good, quiet children you used to enjoy working with. You continue to work here because of the status and seniority of your position and the money that goes with it. You pride yourself on the efficiency of your staff in producing the reports that the medical staff depends on to serve the many children on the ward.

Miss Smith, Assistant Head Nurse

You are fairly new to this ward, and this is one of the first Administrative Meetings you have been to, so you are still feeling your way in regard to the power structure of the ward and hospital.

You are somewhat disturbed by the lack of personal attention which the children receive, but you are not one to "rock the boat," liking to get on well with others and to please your superiors.

Mrs. Green, Nurse

You have been working on the ward for two years and have become more and more unhappy with the progressively mechanical nursing care given to the children on the ward. More attention is given to patients' records than to their needs as people, and nurses have become mere recorders of patients' conditions and less involved with them as individuals. You feel that the situation could be improved and that some pressure could be taken off the nurses by bringing in volunteers. Most of the other nurses are not concerned about changing anything, but you have been pleased to discover that the ward Social Worker, Miss Dennis, shares your desire to see a change. The two of you have decided to approach the members of the Administrative Meeting about making some changes.

Miss Dennis, Social Worker

You have been connected with the ward for six months and, while unhappy with how things are done on the ward, have not felt that you had any leverage in the "medical" area of child care. You serve as a link between parents, the hospital, and the other agencies. Parents have complained to you about finding their children tied to chairs and in other ways unduly restrained. You understand that there are not enough nurses to give the children more freedom and individual attention; you cannot understand why parents are not btought in to help take care of their own children. In fact, visiting hours are severely limited, as if the hospital wanted to have as little as possible to do with parents. You have found Mrs. Green to be one of the few nurses who share your concern about improving things on the ward.

Change Strategies Descriptions; Strategies-of-Changing Exercise

Rational-Empirical

You believe that people are basically rational, though of course everyone has his own personal quirks. On the whole, however, you see people as logical. Since you feel that people change the way they do things when presented with new information or new evidence on ways of doing things, you dodn't worry too much about emotions, nor do you try to force things on people. In dealing with people whom you want to influence, you try to locate and correct information gaps and faulty reasoning on their part. Thus you yourself behave in an even, rational manner. In this situation, you might support your recommended changes by citing the well-known research evidence that personàl attention is an essential ingrediant in patient recovery and welfare.

Power-Coercive

You believe that the people who run things are basically motivated by political and economic interest. Since you feel that people change only when these factors are involved, you try to uncover underlying power and financial motives in order to use these in getting people to change. In dealing with people whom you want to influence, you try to find out where their vested interests lie and then do not hesitate to threaten them in a belligerent and coercive way. In this situation you would try to determine who is benefitting from the present system and point this out, or threaten to point it out, to the people who are being exploited. Parent sit-ins, pressure on City Council, involvement of the mass media, and the like are the kind of tools you might use to get what you want.

Normative-Reeducative

You believe that people have complex motivations, varied mixtures of cognitive, affective and social motives. Since you feel that people change the way they do things when all of these motives--ideas, feelings, conventions--are affected, you pay attention not only to people's ideas but also to their feelings about and commitments to certain practices, as well as to the effect of group pressures and norms that might be operating. In dealing with people whom you want to influence, you try to find out their side of things, what their feelings and expectations are. Thus you often express concern for them as well as the ideas they support. In this situation, you would try to find out and deal with the ideas and feelings which your recommended changes bring out in other people.

Supervisory Behavior/Aims of Education:

Consensus-Seeking Tasks

Group Size:
Ten or more participants. (In the example described here, two subgroups of five members each are established.)

Time Required:
Approximately one and one-half hours.

Materials:
1. Copies of the Supervisory Behavior Worksheet for members of the second inner-circle subgroup (see step 3).
2. Copies of the Aims of Education Worksheet for members of the second inner-circle subgroup (see step 4).
3. Pencils.

Physical Setting:
Movable chairs which can be arranged in a group-on-group design.

Process:
1. The facilitator divides the group into two subgroups and instructs participants of one group to choose a "partner" from the other group.

2. He arranges the subgroups in concentric circles, facing the center, and explains that the outer-circle will act as personal process observers; they will give feedback to their "partners" in the inner-circle group following the first group ranking session. He adds that a second ranking session will be held in which the roles of the two groups will be reversed and that new partners will be chosen for that session.

