DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 148 411   JC 780 028

AUTHOR   Breuder, Robert L., Ed.
TITLE   Management Principles for the Community College
                Administrator.
INSTITUTION   Brevard Community Coll., Cocoa, Fla.
PUB DATE   77
NOTE   170p.
AVAILABLE FROM Brevard Community College, 1819 Clearlake Road,
                Cocoa, Florida 32922 ($5.00)

EDRS PRICE   MF-$0.83 HC-$8.69 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS   Administrative Organization; *Administrative
                Principles; *College Administration; Community
                Colleges; Conflict Resolution; *Junior Colleges;
                Management Systems; Organizational Climate;
                *Organizational Development; *Organizational
                Effectiveness; Organizational Theories; Problem
                Solving; Resource Allocations; Team Administration

ABSTRACT
        Six critical areas of community college organization
and management are addressed in a direct and practical fashion. John
W. Lee offers strategies for coping with the paradoxical decline in
the quality of learning and the associated increase in instructional
productivity. The translation of traditional intraorganizational into
interorganizational management principles is the focus of discussion
by Eugene C. Bell; here planning, organizing, staffing, direction,
and control become conferring, linking, contacting, persuasion, and
coordination. B. J. Hodge proposes that college administrators should
choose an organizational climate (either traditional, human
relations, or human resources) that will produce job satisfaction and
organizational productivity. The functions of planning, organizing,
directing, and controlling as they relate to the management of scarce
resources is presented by Richard D. Tellier, followed by a
discussion by S. V. Martorana and Eileen Kuhns on the subject of team
management. Included are role definition, role coordination, team
member identification, recruitment and selection, team member
professional development, and evaluation of team productivity.
Finally, Kichiro K. Iwamoto discusses the management of interpersonal
conflicts, arguing for a "problem solver's" style in which
conflicting persons both achieve personal goals and maintain an
effective personal and/or working relationship. (RT)

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES FOR THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMINISTRATOR

edited by
ROBERT L. BREUDER

BREVARD COMMUNITY COLLEGE, COCOA, FLORIDA 32922

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES

FOR THE

COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMINISTRATOR

edited by
Robert L. Breuder
Special Assistant to the President
Brevard-Community College

FORWARD

As we approach the turn of the century, leaders in the community college will need to draw upon the full extent of their talents and expertise to meet and come to terms with the complex challenges which are certain to emerge. If the 1960's, with its phenomenal student growth, or the 70's, with its multiplicity of problems ranging from dwindling financial resources to changing student needs, were regarded as being administratively demanding, then the two remaining decades in this century will unquestionably require that educational leaders possess total commitment and develop a plethora of skills heretofore unequaled.

This publication results from the seemingly perennial requests from community college administrators for information which they can use to help carry out their assigned duties. Regardless of where a community college is in its stage of development, management will be confronted with issues or problems which require substantive information upon which to make decisions. The constant task of maximizing management's effectiveness and efficiency is a formidable one. Often the process is complicated by the reality that a significant number of administrators have little, if any, formal educational training in organization and management and/or top level administrative work experience.

Six critical areas in the broad area of organization and management are addressed in a direct and practical fashion. The authors are appreciative to those persons who contributed to the success of this publication: Carole Rushing, Kay Kehoe, Audrey Austin, Donna Java, Gene Street, and Monica Peterson.
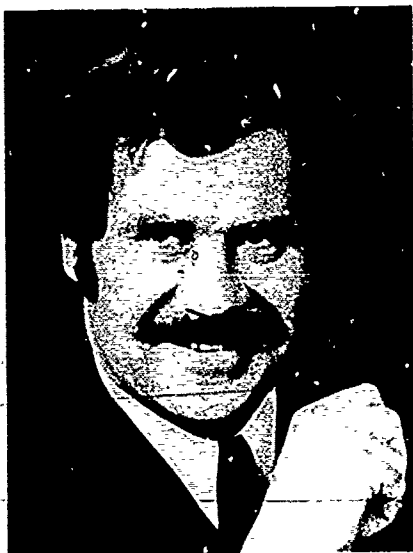
Robert L. Breuder
Special Assistant to the President

Brevard Community College
Cocoa, Florida

i

4

TABLE OF CONTENTS

JOHN W. LEE

Dr. John W. Lee received his DBA from Arizona State University. He has taught graduate courses in organization and management for the past ten years at The Florida State University. Recently he formed Time Life and Lee, a time management consulting firm, and is currently devoting full time to working with public and private organizations. He has published over fifty articles on time management and organizational effectiveness and has worked with over eight hundred organizations.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

Until recently "productivity" and "higher education" seem to have been mutually exclusive concepts. In the past when faculty members were fewer and their income considerably less than professionals in private industry, they were not expected to be as productive as the presumably highly motivated private sector professionals. Thus, concern over the management of educational resources was limited.

This is no longer the case. The spiraling cost of a college education has taxed the ability of a growing number of families to shoulder the increased financial burden at a time when the real economic value of a college degree is declining. Substantial gains in instructional productivity have occurred over the past decade. However, in many cases, it is difficult to make a case that true organizational productivity has increased. The paradoxical decline in the quality of learning provided at many institutions combined with an associated increase in instructional productivity would suggest that the measures chosen to ascertain productivity in higher education deserve a close review. Part of the paradox may be accounted for by the absence of measures of quality in instructional productivity and the lack of overall measures of performance in systems of higher education.

Private industry has had difficulty measuring productivity and in many cases characterized the process as "managing in the dark." Relative to private industry, community college and university administrators are in a paradoxical position of having to increase organizational productivity in quality-oriented expanding service organizations in an inflationary period with inadequate measures of productivity and limited data bases that do not give adequate consideration to quality or external factors. The net result may be a decline in organizational productivity if basic changes are not made in the concepts of productivity and effectiveness held by administrators, faculty, staff, legislators, and the general public. Short run strategies to improve productivity may prove counter-productive and limit the growth of a "productivity ethic" that is needed in higher education if it is to fulfill and expand its educational role over this next decade.

Chapter I

OVERCOMING THE ORGANIZATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY PARADOX

IN POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION

by

John W. Lee

"Only in the most recent 10 years or less of our 100-year
history has government productivity become a meaningful concern
to public officials. In the past, when public employees'
incomes were considerably less than their counterparts in
industry, government workers were not expected to be as produc-
tive as the presumably more highly motivated private sector
workers. In retrospect, one could almost conclude that the
terms "productivity" and "government" had been mutually
exclusive concepts for almost 200 years."[1]

> John S. Thomas
> Consultant
> National Center for
> Productivity and Quality
> of Working Life

A review of the literature on productivity in higher education might
also lead one to the conclusion that "productivity" and "higher education"
have been mutually exclusive concepts until recently. Dr. Roy Lassiter, in
his report, <u>Instructional Productivity and the Utilization of Faculty Resources
in the State University System of Florida</u>, found that the concepts of "pro-
ductivity," "output," or "outcome" were rarely used in connection with edu-
cational resource management prior to the 1960's. The necessity for
sophisticated measures of productivity in higher education is a recent
phenomenon. Traditionally, the only quantitative expressions of the pro-
ductivity or utilization of faculty resources were student-teacher ratios
and the average weekly hours that faculty devoted to their various assigned

tasks. The weaknesses inherent in these measures serve as ample evidence of the lack of accountability and productivity that has characterized higher education in the past.

The sixties saw a mushrooming growth in community college systems. Significant increases in the costs of higher education characterized the seventies coupled with a trend toward increasing demands for other public services and a strong and growing resistance on the part of the taxpayer to pay for any additional services. Pressures for accountability and productivity have grown greatly, as have criticisms of the ways in which our nation's educational resources system has been administered. It is safe to paraphrase Mr. Thomas' quote to read, "in the past when faculty members were fewer and their incomes considerably less than professionals in private industry, they were not expected to be as productive as the presumably highly motivated private sector professionals". Accordingly, the concern over the management of educational resources was limited.

This is no longer the case because of the changes that have occurred. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, in discussing the increase in expenditures for higher education during the 1960's concluded:

> Also, higher education may be reaching a ceiling in the amount
> of money it can expect from society--it used about one percent
> of the GNP in 1960 and is using 2.5 percent now, and no other
> segment of society more than doubled its take of the GNP during
> that short period of time. A resistance point may have been
> reached . . . . At a minimum, higher education must get back
> to its historic (1930-1960) rate of increase in cost per
> student per year (or cost per student per credit hour), of the
> general rate of inflation plus 2.5 percent: when, for example,
> the rate of general inflation has been 2.5 percent per year,
> the rate of increase in cost per unit for higher education has
> been 5 percent. Elsewhere in the economy productivity has
> risen about 2.5 percent a year; while in higher education
> there has been no productivity offset . . . . Thus, higher
> education must now be prepared to accept a plus 2.5 percent

2

8

or even less in the rate of increase in costs per student per year over the rate of general inflation. It must be more provident.[2]

This aforementioned statement was written prior to the high inflationary period of the past five years yet its wisdom was clear because in many states the Commission's prediction has become a reality. Many systems of higher education have not been able to secure funding to keep even with the rate of general inflation, much less a plus 2.5 percent increase on the top. Yet, today, higher education accounts for close to 3 percent of our Gross National Product.[3]

The spiraling cost of a college education is taxing the ability and willingness of a growing number of families to shoulder the increased financial burden at a time when the real economic value of a college degree is declining and the unemployment of college graduates has become an accepted fact of economic life.

THE PARADOX

The productivity gains attributed to instruction or instructional productivity, as has been noted, have been substantial in most states. In Florida, "over the 20-year period 1953-54 to 1974-75, the University System average productivity increased 72 percent at the lower level and 99 percent at the upper level".[4] It is clear that average instructional productivity has significantly increased, yet it would be difficult to make a case that organization productivity has increased. Moreover, Dr. Lassiter has noted that while average institutional productivity has increased, there has been an absolute decline in the quality of educational experience

offered in the State University System of Florida. This decline has accelerated recently in specific disciplines and at the newer institutions in the system.[5]

He has supported his contention of decline with his observations of the decline of the term paper, essay examinations, and individualized critiques of performance that have gone by the wayside with the reduced interaction that has occurred as class size and instructor work load has increased. One of his strongest arguments is the evidence marshalled that points to a decline in real support dollars for instruction and no increase in personnel supporting instruction. In Florida, there has been a decrease in the effective quantity of support personnel available to instruction as the burden of externally imposed requirements for record keeping and paperwork has increased. In addition, almost no resources are committed or available to the improvement of faculty capabilities as teachers.[6]

The paradoxical decline in the quality of learning provided, combined with an associated increase in instructional productivity, suggests that the measures chosen to ascertain productivity in higher education deserve a close review. It is not surprising to note the data base in many states provides for no measure of outputs or productivity in terms other than instruction or instruction-related activities.

Productivity in instruction is generally viewed as the ratio of student credit hours over a three or four quarter or two or three semester period to the sum of full-time equivalent faculty positions committed to instruction in each of these periods. The general absence of measures of quality in instructional productivity, such as above, would account for part of the paradox. A second part of the paradox would be caused by the overreliance

upon the measure of instructional productivity and lack of set of effective overall measures of organizational performance or productivity for higher educational systems.

On the surface, the productivity increases in higher education may, indeed, be misleading and short run in nature as they do not account for quality. Paradoxically, when viewed from an overall, and even micro view, the increase in instructional productivity may not be an increase in productivity or organizational effectiveness. Basil Georgopoulos and Robert Tannanbaum, two recognized management researchers, emphasize the importance of including measures of human assets when measuring organizational performance. They feel that "organizational effectiveness" is based on the "extent to which an organization as a social system fulfills its objectives without incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain on its members".[7] Organizational productivity is only one of the criteria of organizational effectiveness. Organizational flexibility and the absence of intra-organizational strain or tension are related criteria that must be closely examined if long-run organizational effectiveness is to be achieved.

The paradox is not unique to education, for private industry has also been managing productivity in the dark. It is interesting to note that during Phase II of the Nixon economic reforms, the Price Commission was established to monitor inflation and hold prices down to an annual rate of increase of approximately 3 percent. The Commission was charged to determine what level of price increases a particular corporation should be granted in order to maintain this desired level.

Each corporation was required to justify its requested price increase in terms of productivity increases. The theory was that productivity

5

increases had to correspond to price increases and thus offset each other at an equal rate to not be inflationary. Accordingly, management was asked to account for the status of productivity in its particular organization. However, this simply could not be done. Few organizations in the United States were able to go before the Commission with any reliable data concerning productivity. It is interesting to note that this fundamental and universal requirement of management--namely to increase productivity--was a task no management team could adequately account for in terms of its own specific situation in its own firm before the Commission. Thus, the Commission was forced to abandon this effort and rely on aggregate figures of industry productivity supplied by the government.

Private industry, in many cases, is still in the dark when it comes to measuring and increasing productivity. If private industry is considered to be in the dark, where would service industries and government and state institutions be? Moreover, where would community colleges find themselves on the scale? The answers are self-evident here. Community college and university administrators are in a paradoxical position of having to increase organizational productivity in a quality oriented expanding service organization in an inflationary period with inadequate measures of productivity and limited data bases that do not consider quality or, at best, hold quality to be a constant, let alone account for external factors and inflation.

The net result, in many cases, may be a decline in organizational productivity and effectiveness if basic changes are not made in the conception of productivity and effectiveness held by administrators, faculty, staff, legislators, and the general public. This conceptualization of production determines to a great extent the productivity measures utilized and the

strategies selected to increase productivity. Both the productivity
measures and strategies to facilitate productivity need to be examined once
productivity is adequately defined.

DEFINING PRODUCTIVITY

Defining productivity is difficult, especially in complex
systems. Most dictionaries imply that "productivity is the quality or state
of being productive". Economists usually define productivity as output per
man-hour, which may not be the best definition, as it suggests that manpower
is the sole source of productivity change. Productivity increases do not
result solely from working harder; however, in the field of higher education,
most faculty tend to view requests for productivity increases as demands
for more work, additional classes, and longer hours.

Productivity can be thought of as a target; moreover, the target might
be more accurately labeled as increased productivity. Productivity is best
defined in service industries as output per employee per hour, quality and
technology considered. The following paragraph demonstrates the wisdom of
this definition:

> When 30 students were served by one instructor in one class
> this past term, and 33 students are served in the same class
> this term, productivity has risen 10%. If 30 students were
> served by the instructor in the same class this term, with
> ten more units of knowledge added to the course, productivity
> has also risen, although the measurement of it is more diffi-
> cult. If a second section of the same class of 30 students
> were served by the same instructor through the use of
> instructional television, then productivity has risen 100%.

Productivity increases of output per employee hour reflect not only human
efforts alone, but also all the factors of production utilized. Productivity

7

expressed as output per employee per hour is primarily for convenience. Productivity could also be expressed as output per dollars invested.

Different groups define productivity differently, and groups--students, faculty, staff, administrators, legislators, and the general public--tend to emphasize their special interests when it comes to defining productivity. Common agreement seems only to be in the area that more productivity increases are needed. Who is to benefit from the productivity improvements or to share in the benefit is not so clear.

The Committee for Economic Development's conceptualization and meaning of productivity in government would seem to be appropriate and worthy of closer study by the community college system. They have pointed out that the concept of productivity implies a ratio of the quantity and/or quality of results (outputs) to the resources (inputs) invested to achieve them. Productivity in the public sector has two dimensions: effectiveness and efficiency.

Effectiveness concerns the extent to which government-programs achieve their objectives. This presumes that decisions about what and how much governments do are based on considered judgments of the relative importance and cost of meeting public needs. Perceptions of need, in turn, are presumably based on demands and expectations of voters and consumers as expressed through the political process.

Efficiency concerns the organization of resources to carry out government programs and functions at minimal cost. Efficiency may be expressed in several ways; including output per manhour, capital-output ratios, and more broadly, least-cost combinations of resources.[8]

Effectiveness, a relative measure of goal achievement, can be looked at from both short- and long-run perspectives. The processes of measuring the effectiveness of community colleges must be closely tied to measuring

the efficiency with which the community college system utilizes its resources to achieve its objectives.

Accordingly, productivity improvement is an increase in the ratio of output to inputs that contributes to the achievement of a community college's objectives. The providing of more effective or higher quality services at the same cost or the same services at lower costs leads to a higher degree of system effectiveness over a particular time period.

While inputs to community college systems can be defined, the outputs are exceedingly hard to define and measure due to the nature of the services provided by the community college system. These difficulties will be examined under Measuring Productivity.

MEASURING PRODUCTIVITY

Transforming public desires and tax money into educational output requires first a clear determination of citizen needs and desires. Unfortunately, our collective choices and needs are rarely clear, especially when it comes to higher education. The absence of objectives and criteria for measurement has enabled special interest or pressure groups to modify existing goals for their own benefit which may have accounted for part of the lack of public pressure for measurement in the past.

Numerous reasons exist for the lack of meaningful measurement of productivity in higher education including definition problems, lack of incentive, limited time and resources, political overtones, process difficulties, lack of interest or pressure, and faculty opposition. Whatever the reason or reasons, it is now essential that methods be developed to measure productivity in higher education and that funding be provided to assist administrators in this never-ending task.

9

Improved measurement of productivity is one of the key means to improve productivity in higher education. Community college systems can, by employing existing measurement techniques and adopting new result-oriented approaches that focus upon the evaluation of outputs, determine program effectiveness and efficiency. External factors and specific service consumer factors, (the ability and motivation of the student, the environment in which the service is performed, etc.) will need to be included in program evaluations especially when comparisons between the productivity of different colleges and their respective programs are made.

The mechanisms for evaluation can be both internal and external. State audit agencies have tended, in the past, to concentrate on financial administration and legislative compliance. However, the trend today is to follow the U.S. General Accounting Office which is concentrating increasingly upon measuring the effectiveness of governmental programs and the efficiency with which they are being carried out. The principal responsibility for exploiting the opportunities available through productivity measurement rests with the states, localities, and citizens served by community colleges. However, state systems of higher education operate as a part of our federal system and increasingly have come to depend upon federal program support. Thus, the responsibility to measure and improve productivity rests with everyone and in some cases none. Leadership is needed at all levels, especially the national level.

There are several means available to Health Education and Welfare to enhance the measurement and improvement of productivity in higher education. These means include the requiring of a specific percentage of federal grants to be expended for the development and implementation of techniques

10

to measure, analyze, and improve productivity. Bonus payments and additional funds could be made available to states and community colleges that develop and implement their own programs for measuring, analyzing, and improving productivity. Programs to strengthen and improve community college administration could be expanded. The options available to HEW are numerous. Whatever the choice, greater emphasis on achieving program objectives and quality performance must be emphasized over the traditional HEW stress on guidelines and requirements for program implementation. The modification of federal assistance to encourage productivity in higher education is a continuing task that deserves a high priority. The primary benefits of productivity measurement in higher education revolve around improvements to be gained from analysis and implementation of better methods. Productivity and effectiveness measurements also have additional uses:

a) To provide an index of progress--or lack of progress--to individual community colleges and the publics they serve.

b) To develop standards of performance, based on aggregate data for similar colleges.

c) To dramatize diversity and thus generate effort to determine the reasons for success and whether these reasons can be applied more widely to treat the causes of poor showing.

d) To serve as a basis for performance incentives that can be used by college administrators and labor in wage and working condition establishment.

e) To guide the federal government in allocating resources to raise the level of performance throughout the nation.

f) To determine whether programs are accomplishing their intended objectives.

g) To determine which programs should be abolished and which new programs should be undertaken or expanded.

11

h) To determine how well programs are operating for which
    no final output can be readily defined.

i) To predict and gauge future trends in unit costs result-
    ing from planned changes in organization systems,
    capital equipment, and facilities.

j) To keep short- and long-run performance trends in
    perspective.

The benefits and uses of well-chosen productivity measures are
substantial and make a compelling case for the implementation of productivity
measurement programs. The primary problem keeping most community college
administrations from implementing productivity measurement programs is not
desire, but a lack of expertise and the resources to undertake programs. The
development of effective management information systems and strengthening of
management capabilities is an essential first step toward productivity measure-
ment in the community college system. To get programs underway to measure
productivity, additional funding and expert assistance by federal and state sys-
tems is essential because the requirements of the undertaking exceed the
current resources of most community college units.

Coordination at the national and state level is needed for uniformity
and, moreover, for the communication of results. Most of all there is a
need to change basic state and national systems to facilitate and enhance
productivity improvement and to eliminate disincentives in the current
system that hamper or retard productivity improvement and innovation. To be
successful, productivity measurement and improvement programs must take a
long-run perspective and keep in consideration the high initial costs of
these programs.

A recent article in the _Tallahassee Democrat_ reported that a Senate subcommittee on educational finance recommended eliminating some 325 jobs, or eight million dollars, from the state university systems educational and general budget. Instead of increasing the budget, the legislative panel recommended that the university increase productivity by 5 percent. Chancellor York pointed out that in education a 5 percent higher productivity increase is normally translated into 5 percent fewer dollars for a given number of students, a 5 percent greater average class size, 5 percent less individualized attention for the students, and 5 percent fewer laboratory technicians, secretaries, and other systems to support the remaining faculty. In short, productivity increases are often tied to budget cuts and, accordingly, faculty and staff have come to be highly suspicious of such activities.

Even executives have some hesitation about stressing increased productivity. A Harris poll showed that nearly one-half of the American executives agree with a majority of union members that productivity gains benefit the company at the expense of the company workers. It is reasonable to suggest that a majority of faculty and staff believe that productivity gains benefit the state or federal institutions at the expense of the faculty, staff, and students. Changing their views will not be easy, nor will changing our current educational system, but it must done.

Three elements in the productivity puzzle were noted in the earlier paragraphs and must be examined before recommendations are made. First, the tendency for short run emphasis must be noted in productivity improvement programs. Second, the political and legislative realities must be faced as productivity increases have, in many cases, been associated with staff

13

10

PRODUCTIVITY IMPROVEMENT

Most of the basic and far-reaching productivity improvement programs

in higher education will not be of the immediate pay off variety. The rush

for quick payout productivity programs in higher education today might be

analogous to the speculations on the shape of an energy independence program

undertaken in 1976. These speculations were made by Dr. Arthur M. Buesche,

Vice-President for Research and Development at General Electric, at a recent

corner-stone laying of the Laboratory for Laser Energetics at the University

of Rochester.

> There would have been a terrific temptation to concentrate on
> the short-range programs with immediate payoff. For example:
>
> First might have been breeding types of draft animals,
> like horses and oxen, to be better at pulling wagons
> and plows....
>
> Second might have come new wax-fabrication methods
> to improve the candlepower of the candle....
>
> And a third important field might have been energy
> conservation methods, such as encouraging
> Benjamin Franklin to continue making improvements
> to his famous stove.
>
> But we should hope that such a program wouldn't have taken up so
> much of Ben's time that it would have prevented him from carrying
> on his seemingly "useless" experiments with lightning rods and
> Leyden jars. Such "useless" experiments have had more long-
> range impact on energy supply than all of the other short-term
> work put together.

Dr. Buesche's speculations are worth reviewing because the concentra-

tion on short-range productivity improvement in higher education may be self-

defeating. Equally self-defeating may be the attempts of legislators to

legislate effectiveness and productivity increases in higher education.

14

reductions. Third, and most important, the issue of who is to get what share of the benefits of productivity increase must be answered before any program is undertaken if faculty and staff support and commitment are to be gained.

A fourth element, timing, was implied earlier in the paper. Time is of the essence in developing productivity improvement programs for our nation's community college system because the proportion of young people enrolling in institutions of higher education has leveled off in recent years. However, the slack has been more than taken up by older students. Over the past decade, the two fastest growing segments were: nondegree credit enrollment, which increased from 330,000 to 1.2 million, and the community college system, where degree-credit enrollment rose at least three times as fast as the four-year institutions.[9] Budget cuts in higher education and continued or reduced levels of funding in state systems may find community colleges increasingly in conflict with their state's senior institutions over funds as they continue to grow, while many senior institutions continue to shrink in size.

Higher education faces difficult times. The 1980's will find universities facing demands for greater academic diversity from new groups of students, with resources shrinking because of declining enrollments. Community colleges in this period will also face important new demands; and in many regions of the U.S. they will increase their share of regional enrollment. The Southern Regional Education Board has estimated that community colleges in the South will increase their share of regional enrollment from 32 percent in 1975 to 37 percent by 1985.[10]

A survey reported in the Wall Street Journal found community colleges

to be highly favored by business leaders by a seven-to-one margin when high

education institutions were ranked on preparing students for the world of

work.[11] While the changing educational enrollment patterns point to signs

of continued growth for the community college system, researchers may, indeed,

be underestimating the degree of growth as favorable cost factors from the

student's viewpoint and the success of past community college programs

suggest that community colleges are strongly favored by the marketplace.