3. Copies of the Supervisory Behavior Worksheet are given to all participants in the inner circle. The facilitator explains that the inner circle is to work as a group in discussing and ranking the statements on their sheets. The group must not choose a formal discussion leader. It may arrive at its decisions by any method. As the group makes a decision, participants are to record the group ranking for each statement on the worksheet. They are to place the number 1 within the parentheses in front of the statement considered to be the most important characteristic of effective supervisory behavior and so on through number 8, the least important characteristic.

4. The facilitator reminds the personal process observers of their roles in observing their partners.

5. He tells the inner-circle group that it has twenty minutes to complete the ranking and cautions members that they may not complete their task in that amount of time.

6. At the end of twenty minutes, the facilitator directs personal process observers to give their "partners" feedback privately for ten minutes.

7. New partners are chosen. The process is repeated, with the outer circle becoming the inner circle acting as personal process observers. During this phase, Aims of Education Worksheet are used by the inner circle.

8. When the process is finished, the facilitator may wish to give a brief lecture on task versus process.

9. The facilitator leads a discussion of the experience.

<u>Supervisory Behavior Worksheet</u>

Instructions:

1. You must work as a group.
2. Do not choose a formal discussion leader.
3. Record the ranking as the group decides upon it.

(______) He freely praises excellent work.

(______) He communicates his reasons for all important decisions to his subordinates.

(______) He encourages criticism of his policies by his subordinates.

(______) He consults with his subordinates before making decisions affecting their work.

(______) He has no favorites.

(______) He never reprimands a subordinate in front of others.

(______) He has frequent social contacts with his subordinates while off the job.

(______) He delegates authority to his subordinates on all matters directly affecting their work.

Aims of Education Worksheet

Instructions:

1. You must work as a group.
2. Do not choose a formal discussion leader.
3. Record the ranking as the group decides upon it.

(______) Society is held together by proper behavior. Education should teach people to be good, honest, upright human beings.

(______) People are happiest when they know they have done a skillful job. Therefore, they should be taught things that will help them do their work better.

(______) Knowledge should be valued for its own sake, because in knowledge there is wisdom. Education should teach those things that have been found to be true for all people at all times.

(______) The family is most important. Education should teach one to be a more able and responsible family member.

(______) In these times, when we must all work together to build our country, education must first teach us to be informed, reliable, and cooperative citizens.

(______) It is natural for people to want a reasonably comfortable way of life and a share in the good things of life. Education should primarily teach people how to attain money and success.

(______) If our nation is to go forward, our people must know and understand their own historical and cultural roots. Education should teach us about our past and how it can help or hinder us today.

(______) Freedom means choice. An uneducated person may believe all or nothing of what he hears or reads. Education should teach people how to make intelligent choices in all areas of their lives.

Maintenance of the Resolved Conflict

At the end result of the implementation of this plan, conflict should be resolved in the institution. To insure that the state of resolved conflict can continue, however, it is necessary to conduct maintenance seminars at specific times throughout the life of the institution.

A one-half day development seminar is recommended at nine-month intervals. It is likely that the full potential of the intensive plan will not be achieved unless a maintenance program is conducted. It is suggested that Getting Acquainted Tasks and Conflict Resolution Tasks (found in the experiences portion of this chapter) be used during the maintenance seminars.

Summary

This chapter has given a specific plan for conflict resolution to be used in private post-secondary education. Each one of the ten experiences was specifically chosen to resolve conflict in the institutions. Included in this chapter is a suggested schedule of events for implementation of this plan.

The experiences have been given in their entirety in order that the entire plan can be easily planned and administered. Although there are literally hundreds of simulations and experiences available on the resolution of conflict, this is the first of its kind to have a complete plan that can be implemented in the higher education environment.

A maintenance plan is given after the experiences are given. In order for any institution to maintain a highly functional environment, repeated actions need to be taken to foster the positive attitudes that should be a result of this plan.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was conducted to discover what, if any, conflict resolution methodology was being used in higher education, specifically in United Methodist four-year colleges in North Carolina. The basic research method was an intensive review of the literature on conflict and conflict resolution, the literature on private post-secondary institutions in North Carolina, and the literature on human relations training and development as it relates to conflict and conflict resolution.

In addition to the literature review, individual interviews were conducted with the president and a faculty member from each of the following United Methodist four-year colleges in North Carolina:

Bennett College
Greensboro College
High Point College
Methodist College
North Carolina Wesleyan College
Pfeiffer College

In this particular study, Duke University was not used because the characteristics of that institution are dissimilar, rather than similar, to the other colleges in the study. The two primary differences are the size of the university, and the endowments the university has obtained over the years.

An interview instrument was devised to use in the conducting of the interviews. The instrument consisted of twelve questions. (See page 91.) The words "president" and "faculty" were interchanged when appropriate.

Additionally, an attitude survey was taken of the people who were interviewed. The instrument used was based on the Likert scale. (See Appendix C.) Among the questions asked in the survey were questions on the subjects of communications patterns and decision-making patterns. Problems with these two subjects were most often found when unresolved conflict was present in the institution.

Conclusions

The conclusions reached in this study are supported by the review of the literature. The conclusions are briefly given as follows:

1. Conflict is inevitable. It is found in environments that are dynamic as well as those that are static. It is found in business and in higher education, at all levels of an organization.

2. Conflict can be a positive influence where it is found. If conflict can be identified when it exists, it can be useful in growth and development of all levels of an organization.

3. Unresolved conflict plays a major role in institutions found to be dysfunctional. Unresolved conflict generally exists when each side perceives its motives and behavior more benevolent and legitimate than those on the other side.

4. Once conflict is identified and resolution of the conflict is an organizational goal, the plan for resolution of conflict is appropriate.

5. It is essential that a maintenance program be used in order to avoid going back to the unresolved conflict stage.

Recommendations

This study leaves the details of the actual implementation of the plan to the individual institution. In addition to the suggestion of reading carefully every line of the rationale for this plan, several areas of importance are discussed as follows:

1. The faculty members, administrators, and members of the board of directors must support the effort indicated by this research. With the expressed confidence of these constituents, the opportunities for individual and group development in the area of conflict resolution are more likely to succeed.

2. Those who would benefit from the suggested plan are all faculty and administrators in the institution. This plan has the highest likelihood of success if it is implemented after all the constituents are made aware of the opportunity and can make plans to fully participate in the plan implementation.

3. Outside help is suggested in order for the full benefits of this plan to be realized. There are many possible problems attached to allowing a constituent of the college to lead such an experience. Optimum success will be realized if an outside agent performs the leadership role in implementation of the plan. The value of an outside consultant is being recognized more often in the field of education. For many years outside help has been a practice in the business arena.

4. Maintenance of the positive outcomes of this plan is imperative in order to keep the individual and the group development near the level attained in the experiences. Failure to maintain will probably result in loss of the full value attained in the plan. Only total re-implementation will bring the individual and the group back to the level of understanding of human behavior attained during the experiences.

   Maintenance can easily be accomplished by holding a one-half day development seminar. During this time, experiences in Getting Acquainted Tasks, and Conflict Resolution Tasks can be used.

Further research is recommended which would revolve around the implementation of the plan, the testing of the outcomes in each institution as an end result of the experiences of the plan, and a comparison of the private institutions and the public institutions in conflict resolution.

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Appendix A

Variables Used in Preliminary College Survey Instrument

1. Accreditation and how long in existence
2. Campus TV or radio station
3. Church affiliation or not (which if yes)
4. College known by sports or academics
5. Continuing education and/or degree program
6. Date first opened
7. Enrollment
8. Extra-curricular programs
9. First president
10. How it began (school, college, etc.)
11. How long current president has been there
12. How president is chosen
13. In case of denominational school, is president of same
14. Lines of authority (organization chart)
15. Location
16. Number of books in library
17. Number of buildings and/or acreage of school
18. Number of programs offered (degree and non-degree)
19. Original name
20. Part of area consortium
21. Percent of faculty holding doctorates
22. President historically male or female

23. Publications on campus
24. Reason for beginning or major program
25. Residential or commuter college
26. Semester or quarter academic year
27. Setting of college (urban, rural)
28. Size of faculty (number of)
29. Sororities and fraternities (social or professional)
30. Sex (predominantly male or female)
31. Sports programs (intercollegiate)
32. Title of CEO (principal or president)
33. Use of adjunct faculty

Appendix B

Variables Selected for Final College Survey Instrument

Eighteen variables were selected from the survey instrument to determine similarities and differences among the thirty-three four-year private institutions in the state of North Carolina. The compilation of these variables is presented in the matrices on the pollowing pages of this study. Listed below are the selected variables. They are given on this page to make the matrices more easily understood.