Thus, community college productivity improvement programs should

stress long-term improvement programs over short-term ones, especially

those that may prove destructive to the institution's growth capabilities,

flexibility, and ones which develop high degrees of intraorganizational

strain. The external, national and state system, elements, legislatures,

boards, and various public's roles must be closely examined to determine the

best strategies to provide the funding and the creation of conditions to

enable the community college system to successfully fulfill its role in our

national education system. Politics and the pressures from declining insti-

tutions may make this task a difficult one, yet it is essential that time and

dollars be devoted to securing the support of external groups to aid in

productivity improvement efforts.

Internally oriented and developed productivity improvement programs

must address the issue of who is to get what share of the benefits of produc-

tivity increases. It is highly doubtful that true sy n productivity improve-

ment programs can be developed and carried out without faculty and staff

support. Moreover, it would seem highly unlikely that any program would

succeed over the long run unless the continued willing commitment and energy

of the community college human resources are behind it. Tapping the human

resources of the community college system will require the creation of a productivity ethic similar to that of the environmental ethic.

This ethic should be based upon self-interest and meaningful rewards with faculty, staff, and administrators sharing in the benefits of productivity improvements along with the publics served and the taxpayers or their elected representatives.

DEVELOPING A PRODUCTIVITY ETHIC

While the principles of productivity improvement may, at first sight, have little of the sex appeal or romance that made the environmental movement an important force in the country, the necessity to improve productivity in community colleges is every bit as urgent and essential as is the need to understand our natural world and our place in it.

The conditions that made it possible for our high consumption economy have changed dramatically. The technological and capital head start that we had in the world has been altered. American products are no longer as highly desired in the international marketplace as they have been in the past. Our energy and natural resource dependence on foreign nations continue to grow as our work ethic continues to decline. Competition continues to expand and alters our economic well-being and capability for continued growth and quality of life. Community college administrators must alter the way faculty, staff, and students think about productivity and, moreover, make them aware of the changing economic environment in which the community college system is operating.

The "fiddler perspective," wherein faculty hold that the fiddler cannot improve his productivity by fiddling faster, is outdated, yet

emotionally difficult to overcome. The way in which faculty and staff contribute to their job is the single most important factor for determining productivity in the community college system. The importance of efficiently and effectively performing their respective tasks is essential as is an innovative attitude toward progressive change. The decline of the work ethic may indeed make this a most difficult task.[12] However, the benefits to all parties are clear, because without productivity increases and strong external support, the community college system as we know it may cease to be a viable educational force in our society. Clearly, much remains to be done to convince faculty and staff that increased productivity will benefit the organization and its members. It is safe to say that many faculty and staff will be skeptical of any emphasis on increased productivity. Increasing productivity may mean that some faculty or staff will lose their jobs or have to work harder. This may be true, especially if traditional management practice is followed, but it may not be necessary if a productivity ethic is developed and the community college human resources are tapped and rewarded.

The paradox of managing productivity in the dark with inadequate definitions of productivity, measures, data bases, and short-run strategies must not continue if the community college system is to increase its productivity without sacrificing quality and expansion of its educational role over the next decade. The environmental demands placed upon community colleges in the 1980's will require flexibility and adaptability, characteristics of effective organizations, and the development of a productivity ethic. The 1980's will find the terms "productivity" and "community colleges" synonymous when the organizational productivity paradox is overcome.

REFERENCES

[1] John S. Thomas, "Government Accountability--For What," Public Productivity Review, Volume I, No. 2, December, 1975.

[2] Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, The More Effective Use of Resources, An Imperative for Higher Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972), pp. 1-26.

[3] "Rising Costs of Higher Education," Road Maps of Industry, No. 1801, February, 1977.

[4] Dr. Roy Lassiter, Instructional Productivity and the Utilization of Faculty Resources in the State University System of Florida, (Gainesville, Florida: Institute of Higher Education, 1976) p.2.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Basil Georgopoulos and Robert Tannenbaum, quoted in "A Primary Goal of Organizations: Productivity, "People and Productivity, Robert A. Sutermeister, Third Edition, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976.

[8] Improving Productivity in State and Local Government, Committee for Economic Development, March, 1976, p. 14.

[9] "Changing Patters of Higher Education," Road Maps of Industry, No. 1800, February, 1977.

[10] The Tallahassee Democrat, June 26, 1977, p. 15C.

[11] The Wall Street Journal, June 6, 1977, p. 18.

[12] The Wall Street Journal, May 16, 1977 p. 4.

EUGENE C. BELL

Dr. Eugene Bell is presently Assistant Dean, School of Continuing Education, and Associate Professor, McIntire School of Commerce, University of Virginia. He was formerly on the faculty of the College of Business Administration, University of Oklahoma.

He is a graduate of the University of Texas (AB, 1956), Harvard University (MBA, 1963), and the University of Houston (Ph.D, 1974).

Dr. Bell's special field is organizational behavior. His articles on planning, systems theory, organization, evaluation, and personality, have been published in the Academy of Management Journal, the Journal of Community Psychology, the International Journal of Social Psychiatry, Public Relations Review, and Adolescence. His article, "Personality Correlates to Conflict Resolution Modes," will appear soon in Human Relations. Dr. Bell is a licensed psychologist in the State of Oklahoma. He has extensive consulting experience, and has also been an executive in three corporations.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

This paper discusses management in interorganizational networks. The focus is on the difficult problems that arise at points of articulation, or interfaces, of the organizations in a network.

Concepts that are useful in studying these problems are defined. Miller's concept of tightness of interorganizational linking is examined as a possible key variable in understanding why some networks are more effective than others. Boundary personnel are defined as those organizational members who function at the points of articulation with other organizations. Against this background of concepts, the paper demonstrates how various officers of colleges, e.g., President, Provost, Dean, and Vice President of Community Relations, are boundary personnel involved in networks.

Further light is shed on the general problems by considering colleges as components of a "Wheel of Influence." Colleges are conceived as service delivery units, along with other community institutions which impact a common target population.

This paper offers a translation of traditional intraorganizational into interorganizational management principles. Planning, organizing, staffing, direction, and control become conferring, linking, contacting, persuasion, and coordination.

Chapter II

MANAGING AT THE INTERFACE

by

Eugene C. Bell

The formal study of management has been almost completely directed toward finding means for individual organizations to achieve optimal effectiveness and efficiency. As in all other fields of human endeavor, much remains to be done in this quest. Still an impressive number of discoveries have been made, and they have helped solve many of the most vexing problems of managing the internal functions of an organization. Other chapters in this work address the problems of intraorganizational management. This chapter develops major interorganizational concepts as background for understanding the complex problem of coordinating diverse, often competitive organizations which become loosely and informally linked to cope with certain common problems.

The state of the interorganizational management art is many years behind intraorganizational management art and science. A number of concepts that shed light on the very difficult subject of interorganizational management have been studied, however. Indeed, a perspective on management of inter-organization systems that goes beyond a traditional categorizing of services, client needs, and organizational goals is evolving. Attempts to improve operations of service organizations traditionally have focused on intra-organizational issues such as planning, control, organizational restructuring, training programs, etc. All have been applied with energy, the best of intentions and the highest of hopes. Despite recognition of the

issue and some achievement in addressing the problem, managerially defined

concepts to plan and operate integrated services remain in their infancy.

Discussed in this chapter are the interorganizational concepts of

supersystems, interorganizational networks as supersystems, boundary positions

and personnel, and interface. The concept of interface and the special

problems of boundary personnel operating at network interfaces will be

examined as keys to effective interorganizational management.

The utility of viewing institutions of higher education as components

of interinstitutional networks will be examined in terms of the theoretical

structure. A major purpose of this chapter will be to show that college

administrators are boundary personnel who must be effective at the inter-

faces of their institution with the diverse organizations in their community

if their institutions are to be effective in meeting their responsibilities

for service.

THE CONCEPT OF SUPERSYSTEM

Miller (1965) stated that the universe is comprised of a hierarchy of

systems and that each higher level of the system is composed of systems of lower

levels. Thus, atoms are systems of particles, molecules are systems of atoms,

and so on up through higher systems levels to the highest and seventh,

a supranational system of societies. Although he observed that hierarchical

levels do not fit neatly into each other, general systems theory led him to

search for formal inter-level identities, where, despite superficial differ-

ences in structure, processes at different levels are performed in such

similar ways that they can be described by the same formal model.

Miller did not argue that there are exactly seven levels of systems

but admitted that one might meaningfully add intermediate levels. His hierarchy envisions societies composed of organizations, thus subsumming interorganizational systems. Addition of an intermediate level between his organizational and societal levels is necessary to facilitate the study of integration of organizations. Katz and Kahn (1966) wrote, "From a societal point of view the organization is a system of one or more larger systems... (p.58)." They also argued that understanding an organization's super-system is a first step toward understanding that organization.

Though Katz' and Kahn's generalization may sound extreme to those new to general system theory, few would argue against the practicality of keeping in mind that an organization's relations with other organizations are criti-cal to success. Institutions of higher education, particularly community colleges, illustrate the point well. College administrators must be aware of the importance of interinstitutional relations. For example, how long could a community college survive if its administrators were concerned solely with the internal aspects of faculty, students, and budgets? Faculty members come from other organizations; students simultaneously are members of the college and of other organizations (and hope to fill higher roles in other organizations because of their education); and college budgets come from many sources, prominently from other organizations.

Let us briefly consider one other writer on the concept of supersystem. Like Katz and Kahn, Turk (1970, 1973) emphasized the importance of the inter-organizational systems level, interposed between Miller's organizational and societal levels. Turk provided empirical support for this emphasis from his studies of interorganizational networks in urban society. Of direct rele-vance to this chapter, and to the value of the supersystem concept in

23

understanding college management, he concluded that both the interorganizational links tying a city to its sociocultural environment and those links connecting a city's internal elements provide structures for articulation. By extension, a college is linked to its environment, and those links provide a structure for articulation. As developed in the next section of this chapter, tightness of linking is a key variable influencing an organization's success in managing its interorganizational relations.

INTERORGANIZATIONAL NETWORKS AS SUPERSYSTEMS

Unlike lower level systems in Miller's hierarchy, organizations are not compelled to belong to particular supersystems. Katz and Kahn pointed out that supersystems vary on the degree of autonomy exercised by component organizations. A question arises as to why some supersystems seem rather tightly linked, even approaching structures characteristic of individual organizations, while others are so loosely linked that it seems fictional to consider them members of a meaningful systems hierarchy.

Levine and White (1961) suggested some of the determinants of interorganizational linking. They concluded from their investigation of community health organizations that there would be little need for organizational interaction and interorganizational cooperation if all essential elements for achieving organizational goals were in infinite supply. These elements include clients, labor services, and resources other than labor. They defined organizational exchange as any voluntary activity between two organizations which has actual or anticipated consequences for realization of those organizations' respective goals. They found that the degree of interdependence of elements in the interorganizational network studies is contingent

24

upon the real or perceived accessibility to each organization of the necessary elements from sources outside the interorganizational system.

This finding invites consideration of a relationship between access to resources and cooperation between organizations controlled in any network. Thus, if a college had all the resources necessary for achieving its goals, there would be no need to cooperate with other community organizations or to join a tightly-linked network of organizations. The fact that virtually all colleges do not control adequate resources, then, seems to be a compelling reason for them to seek membership in an interorganizational network.

Litwak and Hylton (1962) agreed with Levine and White that various degrees of interorganizational linking are desirable but emphasized that promoting autonomy is a major sociological function of organizational independence. They argued that autonomy is not only important to society when values differ, but when the different values are all desirable. One way of assuring the retention of different values is to have them under separate organizational structures. They concluded that some conflict of values "...between organizations is taken as given in interorganizational analysis, which starts out with the assumption that there is a situation of partial conflict.... Interorganizational relations permit and encourage conflict without destruction of the overall societal relations (p. 397)."

They stated further that interorganizational analysis stresses study of social behavior under conditions of unstructured authority. Here is another key to understanding the nature of interorganizational management. The management of structured authority is critical in intraorganizational management, but managers trying to coordinate the efforts of diverse organizations cannot rely on it. Therefore, a college administrator trying to enlist the

25

'help of other community organizations in meeting the college's responsibilities
must rely much more on persuasion than on authority.

He must convince his counterparts that coping with the college's
problems helps them cope with their own organizations' problems. For example,
to solicit financial support for new course offerings, he might try to show
local business people that the courses could make their employees more
productive.

Other interorganizational researchers have provided clues to under-
standing the special problems of managing without structured authority.
Very pertinent is Clark's (1965) observation that any comparison between
centralized and decentralized systems of action requires understanding
"...the similarities and differences between influence within a bureaucracy
and influence among bureaucracies, communication within the organization and
communication between organizations, initiative and innovation within an
organization, and parallel effort in a loosely joined federation or alliance
or ad hoc confluence of interest (p. 225)."

Clark's implication that communication and influence processed in an
alliance would be different from those in an ad hoc confluence of interests
is related to tightness of interorganizational linking. Terreberry (1968)
also addressed this issue of tightness of linking within networks. She
concluded that organizations are tending to become less autonomous and more
interdependent, "...that other formal organizations are, increasingly, the
important components in the environment of any formal organization (p. 592)."

Clearly then, advantages of one interorganizational configuration over
another cannot be assessed apart from an understanding of the dynamics of the
environment itself. Terreberry's thesis is fully compatible with positions

26

of Thompson (1967), Seiler (1967), Lawrence and Lorsch (1969), and other organization theorists who have applied general systems theory.

General systems theory also was applied by Evan (1965, 1972) in his study of interorganizational relations. He began with the postulate that organizations are "open" systems which must engage in various environmental exchanges. Other organizations in a focal organization's environment could be partitioned into various sets, such as an "input-organization-set" and an "output-organization-set." Thus, every focal organization can be a part of different interorganizational networks with different structures of interactions. Interaction structure could well be as important in inter-organizational relations as it is in intergroup relations.

Evan supplied an excellent illustration of an interlevel identity, as sought by Miller (1965) and cited in the preceding section. Evan (1972) discussed four familiar interaction structures from intergroup research that seem applicable to interorganizational relations. These structures are the dyad, the wheel, the all-channel, and the chain. In a subsequent section of this chapter, we shall examine the wheel as an appropriate interorganizational structure for service organizations such as colleges.

BOUNDARY PERSONNEL AND THE CONCEPT OF INTERFACE

Let us now focus more closely on the particular parts of organizations engaged in interorganizational network relations, boundary personnel, and the points of articulation between organizations, interfaces.

Wren's (1967) concept of interface is grounded in general systems theory. He expanded a dictionary definition of interface--a surface forming a boundary between adjacent solids, spaces, or immiscible liquids--to encompass the

27

33

meeting point between organizations. He stated, "The interface is the contact point between relatively autonomous organizations which are, nevertheless, interdependent and interacting as they seek to cooperate to achieve some larger system objective (p. 71)."

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, and Snoek (1964) also build on general systems theory and assert that a concept of boundary position is essential to understanding interorganizational behavior. A boundary position was defined as one for which some members of a role set are located in a different system. For purposes of this chapter, the different system of interest would be another organization in the interorganizational network. Kahn and his colleagues conceived of "boundary relevance" as a continuous variable, inasmuch as virtually every position requires some degree of contact with extra-system elements. They distinguished two dimensions as relevant to measuring the variable, the amount of time that a position requires extra-system business contacts, and the importance of such contacts to effective role performance. Boundary positions were then defined as those rated "high" on these dimensions. The focal point of their research was the people occupying boundary positions rather than the positions or roles themselves. This chapter adopts the same focus. Wren (1967), following Evan (1965), used the term boundary personnel to identify people operating at interorganizational interfaces.

Who, then, are the boundary personnel in institutions of higher learning? Applying the criteria of Kahn and his colleagues (time spent in extra-system contacts and importance of such contacts), we could easily identify the chief executive officer of practically every college, the Chancellor or President, as a boundary person. The chief academic officer, often called the Provost, is usually less involved than the chief executive officer with external matters.

Likewise, Deans of more traditional academic colleges, departments, or schools (e.g., arts and sciences) often are more engaged in internal than external management. Deans of professional units, on the other hand, are more likely to be heavily engaged in external matters. Analysis of individual universities and colleges would reveal many special boundary personnel, for example, a Vice President of Community Relations at a higher level or an Associate Dean for External Affairs at a lower level. By the very nature of its mission, we could expect the administration of a community college to be very heavily involved in external relations. Indeed, the majority of a typical community college's administrators could most probably satisfy the criteria of Kahn and his colleagues for boundary personnel. Department heads and even members of the teaching faculty might be boundary personnel.

As to the interfaces at which college boundary personnel operate, we could develop a list for any individual institution with little difficulty. Interfaces for a community college would probably include those with formal supersystems such as a state organization of community colleges and a state organization of institutions of higher education or of postsecondary education, with less formal supersystems such as civic organizations, and with informal networks such as the educational institutions in the locality, employing organizations, and philanthropic groups.

As an illustration, consider how a Vice President for Community Relations could well have to relate during one day to a local high school counselor who is concerned about admission standards, a banker who is financing a new classroom wing, a retired industrialist who might donate funds for library expansion, a personnel officer at an insurance company who is searching for a reliable source for new agents, and so forth. None of these

29

critical interfaces will permit our Vice President to use authority or,

for that matter, any of the other tools of intraorganizational management.

Interorganizational management requires different management tools and,

perhaps more importantly, a different perspective from traditional, intra-

organizational management. Discussed in the next section of this chapter is

the concept of the "wheel of influence," which holds promise as such a

perspective.

THE WHEEL OF INFLUENCE CONCEPT

Boundary personnel operate at interorganizational interfaces, and the

interfaces are linked in a structure. The wheel structure is mentioned

above in the context of Evan's (1972) generalization of intergroup to inter-

organizational relations. Alonso (in Balk, Alonso, Downey and Quinn, undated)

developed the term "wheel of influence" in a study of mental hygiene services.

Bell and Alonso (1974) expanded this concept and presented a wheel of influence

model for health care services. After a review of this model and its application

to a particular social service network, higher education can be examined.

The Wheel of Influence Model focuses on both the complex of services

influencing a common target population and the complex of interrelations

between and among service organizations. As shown in Figure I, the services

form the "spokes" of the wheel; the interorganizational relations, the "rim."

The patients/clients in the target population act as a "hub" in a complex set

of didactic relations. It is unlikely, and perhaps undesirable, that

receivers of service could ever claim domination or leadership over service

providers. The centrality of the target population, however, is a basic

theme of the wheel of influence model. Thus, no matter how independently

30

FIGURE I
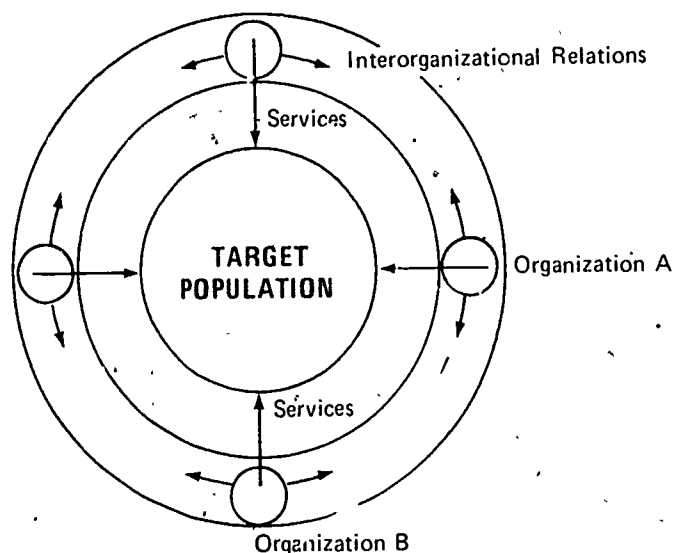
the institutions on the "rim" may try to operate, they all have something
very important in common, namely the clients.

Furthermore, the model highlights the importance of the "rim" structure.
The "rim" is considered coequal in importance to the "spokes". It seems
clear that for many service systems the individual organization's "spoke"
services receive vastly more attention that its "rim" relations. The model
emphasizes that there is a growing need for each organization to realize that
other institutions are offering services to the same elements in its target
population and, therefore, that it is more and more necessary to direct
attention to its interorganizational relations.

Although they serve the same target population, each "rim" organization
will have its unique goals and internal structure. Recall that Litwak and
Hylton (1962) concluded that the two socially desirable conditions, organiza-
tional autonomy (to protect different values) and interorganizational linking
(to promote achievement of joint goals), that prevail when organizations
associate, encourage conflict. Therefore, in terms of the Wheel of Influence

31.

Model, conflict can be expected in the "rim". A high probability of conflict is no reason to avoid giving attention to interorganizational relations.

Let us examine how the community college and other organizations in its network can be fitted into the Wheel of Influence Model. Students are the target population, and educational services form the college's "spoke." Many other organizations are giving "spoke" services to the same target population of students. Prospective employers are proposing job opportunities. and various commercial establishments are providing a wide range of services.

To further illustrate the applicability of the Wheel of Influence Model to colleges, consider a community college and one other class of "rim" organization, large employers. The students can only be well-served if the educational services they receive from the college match the employment opportunities made available to them by the employers. For example, if employers have opportunities for accounting graduates, the colleges need to provide accounting courses. Coordination between college and employers must occur if the students are to receive appropriate educational services. Coordination occurs in the "rim". Boundary personnel from the various organizations coordinate their activities in the "rim." In other words, the points of articulation, the interfaces, are in the "rim."

It is now time to examine the types of techniques that boundary personnel can use in the "rim" to attain the close coordination, perhaps the tight-linking, that will optimize the effectiveness of the individual organizations and of the network of organizations.

INTERORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES

The discussion of general systems theory, supersystems, interorganizational networks, boundary personnel, interfaces, and the Wheel of Influence Model suggests a number of principles to guide managers seeking to coordinate their organization's activities with others'.

1. Organizations are not compelled to be cooperative members of interorganizational networks or, in many cases, to be members at all.

2. Autonomous organizations will voluntarily join networks when their managers perceive that cooperation will benefit their own organization.

3. Boundary personnel cannot rely on authority to achieve interorganizational coordination.

4. Boundary personnel must use persuasion with their counterparts to demonstrate how linked organizations can achieve their individual organizational goals better than competing or acting as isolated organizations.

5. Open sharing of information should be the communications theme in the network. Recall that the Wheel of Influence Model is related fundamentally to the wheel mode of intergroup communication.

6. Boundary personnel must insure that their

counterparts are aware of the network's successes

in meeting joint goals. Counterparts can be

expected to be continually assessing the importance of

the network to achieving goals of their autonomous

organizations.

7. Boundary personnel must keep their counterparts

informed of likely deviations from scheduled

output of relevant services. As soon as a

boundary person learns that his or her organi-

zation is going to miss a deadline, the counter-

parts should be warned.

8. Boundary personnel should be on the alert for

opportunities for expanding the scope of

coordination. If the network helped achieve

goal A, perhaps it could help on goals B

through N.

SUMMARY

By way of summary, let us attempt a translation of the traditional

principles of management into guidelines of interorganizational management.

Thus, planning, organization, staffing, direction and control become

conferring, linking, contacting, persuasion, and coordination.

Institutions of higher learning again offer illustration. A college

administrator, whose duties qualify (or should qualify) him or her as a

boundary person, must manage at the interface, or in the "rim," with other

organizations in the community. This administrator cannot presume to plan

34

structures and processes for counterpart boundary personnel but can confer with them about joint problems and programs before making plans for the institution's internal operations.

Before planning new courses, the administrator should certainly want to confer with counterpart boundary personnel at such other organizations as high schools which ed first-year students, employing organizations which might have needs for graduates with education in the prospective courses, and state coordinating bodies whose approval may be required for the new courses.

Likewise, linking the organizations into a network seems more appropriately descriptive than organization for the next traditional management function: Boundary personnel cannot tell their counterparts how they are to relate in the network but can encourage them to relate and thereby form a network. Our college administrator would not accomplish anything positive by telling a personnel director how to act on the college's problem but could accomplish a great deal simply by asking the officer for an opinion on the problem. Ad ice asked for and given begins to form a link, loose at first, but potentially as tight as the managers of the linked organizations find functional.