1.	Age of School	10.	Number of Library Books
2.	Campus Acreage	11.	Number of Programs
3.	Church Affiliation	12.	Area Consortium Member
4.	Adult Education Program	13.	Percentage of Faculty with Doctorate
5.	Date Began	14.	Predominant Race
6.	Enrollment	15.	Predominant Sex
7.	Honor Societies	16.	Residential or Commuter
8.	Intercollegiate Program	17.	School Setting
9.	Number of Faculty	18.	Social Fraternities and/or sororities

Appendix C

College President/Faculty Attitude Survey

Question					Item No.
How often is your president's behavior seen as friendly and supportive by faculty?	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very freqently	1
How much confidence and trust does your president have in his faculty?	A great deal	Substantially	Some	Not very much	2
How much confidence and trust do you have in your president?	Not very much	Some	Substantially	A great deal	3
How free do you feel to talk to the president about academic matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, your work, etc.?	Very free	Rather free	Somewhat free	Not very free	4
How often are your ideas sought and used by the president about academic matters?	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently	5
What is the direction of the flow of information about:	Downward from president to faculty to student	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up and between faculty and administrators	
a. academic matters?					6
b. non-academic school matters					7
Are downward communications accepted?	Almost always accepted. If not, openly & candidly discussed	Usually accepted, sometimes cautiously	Some accepted, some viewed with suspicion	On the surface, yes. Secretly, no. Viewed with great suspicion	8
How accurate is upward communication?	Usually inaccurate	Often inaccurate	Fairly Accurate	Accurate	9
How well does your president know the problems faced by the faculty:	Very well	Quite well	Rather well	Not very well	10
How often do you try to be friendly and supportive to:	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very requently	
a. your president?					11
b. other faculty?					12
What is the character and amount of interaction in your college:	Extensive, friendly interaction. A high degree of confidence & trust	Moderate interaction, often with fair amt. of confidence and trust	Little interaction. Faculty & president maintain distance from each other	Little interaction, usually with fear and distrust	
a. between president and faculty?					13
b. among faculty?					14
How much cooperative teamwork is present in your college among faculty, president and students?	Very little	Relatively little	Moderate amount	Very substantial amount	15

					Item No.
At what level are decisions made about college matters, such as course content, instructional plans, teaching methods, student behavior, student activities, etc.?	Throughout Col. Pres., faculty, and students participating in decisions affecting them	Broad policy at top; more specific decisions at lower levels	Policity at top; specific decisions by faculty, but usually checked by pres. before action	Bulk at top by president of college	15
Is decison-making in your college based on man-to-man or a group pattern of operation?	Man-to-man only	Man-to-man almost entirely	Both man-to-man and group	Largely group	17
In general, what does the decision-making process contribute to the desire of faculty and students to do a good job?	Not very much, oftens weakens it	Relatively little	Some contribution	Substantial contribution	18
To what extent are decision makers aware of the problems of faculty?	Generally well-aware	Moderately aware	Aware of some, unaware of others	Often unaware or only partially aware	19
To what extent are teachers involved in decisions related to their work?	Not at all	Occasionally consulted	Usually consulted	Fully involved in all decisions	20
Who holds high performance goals for your college?	President, faculty, students, parents	President, most faculty, some students	President and some faculty	President only	21
Who feels responsible for achieving high performance goals?	President only	President and some faculty	President, most faculty, some students	President, faculty, students	22
How much secret resistance is there to achieving high performance goals?	Little or no resistance and much cooperation	Some resistance and some cooperation	Moderate resistance	Strong resistance	23
In what manner are goals established?	Issued by administrators	Goals issued, faculty may comment	Goals issued, after discussion with faculty	Goals usually established by group participation	24
What is the level of performance goals which administrators seek to have the college achieve?	Extremely high goals	Very high goals	High goals	Average goals	25

					Item No.
What is the general attitude of faculty toward your college as a place to work?	Strongly favorable	Usually favorable	Sometimes hostile, sometimes favorable	Hostile	26
How are faculty motivated in your college?	Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards	Rewards and some actual or potential punishment	Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement	Rewards based on group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.	27
Do motivational forces conflict with or reinforce one another?	Marked conflict of forces reducing behavior in support of the college's goals	Conflict often exists; occasionally forces will reinforce each other, at least partially	Some conflict, but often motivational forces will reinforce each other	Motivational forces generally reinforce each other in substantial & cummulative manner	28
How often are attitudes toward other faculty favorable and cooperative with mutual confidence and trust?	High degree of confidence and trust	Some trust & cooperativeness	Some distrust	Frequent hostility	29
How much satisfaction is derived from supervision faculty may receive?	High satisfaction	Moderate satisfaction	Some dissatisfaction	Usually dissatisfaction	30