Staffing is a vital function of internal management but must be sharply modified to apply to network management. The process of locating and contacting counterpart boundary personnel seems to come close to retaining the spirit of staffing and is intimately connected with the previously discussed function of linking. The focus of the contact function is on specific individuals, whereas the focus of linking is on organizations. The college administrator may wish to link with an employing organization but must locate and contact a specific individual in a specific organization.

As we discussed above, a boundary person managing at the interface has no, or at best, little authority to <u>direct</u> the behavior of counterparts. But <u>persuasion</u> is most appropriate. The college administrator persuades the state coordinator to approve new courses, persuades the high school officials to offer necessary prerequisites, and persuades the employers to give the college's graduates a chance for employment.

Finally, the very difficult function of <u>control</u> in internal management must be translated for application in network management. Managers at the interface control activities of other networ' ~ganizations only partially, if their mild influence could ever meaningfull; be termed "control." They can, however, strive for <u>coordination</u>. Indeed, closer coordination is the fundamental objective of interorganizational management. The college will best achieve its individual goals if its activities are coordinated with those of other community organizations. As a final example, new courses have an excellent chance of being well-designed and received if the college's boundary personnel have taken the time and energy to confer, link, contact, and persuade the appropriate counterpart boundary personnel, and, thereby, achieve the necessary coordination.

REFERENCES

B⁻'ᴋ, W., Alonso, R., Downey, E. & Quinn, R. Decision and information systems in the division of mental hygiene. Graduate School of Public Affairs, State University of New York at Albany, unpublished manuscript.

Bell, E. & Alonso R. The Wheel of Influence Model: Application complex health-care delivery systems. Paper Presented at the First Annual Miami International Conference on Progress and Prospects in Health Care Distribution Systems, 1974.

Clark, B. R. Interorganizational patterns in education. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1965, 10, 224-237.

Evan, W. M. Toward a theory of inter-organizational relations. Management Science, 1965, 11 (10), B-217-230.

Evan, W. M. An organization-set Model of interorganizational relations. In Tuite, M., Chicholm, R., and Radnor, M. (Eds.) Interorganizational Decision Making. Chicago: Aldine, 1972.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., & Snoek, J. D. Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R. L. The social psychology of organizations. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Lawrence, P. R. & Lorsch, J. W. Organization and environment: Managing differentiation and integration. Homewood, Illinois: Irwin, 1969.

Levine, S. & White, P. E. Exchange as a conceptual framework for the study of interorganizational relationships. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1961, 5, 583-601.

Litwak, E. & Hylton, L. F. Interorganizational analysis: A hypothesis on co-ordinating agencies. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1962, 6, 395-420.

Miller, J. G. Living systems: Basic concepts. Behavioral Science 1965, 10, 193-237.

Seiler, J. A. Systems analysis in organizational behavior. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin and Dorsey, 1967.

Terreberry, S. The evolution of organizational environments. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1968, 12, 590-613.

Thompson, J. D. Organizations in action. New York. McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Turk, H.   Interorganizational networks in urban society·   Initial
   perspectives and comparative research.   American Sociological
   Review, 1970, 35, 1-19.

Turk, H. Comparative urban structure from an interorganizational
   perspective.   Administrative Science Quarterly, 1973, 18, 37-55.

Wren, D. A.   Interface and interorganizational coordination.   Academy
   of Management Journal, 1967, 10, 69-81.

B. J. HODGE

Dr. B. J. Hodge is a Professor of Management at The Florida State University. He received his Bachelor's, Master's, and Ph.D. degrees from Louisiana State University, and his technical experience includes the areas of general management and human behavior in organizations. Dr. Hodge has served as conference leader in a variety of executive development programs, including: American Chamber of Commerce Executives; Central Telephone Company of Florida; and, NASA Middle Management Seminars. He is the author of numerous publications, among them being: "How Good are Your Motivating Skills?" (Sound Ideas); Management and Organizational Behavior (John Wiley, 1970); and, "MBO: Clear Channel Communication," (Supervision, December, 1975). In 1975, Dr. Hodge was recognized as an Outstanding Educator in America.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

Today's community college managers have a most intriguing challenge: to build and maintain a climate that is conducive to both job satisfaction and organizational productivity. Such a climate must be built on a sound theory of how community colleges are put together and how they work. This theory can help educational managers carry out their basic tasks: to provide role security for all members of the college; to provide for multi-dimensional communication flows; to provide for meaningful participation; to insure normative consensus; to provide for propinquity; and to insure that a sound reward system exists and is properly utilized. There are three basic choices for management in designing a sound organizational climate, and care must be taken to select the one that best fits the needs of the individual college. It is a serious mistake to argue for a single climate that will suit everyone's needs.

A college administrative group can elect the Traditional Climate that is rested on assumptions that work is inherently distasteful; that what they do is less important than what they get paid; and that most people are not capable of doing work that requires self-direction and self-control. Climates based on these assumptions require that management impose close restrictions on how work is divided and performed.

The Human Relations Climate is quite similar to the Traditional Climate, with the exception being that more concern is expressed for the human element. There is still a concern for short-term efficiency, however. The role of the manager in this climate is to make people feel that they are important and to involve them in routine decision making on the proposition that such treatment will yield more productivity and perceived job satisfaction.

The Human Resources Climate is perhaps the one that will prove to be the most productive in the long run. It is based on sincere concern for the individual and for full participation in the decision making process. Management's job in the Human Resources Climate is to develop the talents of all members to their fullest and to provide the opportunity for individual and professional growth.

Regardless of which climate a particular college chooses, its management group must be familiar with all climates and make a considered choice about which climate fits its needs best. This article is aimed at providing the understanding on which such a decision can be based. Hopefully, it will shed some light on the perplexing problem of management: how to obtain organizational productivity while at the same time providing job satisfaction for organizational members.

45

Chapter III

ORGANIZATION AND WORK DESIGN

IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

B. J. Hodge

Among the most important issues facing the managers of community colleges is that of building and maintaining an effective organizational climate built on effectively designed organizations and work patterns. Every organization has a climate or atmosphere within which its work is carried out, and this climate has a significant effect both on productivity and the level of satisfaction of its members. It is management's job to assure high levels of each, and so it is incumbent on managers of community colleges to consider how best to carry out this responsibility.

Of prime importance in this area of responsibility is the implementation of a theory of management that can aid in providing guidance and consistency to the practice of management in our community colleges. This theory is but a set of assumptions (tested in practice) and principles. Together, they form a base for effective decision making that can provide productivity as well as job satisfaction. This chapter explores several models of organization climate based on management theory that can be employed and examines some factors that help to determine which climate should be used. It is believed that this discussion can help improve the practice of management in community colleges by making managers aware of the effect the implementation of a theory of management and its accompanying organizational climate can have on the overall success of the community college..

MANAGEMENT'S BASIC TASKS

All managers of community colleges have the same basic responsibility, whether their organizations are large or small. This responsibility pervades all levels of organization, but admittedly its thrust begins at the top levels. The following discussion is a brief review of the essential aspects of this responsibility.

Provide Role Security

If they are to be fully productive, members of an organization must feel secure in thier roles; i.e., they must not feel threatened by their responsibilities. The literature and common experience alike are replete with instances of ill health, anxiety, and undue frustration that are traceable in large measure to conditions in which role performance brings a sense of inadequacy and threat to the incumbent.

Management can fulfill this responsibility to provide role security by taking two important actions: defining the requirements for proper role performance and providing adequate development opportunities to insure that the incumbent has the necessary skills and knowledge to carry out role requirements. To do less is to fail to provide one of the most important features of a sound behavioral climate for the organization.

Provide Multi-Dimensional Communication Flows

Communication is an important part of an organization; without proper communication flow, there will be inadequate information necessary to make and implement the multitude of decisions that is necessary for organization success. In today's community college, the emphasis is on information

41

sharing and so it is important for management at all levels to share all relevant information with faculty, staff, and students alike.

This requirement is more a matter of philosophy and commitment than it is a matter of procedure. The particular mechanical techniques and devices used to disseminate information in an organization are not nearly so important as is the fact that members have necessary information and, further, that they feel that management is, indeed, sharing information with them. An air of secrecy can be particularly effective in reducing efficiency and lowering the level of job satisfaction in the organization. Management must give continuing attention to the provision of information to all segments of the educational community.

Provide for Participation

Today, we truly live in an organizational world characterized by the desire to participate in the affairs of daily activities. Virtually every force in contemporary society reenforces this desire; therefore, management cannot ignore this fact. In addition, it must be noted that today's typical community college is simply too complex, generally, to rely on a few decision makers located at the top of the organization. Faculty, staff, and students must be invited to contribute their ideas and suggestions to the resolution of matters that inhibit the college's progress.

Again, participation is more of a philosophy and commitment than it is a matter of technique. If all members of the college are, in fact, given ample opportunity to add their suggestions to the decision making process, the format is not particularly crucial. Management must show its genuine concern for participation and incorporate appropriate input in the decisions

of the organization. This condition will improve the overall organizational climate immeasureably.

Provide for Normative Consensus

When all members of an organization use the same norms, standards, and values in their decision making, they are said to have a kind of common mindset that is referred to as normative consensus. The philosophy of the management group is a chief means for achieving this most important aid to decision making. No organization can make effective decisions over time unless all of its members have some type of common frame of reference that can be used to provide consistency to their activity and decisions. It is management's obligation to provide for normative consensus.

Provide for Propinquity

Propinquity is a term used to refer to a condition in which there are "proper" spatial relations among members of an organization. The opposite condition, that we have all experienced in a crowded elevator, is termed the "collision effect". We all know how disconcerting this can be. It seems to occupy all our attention, and our efforts are directed toward allieviating it in as short a time as possible.

Those who share an office can also appreciate the deleterious effects that result when there is not enough space to do their jobs without undue concern for lack of space. Of course, propinquity must be considered in the relative sense because there are few community colleges today that can afford the "ideal" space for all of the activities that must be conducted. Nevertheless, management must appreciate the undesirable effects when the right amount of space cannot be provided for all members of the institution.

Provide a Sound Reward System

Members seek a variety of rewards from their association with a college. These rewards range from salary to a composite of fringe benefits, including non-monetary rewards. The management group that does not provide an adequate system of rewards that recognizes performance and provides the means of rewarding it will find itself faced with apathy and a lack of involvement with the college's success. Both performance and job satisfaction suffer, as a result.

Management, then, must do all within its power to satisfy the needs and desires of its members by providing a sound system of rewards.

All of these components, taken together, constitute a sound behavioral climate within which members can seek satisfaction while at the same time being productive. The college, as well as the members, will surely benefit from the provision and maintenance of all of these components of a sound behavioral climate.

In order to complement this climate and to make it attain its maximum effect, management should adopt and implement a theory of organization and operation. There are, of course, many such theories, and the following are merely representative of the wide range of choice that is available for managers in all institutions of higher education. It is hoped that the following description of three models of theory will help focus attention on their value and use to all members of community colleges.[1]

---

[1]The discussion of these theories is based on the treatment given them by Raymond Miles in his book, Theories of Management: Implications for Organizational Behavior and Development published by McGraw-Hill in 1975.

44

THE TRADITIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The Traditional Climate is based on the assumptions that work is inherently distasteful to most people; that what they do is less important than what they get paid for doing it; and that few want to or can handle work that requires much creativity, self-direction, or self-control.[2] This type of theory places a great deal of power in the hands of management and little in the hands of subordinates. There is generally unilateral decision making by management and not very much involvement by the subordinates.

This means that the basic task of the management group is to insure a maximum of control. The tasks of the subordinate are broken down into simple, repetitive units that are easily learned. Further, management has the obligation of establishing detailed work routines and enforcing them firmly but fairly.[3]

This whole climate is based on the expectations that people can tolerate work if the pay is decent and the superior is fair and that if tasks are simple enough and if people are closely supervised and controlled, they will produce up to the standard established.[4]

To state these expectations is to point out the relative roles of management and subordinates; the differential is significant, and there is little involvement in the decision making process by other than management personnel. Some might question whether this type of climate is in keeping with the collegial air that has been associated with community colleges.

---

[2]Ibid., p. 35

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.,

45

Perhaps the nature of tasks and the personnel associated with such organi-
zations would not augur for the adoption of this climate; nevertheless,
there are doubtless some situations where it is used.

Organizational and Work Design in the Traditional Climate

When a management group decides to build a traditional organizational
climate, it is based on the assumptions mentioned above. The climate of
the organization is founded on rather pronounced task differentiations, and
the accompanying organizational structure takes the familiar pyramidal shape
with authority and decision making centered in the upper levels of the
structure. The structure itself tends to be characterized by each manager
as having relatively few subordinates, so that the structure is tall and
rigid.

The emphasis in this pattern of organization and work design is on
control and efficiency, and the time perspective is relatively short. In
other words, management retains most of the authority to make decisions and
stresses efficiency in the short run. Immediate returns are sought in lieu
of long-term consequences.

The work design patterns in this traditional climate are based on a
clear-cut distinction between managerial and non-managerial (or operative)
tasks. The task of the manager is to make the decisions affecting perfor-
mance of subordinates and to exercise close control to insure that they are
implemented. Each manager generally supervises relatively few subordinates
in order to insure that decisions are, in fact, put into effect. Subordi-
nates are rarely involved in the task of decision making, and so, as a
consequence, generally receive little training and experience in the

46

decision making process. Thus, they are ill-prepared to assume the managerial role when promotion occurs.

Even within the management ranks, there frequently is a distinct separation of the responsibility for decisions involving planning and controlling. Top management (i.e., governing boards, presidents, and vice-presidents) generally is responsible for planning the direction of the college and for making major policy decisions involving budgets, personnel, and physical plant. It is the job of lower-level managers (i.e., deans, department chairmen, and directors) to control operations in accordance with these plans and policy decisions. Thus, responsibility for planning rests at the top of the structure while the responsibility for control falls to lower-level managers.

Managerial work itself, in turn, is separated from the actual tasks of the organization. Faculty and staff are expected to carry out the intent of top management under the supervision of chairmen and directors in this climate. There is little room for initiative, and innovation. The lifeblood of a community college is not encouraged. Job satisfaction and a sense of self-worth are difficult to experience in such a climate.

Even though role security might be present, the role itself does not allow lower-order participants to grow and develop, a strong desire of most faculty and a high proportion of support personnel. Consequently, morale tends to suffer and the college loses the energy and ideas from one of its most valuable assets.

Communication in the traditional climate is generally limited to a vertical path, with instructions and direction flowing downward and progress reports being sent upward. Free-form channels are not frequently found

because they tend to undermine the base that separates management and non-management task directions. The majority of communication is formal and goal-directed, rather than informal and relaxed.

As indicated earlier, participation is quite limited and takes the form of questions and points of clarification of instructions and directions. This condition often leads to a feeling of alienation and apathy--two conditions that hinder both productivity and satisfaction.

Even though normative consensus is present, its norms and values are generally unilaterally imposed from above. Thus, it is a type of "forced" condition, and the resulting behavior associated with it tends to be of the compliant (or punishment-avoiding) type. Surely, both the college and its members suffer as a result.

Proper spatial relationships (propinquity) can be obtained in the traditional climate, but at the expense of lack of involvement (generally) of many affected by it. Consequently, even though it might be a part of the traditional climate, its presence might be considered to be symbolic of a unilaterally imposed condition and be considered another manifestation of pronounced task differentiation.

The reward system under the traditional climate tends to be based on extrinsic factors that can be relatively easily measured. Rewards themselves take the form of wages and fringe benefits; i.e., they take an economic form as opposed to an intrinsic or non-monetary form (such as job satisfaction).

Criteria for acquiring rewards tend to be ambiguous and secretive. Management appears to view personal loyalty as the core of the system. In

48
54

other words, the tendency is for management to veil the system in an air of secrecy and to avoid setting specific objective criteria. This situation keeps members of the organization somewhat ignorant of how the system works.

Often apathy, along with the feeling that the reward system is insensitive to individual performance, results. Resentment and other forms of strained interpersonal relations can easily follow, and the organization is destined to a level of behav.. that is, at best, compliant in nature. It loses the positive effects of innovation and creativity that are so vital to progress in the community college field.

Community college administrators must somehow be able to tap more t_n minimum-level talent. There is simply too much challenge facing them for the reliance on the traditional reward system alone. Of course, this is not to say that economic incentives are unimportant or ineffective. Rather, it is to say that they must be blended into a more complete reward system if the talents of all members of the community college are to be centered on pro ess. Some other reward system is more appropriate for today's community college.

A management group that creates a traditional organizational climate, then, builds that climate on highly differentiated task patterns. Management and non-management tasks are clearly separated from each other. In the management ranks, planning and controlling responsibilities are often differentiated from each other. Non-managerial tasks (performed by faculty and staff) are rather narrowly defined, and there is little room for a sound supportive organizational climate (made up of <u>role security</u>, <u>mul</u>-dimensional communication flows, <u>participation</u>, <u>normative consensus</u>,

49

propinquity, and sound reward system) are either absent or are of a "forced"

nature. Consequently, both productivity and job satisfaction suffer.

Community college management teams can, it seems, ill afford deliber-

ately to create and nurture the traditional climate if they are to have

progressive institutions in which everyone contributes to the determination

of overall goals. Instead, community college managers must move toward

the Human Relations or, better still, the Human Resources Climate.

THE HUMAN RELATIONS ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The Human Relations Climate is much like the Traditional Climate, with

differences between them being more cosmetic than fundamental. The essential

features of the Traditional Climate are adopted and modified only slightly

to give more attention to the human element, while still retaining a strong

concern for short-term efficiency.

The popularity of this climate reached its peak during the decade

1945-1955 when a wave of literature and practice swept the management ranks.

The message was clear: show more concern for people and their individual

needs and, in return, they will produce more and better products and

services.

In order to improve their skills in the human relations area, other-

wise traditional managers often enrolled in a variety of development pro-

grams that centered around such topics as motivation, communication, and

leadership. In these courses, managers were exposed to the social (or

behavioral) sciences' approach to management. They learned at least the

rudimentary aspects of psychology, sociology, and social psychology in

50

order that they might better understand and, hopefully, guide human behavior.

The thrust of this approach, as noted earlier, was more cosmetic than fundamental, and there was a great deal of superficial (quack?) treatment of organization members. Sincerity was often lacking, and the ultimate objective (manipulation of behavior) was imputed to the techniques and procedures of the climate. Perhaps this perceived insincerity was the major reason for the decline of the popularit of the movement.

Community college administrators are ur   constant and varied pressure from all fronts to get more productivity from their resources. At the same time, there are more demands for better and different services from their various publics; students want a wider variety of courses; the business community wants more short courses, non-credit offerings, etc.; and, of course, everyone wants to use the facilities.

As a result of this pressure, and the type of people who work at community colleges, the tendency for administrators to cultivate this climate could be quite high. Concern for both productivity and people must be demonstrated by them, and the climate offers some promising possibilities for results if it is coupled with genuine concern.

The role of the administrator in the Human Relations Climate, in short, is to make people feel useful and important--to make them feel a part of things and that what they are doing is important to the college. This means, then, that members must be given a certain amount of latitude to make decisions and to exercise initiative, but within prescribed bounds. The net result of this action, it is hoped, will be better morale and more "willing" cooperation from everyone. Underlying this approach, it must be remembered, however, the administrative group utilizes its techniques in

5ı

order to control behavior to the twin ends of productivity and member
satisfaction.

The following sections contain a brief review of the treatment and
attention that the Human Relations Climate gives to the major factors of
organizational climate.

Organizational and Work Design in the Human Relations Climate

The Human Relations Climate is characterized by organizational and
work designs quite similar to those of the Traditional Climate. There is,
first of all, a distinct separation of management and operative work; the
structure is tall and pyramidal in shape; each manager has only a few sub-
ordinates reporting to him; and the decision making power still clearly
rests in the top echelons of the structure.

The manager, though clearly the dominant force in the climate, never-
theless, is required to show concern for the human element. He must pass
along information that is helpful in job performance and listen to complaints
and suggestions as well as answer questions in general. The basic role of
controller, which is such an integral part of the Traditional Climate, is of
vital significance to the manager in the Human Relations Climate. The
manager's role is merely expanded to accommodate for the necessity to show
interest in and concern for the human element. The two roles are not
essentially different, then, and participative techniques, as those men-
tioned above, should not interfere with performance. In other words,
concern for people has a "hidden" motive: increased productivity. Loyal
workers who are treated well will simply produce more than if they are
disgruntled and unhappy--or so the supporters of the philosophy believe.

52

58

Role security is a key aspect of the Human Relations Climate, even though the role itself does not contain a great deal of room for the exercise of initiative. The managers have a charge to make their subordinates feel comfortable and secure in their roles. The major difficulty with applying this climate in community colleges is simply that the professional members do not feel a need to be made secure by administrators. Rather, they believe that their demonstrated professional competence should be reason enough to feel secure. In other words, the community college administrator's efforts to make members feel secure might be resented and bring more negative than positive results.

Communication flows and content are one of the biggest differences between the Traditional and the Human Relations Climates. In the Human Relations Climate, communication is encouraged; suggestion systems are frequently used; discussion groups are used to air views on various topics. The superior is also charged with the responsibility of listening to subordinates and keeping them informed about those issues that affect their jobs.

These efforts to improve communication and to show members of the organization that they are, indeed, important are in addition to the formal communication attempts. In other words, suggestion systems, newsletters, and discussion groups are used to supplement and extend the formal channels which are concerned with carrying directives and reports.

Community college administrators using the Human Relations Climate would devote attention to providing the means and conditions that would encourage informal, social communications among members. Clearly, the

people who are associated with a community college would desire at least a minimum of this type of communication.

Administrators of community colleges that use the Human Relations Climate would be expected to insure that normative consensus exists in much the same way that they would employ a Traditional Climate. This means that the norms and values to be observed would, at least for the most part, be unilaterally imposed from above. One could hardly term this a "healthy" condition for community colleges, however.

Once again, the Human Relations Climate is modeled after the Traditional version as far as propinquity is concerned. Proper spatial relationships are, at least for most conditions, unilaterally determined by management. To be sure, there is some discussion with members, but it generally is of the nature of "selling" them on the validity of management's decision. Nevertheless, propinquity is important in the Human Relations Model.

Community college managers would be well-advised to at least follow the minimum of the Human Relations Climate and inform members of decisions regarding the use of space. Perhaps there is no more volatile issue than office space on community college campuses. Surely, time spent discussing and explaining how space is allocated would help increase both morale and efficiency.

Once again, the Human Relations Climate closely resembles the Traditional Climate in that the reward systems used in each are quite similar. Secrecy and personal loyalty are key characteristics of the reward system. Symbolic rewards in the form of service pins and plaques, for example, are freely used, and most of these rewards are presented because of some factor other

54

than productivity. It should be noted here also that incentive plans are also used in order to attempt to tie performance to reward.

On balance, the reward system of the Human Relations Climate is generally controlled by management, although more effort to explain the system might be made than is the case with the Traditional Climate.

In short, the Human Relations Climate very closely resembles the Traditional one, with the major differences being ones of degree instead of essence. Perhaps the most significant message for community college administrators is to be wary of the assumptions that support the climate. While it is true, perhaps, that people want to feel important, it is also true that they can see through feeble attempts' to cover up traditional values and approaches. Nothing can be worse for a community college than to have a membership that perceives that it is being manipulated toward productivity in the name of morale.

If the Human Relations Climate is used, it should be installed, monitored, and adjusted constantly in order to convey sincerity. Otherwise, all concerned will surely be disappointed.

THE HUMAN RESOURCES ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The Human Resources Climate is doubtless the climate that is capable of achieving maximum levels of both productivity and member satisfaction. It is designed to allow the individual wide latitude in the exercise of initiative and self-direction. It is perhaps best characterized by its broad delegations and job designs that provide little distinction among management and non-management responsibility, especially at the lower ranks of the

55

organization. In effect, there is considerable participation in the manage-
ment of the organization by virtually all of its members.

It should be noted at this point that the application of the Human
Resources Climate is limited to those situations where there are scientific
and professional personnel who are dedicated to the organization. This type
of personnel is well-educated and generally self-motivated, being stimulated
by the performance of their task rather than by extrinsic rewards such as
money and fringe benefits. This is not to say that these members are not
concerned at all with such motivators; rather, it is to say they are placed
in a position of secondary importance. In short, scientific and professional
personnel are motivated by intrinsic job satisfaction that comes from task
performance itself.

Because of the orientations of its members, an organization using the
Human Resources Climate would find the assumptions and conditions of both
the Traditional and Human Relations Climates inappropriate. Both of these
climates are built around assumptions that best fit personnel who are either not
capable of or much interested in self-direction. This means, then, that
in the Human Resources Climate the locus of direction and motivation is
shifted (at least to some extent) from the superior to the subordinate who
is capable and interested in participating, in a meaningful way, in the
decision making process. The job of the superior in this climate, therefore,
is to support the subordinate in the development of his total range of
talent rather than to concentrate attention on the task of control that is
the major responsibility of the superior in both the Traditional and Human
Relations Climates.

Members are assumed to have a wealth of undeveloped talent coupled

with a desire to cultivate this talent, both to the betterment of the

individual and to the organization. The needs of such individuals cannot

be satisfied by sole reliance on the constructs of other climates that tend

to restrict personnel development in favor of short-term performance aimed

at production efficiency. One of the prime means for developing talent is

involvement in the decision making process, rather than the use of symbolic

participation in insignificant matters.

The Human Resources model, then, extends the assumptions of the

Traditional and Human Relations Climates to include attention to tne develop-

ment of members' talents to the fullest. The manager in this climate can

best be described as a developer of his subordinates, and it is incumbent

on him to provide opportunities and guidance to this end. This, of course,

means that the superior must play a fundamentally different role than is

required in the other climates.

The Human Resources Climate is described below, following the same

format used to describe the other models of organizational climate.

Organizational and Work Design in the Human Resources Climate

The role structure of the Human Resources Climate is not as rigid or

as differentiated as in the other models. This means that work design is

built on the assumption that each individual wants to participate in the

decision making process and can be taught to do so effectively. People are

expected to help set goals and the ways to attain them; to participate in

the evaluation process; and, to use their creative abilities in general.

57

63

In order to provide this type of opportunity, there must be considerable delegation of responsibility and authority, with decision making power pushed to the lowest level where productivity and personnel development can be fostered. This amount and quality of delegation results in work designs that contain little separation of duties of the superior and the subordinate. The effect of this condition is that the subordinate, through participation, can gain a broad perspective of the management process and so can be better prepared to accept the additional responsibility that comes with promotion.

Broad delegation also results in a relatively flat organization structure, as opposed to the tall, pyramidal structure of the Traditional and Human Relations Climates. Such a flat structure places relatively many subordinates under the management of a given superior. Close supervision is not only not feasible; it is virtually impossible. Therefore, general supervision that requires well-prepared personnel capable of assuming a range of duties is a hallmark of the Human Resources Climate.

It is not uncommon, then, to find considerable use of temporary organizational arrangements (such as project teams, for example) in the Human Resources Climate. Personnel are assigned to a project until it is completed and are then re-assigned to other projects. A good example of this type of organizational design is a curriculum committee whose members come from a variety of disciplines. After the task of curriculum review and change (where necessary) is complete, the members return to their respective disciplines, and the committee can be disbanded. Such assignments require flexible behavior on the part of members who must quickly assume and execute a complicated set of role requirements. Involvement in these ad hoc

58

structures demands self-direction and the exercise of considerable

initiative. Authority is widely spread among the members, with the leader

role calling primarily for general guidance rather than control and command.

Organizational and work design patterns are broad and general with the

resulting organizational form being flat and composed of limited differen-

tiations between superior and subordinate roles. Community college

administrators are charged with the type of responsibility that can be

well-executed (at least on the academic side) with this type of organization

and work design.

Role security in the Human Resources Climate comes from the opportunity

to participate in decision making and the existence of work designs that

help the individual develop his full range of talent. Community colleges,

by their very nature, are excellent candidates for the application of these

conditions. When individuals are prepared and allowed to demonstrate their

talents, both productivity and satisfaction can be achieved. The college

and the members gain as a result. Administrators should give serious con-

sideration to implementing this kind of organizational climate.

Communication in the Human Resources Climate is free-form, with members

being encouraged to exchange information with each other without restriction.

Information is distributed widely over the organization in order to facili-

tate the making of decisions at many points. Formal channels, of course,

exist and are used to help integrate the various individuals and departments

into an effective whole. They are not, however, relied upon solely as is

the case in the Traditional Climate and, to a lesser extent, in the Human

Relations Climate. Multiple communication channels, then, help make the

role structure of the Human Resources Climate effective. Memos and directives are simply not sufficient.

Normative consensus can be expected to follow from a situation in which members who are involved in decision making soon learn and adopt a common set of values that is so necessary for concerted and unified action. The task of the administrator is to provide the environment within which members can interact to the point of developing this kind of relationship.

Proper spatial relations (propinquity) again must be provided if the Human Resources Climate is to be effective. These relations should be determined, however, by all members affected rather than be unilaterally decided upon by the administrative group. Responsible decisions can be expected from well-prepared and informed members; indeed, perhaps better decisions can be made in this fashion because of the combining of many sources of information and opinion. Improved space utilization can result, and this is undoubtedly a desirable effect in any community college.

The reward system of the Human Resources Climate is of a multiple nature, with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards used. It is open and objective, which means that all members have information about how it works and can feel assured that demonstrated performance (and not personal loyalty) is the basis for decisions. There are deliberate attempts to measure performance and to reward that performance equitably; participation in decision making is encouraged; the system itself complements the assumptions and expectations of the Human Resources Climate.

This brief review of the nature of the Human Resources Climate indicates that it can be well-suited to the community college environment. The mission

and members of the college have the type of orientation that appears to fit the climate very well. It does require a different role for the adminis- trator, and it requires a great deal of patience and understanding. Addi- tionally, a long-term perspective must be adopted in order for the climate to have its full effect. It takes time to develop people, but the results are well worth the effort. Quality decision making, productivity, and member satisfaction can bring the type of return on investment that must be realized if today's community colleges are to fulfill their responsi- bility to society.

SUMMARY

Community colleges play a vital role in contemporary education. The role is not only unique but is also demanding and challenging for adminis- trators. New ways and means must be found for meeting the responsibility that is placed on the administrator, and one of the most promising possi- bilities for resolution and execution of this responsibility is an appreci- ation for the part that organizational climate plays in performance and satisfaction.

It is hoped that this review of three possible climates has helped put the matter into perspective so the administrator may make a better choice of climates. All climates must be adapted to fit their environments, but it appears that all too often choices are made without the benefit of under- standing the components of organization climate and their interrelationships. This review has attempted to explain three organizational climates and the assumptions and expectations that underlie them; hopefully, it has attained its objective.

RICHARD D. TELLIER

Dr. Richard Tellier is an Associate Professor of Management at the California State University at Fresno. His industry experience includes three years as an aerospace systems engineer with the General Electric Company under contract to the Air Force and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration; and, prior to that, seven years as an electronics design engineer for the Philco-Ford Corporation. Dr. Tellier has published several articles and papers in the areas of organizational behavior and quantitative methods, and is the author of the book Operations Management: Fundamental Concepts and Methods. He is a member of Phi Kappa Phi, Beta Gamma Sigma, Sigma Iota Epsilon, Alpha Iota Delta, the Academy of Management, and the American Institute for Decision Sciences.

Dr. Tellier received his BSEE from Drexel University in 1967 and his MBA and DBA from The Florida State University in 1971 and '73 respectively.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

In recent years the resources available to community college administrators have become increasingly scarce. This scarcity of resources can be attributed to declines in enrollments and reductions in funding. This chapter discusses the management functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling, with particular emphasis on how each relates to the management of scarce resources within the community college context. In each of the four major sections of the chapter, a specific management function is dissected and analyzed. Critical decision areas for that function are presented and described in terms of how the community college administrator should be especially careful in managing limited resources for effective and efficient performance. In the final part of the chapter, several contemporary behavioral and analytical methods for enhancing the quality of managerial decisions are identified and summarized. The application of these techniques should better enable the community college administrator to make precise, rational, unbiased decisions concerning the allocation of scarce resources throughout the college organization.

Chapter IV

MANAGING SCARCE RESOURCES FOR
COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

by

Richard D. Tellier

INTRODUCTION

Management is often described as both an art and a science. More
specifically, the practice of management is commonly regarded as the activity
of making decisions which affect how input resources are to be applied
throughout any organization, in order that desired output goals and objec-
tives may be attained. In making these resource decisions, every manager
must be concerned with the four basic fun   ; or processes of management.
These functions or processes are planning, organizing, directing, and con-
trolling. All managers are called upon at some time or another to make
planning decisions regarding how resources are to be utilized; to organize
these resources for effective performance; to direct the actual use of
resources towards accomplishing organizational objectives; and to control
performance in order to assure that resources are indeed being used as
planned.

In recent years, many of the resources with which managers are typically
concerned have become increasingly scarce. For example, energy--once an
inexpensive and readily available commodity--has become a very costly and
sometimes difficult to obtain resource for most organizations. In higher
education, two basic trends in particular have caused virtually all of the

63

input resources used by college administrators to become severely constrained. First, student enrollments in most areas of the country have at best leveled-off to what is often characterized as the "steady-state", and in many cases have actually declined. Since funding is usually based all, or in part, on "average daily attendance", or "full-time equivalent" enrollments, or some other similar concept, the monetary resource accordingly has become increasingly limited. This scarcity in funds has been aggravated by an inflation rate which has ranged between six and twelve percent annually for the last several years.

Second, there has arisen a growing nationwide resistance on the part of the taxpaying public--a resistance often referred to as a "taxpayers' revolt". More and more, people are critically questioning both the amount and the use of the taxes they are paying, and to a large extent postsecondary education has been caught in the middle of this controversy. As a result, public funding for community colleges has, in many instances, been significantly curtailed so that tax increases might be avoided. In all, these two basic trends have generally placed severe financial constraints on the management of community colleges. And, since money is the "universal resource" with which other necessary resources are obtained, this reduction in funding has meant that many community college administrators have been forced to manage with increasingly scarce resources of all kinds--people, equipment, materials, and the like.

This increasing scarcity of resources implies that community college managers must be more careful than ever when allocating limited resources of all kinds among the various competing elements of the organization--student

groups, faculty, support staff, etc. The temptation to "throw money at the problem" in the hope that it will eventually disappear, or to "grease the squeaky wheel" just because it happens to be the one making all the noise, must be resisted more so than ever. The fairly common practice of "satisficing" in managerial decision making, or doing just enough to get by satisfactorily, needs to be replaced as much as possible by an "optimizing" approach towards planning, organizing, directing, and controlling--that is, making the best decision possible in view of the overall goals and objectives of the organization.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the four basic functions of management described above, while specifically emphasizing how they relate to the management of scarce resources within the community college context. The chapter does not present a superficial list of "one-hundred and one ways to manage limited college resources." Rather, in the following four sections of the chapter, the management functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling are individually dissected and analyzed. Critical decision areas are presented and described in terms of how the community college administrator should be particularly careful in managing limited resources for effective and efficient performance. In the last section of the chapter, several contemporary methods, or "tools," for enhancing the quality of managerial decisions are summarized. By applying some or all of these techniques to pertinent problems, the administrators of community colleges should be better able to make precise, rational, unbiased decisions concerning the allocation and distribution of their scarce resources throughout their respective organizations.

65

PLANNING SCARCE RESOURCES

The management function of planning involves a wide variety of
activities. Included in planning are managerial tasks such as establishing
and reviewing goals, objectives, and missions; formulating strategic and
tactical plans and procedures; forecasting and budgeting organizational
resources; and, preparing for various contingencies which may arise in the
future. The community college administrator must pay close and careful
attention to each and every one of these activities if scarce resources are
to be managed effectively.

The objectives and goals of any community college are the "beacons"
by which the direction of all of the missions and programs of the college
are guided. Accordingly, the college manager should review, and revise
when necessary, these goals in order to assure that resources are not being
expended towards accomplishing objectives that are inappropriate. Social
objectives (e.g., high-quality, low-cost, postsecondary educational oppor-
tunity for all who desire); organizational goals (e.g., consultative
academic governance through extensive use of committees); technological
objectives (e.g., acquisition of sophisticated, state-of-the-art laboratory
equipment for pedagogical excellence); and all other categories of goals
should be intensively reexamined to be certain that they are valid in view
of the limited resources available. Also, those goals which are found to
be appropriate for the community college should be ranked by their relative
importance. Scarce resources may then be allocated among these objectives
in accordance with their relative value to the overall mission of the
college.

66

72

Decision making is the process of choosing between alternative courses of action. Rational and logical decision making is an extremely important facet of planning as well as all of the other management functions. This is especially true when resources are constrained. The community college administrator must be sure that planning decisions are derived from organization objectives rather than from purely personal ones. Alternative plans should be analyzed and evaluated using factual data and information, not intuition and feelings. A management information system which functions smoothly and accurately is essential for the effective administration of scarce reources. "Information gaps" can lead to the inefficient allocation of limited funds and other resources throughout the college organization, and must, therefore, be eliminated as much as possible. The actual way in which decisions are made may also be inappropriate. The extensive use of staffs and committees in the decision making process might well have to be curtailed in times of scarcity if the costs of this consultative approach exceed the benefits derived from it.

The strategic and operational plans of any community college need to be precisely formulated. These preestablished courses of action determine, for some time into the future, the ways in which organizational resources are to be distributed. If these plans are too ambitious, or derived from invalid objectives, or based on inaccurate forecasts, then limited resources may be wasted. Present and future strengths and weaknesses must be accurately assessed, especially with respect to resource-generating items such as enrollment trends and local, state, and federal funding levels. Any assumptions upon which plans are premised should be carefully checked for their

67

validity. Only through careful, rational, objective, and unbiased planning can community college administrators be reasonably assured that they will ultimately get the "most for their dollar" from their scarce resources in the future.

Once long and short-range plans have been formulated, the next necessary step in effectively planning scarce resources is to develop and/or revise the policies, procedures, and rules of the community college. These are the guidelines which provide, with increasing specificity, directions as to how the plans of the organization are to be implemented. Policies, procedures, and rules regarding student attendance, faculty teaching loads, adding and dropping classes, and leaves of absence, to name just a few, may require modification in times of declining enrollments and funding. The more efficiently community college administrators specify policies, procedures, and rules, the less chance there is that valuable assets will be used in a way inconsistent with the overall goals, objectives, and plans of the organization.

All of the various programs being conducted by any community college should be reassessed, and new programs critically evaluated, as an integral part of the planning process. Questions must be raised concerning the consistency and cost-effectiveness of each and every academic and non-academic (e.g., athletics) program in existence or being contemplated. Does each program support the goals and objectives of the college? Is each program being conducted in accordance with the strategic and operational plans of the college? Are the benefits--to the student, the college, and society-- worth the costs associated with each program? If the answers to these kinds of questions are not clearly in the affirmative, then management should give

68

serious consideration to reducing or even eliminating any offending programs in order that resources might be better applied elsewhere.

Budgets can be a very important and effective method for planning scarce resources--but only if they are not abused. Cash flow, expense, and capital budgets all provide a mechanism by which resources can be logically acquired, distributed, and controlled by community college administrators. However, budgets can be and often are mismanaged. It is not uncommon to hear comments around college campuses to the effect that ". . . we've got to spend it (budgeted money) even though we don't need it, because if we don't spend it, they'll cut it out of the next year's budget," or that ". . . if we stay within our budget limits this year, we'll get the same or even less next year, so let's go over the budget a bit." When budgets are based solely on who did or did not spend certain amounts of money in preceding periods, they lose most or all of their effectiveness as a planning method. Rather, budgets should be used by community college administrators as a rational means for allocating scarce resources throughout the organization on the basis of the overall goals and strategic plans of the college.

In order to plan effectively for the efficient use of scarce resources, the community college administrator must make accurate forecasts regarding future conditions such as enrollment levels. This forecasting process cannot be left solely to intuition and judgment. Many forecasting methods are readily available to management (trend analysis, moving averages, auto-regressive models) and should be used to predict as precisely as possible both the availability of, and demand for, future resources. With effective

69
75

forecasting, management can more accurately judge just how scarce future resources may be, and plan for where they might most appropriately be applied.

Given the dynamic nature of the surrounding environment, the community college planner needs to formulate stragegies, policies, etc., using what is often referred to as a "contingency approach". Plans cannot be rigid and inflexible if they are to be readily adaptable to an ever-changing environment. Enrollments rise and fall; demands for different academic programs increase and decrease; laws and statutes governing community colleges continually change; and so forth. In order that resources may be quickly and easily redirected correspondingly, plans must be flexible and adaptable to some extent. Contingency planning means that limited resources ca. be moved about to where they are most needed whenever changes in a dynamic environment so dictate.

In its entirety, effective planning is an integral and major aspect of managing scarce resources. To be successful, today's administrators of community colleges must make carefully considered planning decisions regarding the goals, strategies, policies, programs, and budgets of their organizations. Both strategic a.J operational plans must be flexible and adaptable, given the dynamic environment within which community colleges operate. Planning cannot be left to chance. Rather, plans need to be well-thought-out and well-communicated throughout the organization. Only by effective planning can the increasingly limited resources available to community colleges be put to use in the best possible way.

70

In addition to planning what resources will be needed and how they should be distributed, the community college administrator must also be concerned with how these scarce resources are organized. Managers need to make careful and considered decisions regarding the interrelationships and interactions which exist between the various resources of the college--students, faculty, staff, equipment, supplies, etc.--if these resources are not to be administered in a haphazard and disorganized way. With proper organization, community college administrators can be better assured that the scarce resources available to them are used as effectively and as efficiently as possible.

Organization basically implies the "grouping" of the resources necessary for accomplishing the goals and objectives of the community college in some way or another. Two different community college organizations actually exist: the formal organization as specified by administration, and the informal organization which evolves over a period of time. The community college administrator should be especially concerned with integrating the two. This can and should be done by assuring as much as possible that the personal desires of the members of the community college organization are fulfilled in conjunction with the attainment of the formal goals and objectives of the college. Through this process of "goal integration", the aims of both organizations become harmonious and supportive of each other.

When resources are limited, managers should be certain that the responsibility-authority-accountability relationships, the "glue" that holds the organization together, are appropriate and consistent. Responsibility is

71

the obligation to contribute in some fashion to accomplishing the goals and objectives of the community college; authority is the formal, delegated right to take the necessary action to discharge a responsibility; and accountability is the requirement to report on how appropriately and successfully authority has been used and responsibilities have been met. Balance between the three is imperative for effective and efficient use of community college resources. Too much authority, or too little accountability, for example, invites the diversion of scarce resources away from the best interests of the college organization as a whole in favor of some particular personal pursuit. The community college administrator must, therefore, be careful that for each and every position in the organization, the degree of responsibility assigned is neither insufficient nor excessive; that the authority delegated is commensurate with the responsibility assigned; and, that strict accountability is exacted regarding how that authority is used to discharge the responsibilities of the position.

An organizational concept closely related to the responsibility-authority-accountability triad is that of power. While some bases of power in organizations are derived from formal authority (for example, the power to reward and punish), others are more personal in nature (charisma, professional expertise, and the like). The faculty member who is an expert teacher and scholar, or who is a "super nice person," for instance, may exert a real and significant power over the thoughts and actions of colleagues. The community college administrator who recognizes where these informal, personalized centers of power exist within the organization can make a conscious effort to enlist their support and aid in assuring that scarce resources are put to the best use possible.

72

The way in which the operations of the community college are subdivided or "departmentalized" should also be reviewed, and revised as warranted, in view of resource limitations. Some academic or administrative departments may not be making a significant contribution towards attaining the overall goals of the college and, therefore, perhaps should be eliminated entirely. Others might function more efficiently, if reorganized and merged into a smaller number of departments. These are perhaps the most difficult kinds of changes for the community college administrator to make. Student programs, faculty tenure, and administrative "empires" are just some of the areas affected by changes in the basic structure of the community college organization. But these difficulties should not be permitted to stand in the way of any meaningful reorganization which is required to halt the distribution of scarce resources to organizational elements which do not contribute their "fair share" to the overall performance of the college. Organizational retrenchment, while not a pleasant management task, may be the only way to assure that the community college can continue to survive during periods of declining enrollments and funding.

The use of staffs and the line-staff relationships which exist in the community college organization should also be reexamined to determine if any inefficient uses of resources are evident. It may well be that the "luxury" of maintaining numerous advisory staffs on an ongoing basis is one which cannot be afforded when resources are limited. Whenever and wherever staffs are used, the community college administrator can take several steps to improve the efficiency with which they operate. Responsibility-authority-accountability relationships must be clearly specified so that staffs do not exceed their jurisdictional boundaries. The administrators should

listen to their staffs--if the advice is not worth hearing then the staff should be eliminated. Members of staffs must be kept well-informed if the advice they provide is to be based on timely and accurate data. While staffs which are superfluous constitute a waste of both time and money, those which are necessary and whose advice is heeded can be a valuable asset in managing scarce resources.

Community colleges have sometimes been characterized as being "notorious" in their use of committees as a part of the organizational process. Both standing and ad hoc committees tend to be used fairly extensively in colleges as a means of implementing the consultative approach towards decision making. The benefits of committees--group discussion and evaluation; broad representation; flow of information; etc., are often well-worth the time and effort contributed by the committee members. However, committees have their disadvantages too: they are time-consuming and costly, they can obfuscate responsibilities, they may lead to indecision and problem-avoidance, and the like. Community college administrators, therefore, need to be particularly careful that they are using their limited resources efficiently, and are not allocating them inappropriately, whenever they establish any committee as an element of the college organization.

In all, then, organization is an important factor affecting whether scarce resources can and will be applied as effectively and efficiently as possible towards accomplishing the goals and objectives of the community college. Administrators should recognize the existence of an informal organization as well as the formal one and attempt to integrate the goals and activities of the two. Responsibilities, authorities, and

74

accountabilities must be clearly specified and communicated, and kept in balance with one another throughout the college organization. Additionally, bases of power--both formal and informal--need to be identified and included in the effort to properly manage limited resources. The extent and nature of the departmentalization which exists in the organization should be reexamined and revised where necessary to assure that every element of the organization has a viable role in accomplishing the overall goals and objectives of the community college. Staffs and committees must both be used judiciously in order that the benefits of each may be obtained without excessive expenditures of time and money. Careful management attention to these organizational areas will contribute significantly to the effort to use the scarce resources available to the community college in the most appropriate manner possible.

DIRECTING SCARCE RESOURCES

Once any administrator has reviewed the way in which limited resources are organized and interrelated throughout the community college, and has revised the organizational structure of the college wherever called for, then the next function or process of management which should be critically examined is that of directing. As its name implies, directing concerns the ways in which organizational resources are channeled toward accomplishing the overall goals and objectives of the community college. Three major areas of directing should be carefully considered. These areas are motivation, leadership, and communications. Effective administration of all three of these areas is essential for the best use possible of the resources available to the community college.

Motivation is essentially a cyclical phenomenon. Individuals have a
variety of needs which give rise to the drive to behave in ways by which the
rewards will satisfy their needs. As old needs become reasonably well-
satisfied, new needs arise to take their place. The motivational process
is thus a continuous, ongoing one. As much as possible, then, the organi-
zational resources which are used to reward the personnel of the community
college must be consistent with the needs and desires of those individuals,
and linked to performance which facilitates the attainment of the overall
goals of the college. In this way, faculty, administration, and staff
personnel can accomplish their own ends--rewards which fulfill their own
personal needs--as a result of effort and performance which is in the best
interest of the college.

Recent studies have indicated that there are two basic independent
factors which affect the motivation, satisfaction, and performance of the
individuals within any organization. These factors are commonly referred
to as the "motivational" factor and the "hygienic" factor. The motivational
factor is related to the content of an individual's job--meaningful work, a
sense of responsibility and achievement, and similar items--while the hygienic
factor is related to the context of the job--working conditions, supervision,
pay, and the like.

Studies have shown that both factors must be carefully managed if
performance levels are to be as high as possible. This is because the
hygienic factor tends to be associated with dissatisfaction, while the
motivational factor tends to be related with satisfaction. So, community
college administrators should strive wherever possible to ensure both
that the working environment is not a source of dissatisfaction and that

the content of each job is a source of satisfaction. By using limited

resources in a way which minimizes sources of dissatisfaction and maximizes

sources of satisfaction throughout the organization, the college administrator

will have done much toward achieving the highest levels of individual

motivation and performance feasible.

Leadership is a second major consideration for the community college

administrator faced with the challenge of effectively directing scarce

resources. While similar in many respects, leadership and management are

separate and distinct concepts. Whereas management is a formal organiza-

tional role, leadership is a more personal concept regarding an individual's

ability to influence and direct the behavior of others. Being placed in a

managerial position does not automatically make one an effective leader;

conversely, some of the most influential leaders (for example, heads of

faculty groups) in any community college are not in administration per se.

One important aspect of the leadership role which affects how well any

leader performs is the extent to which the individual possesses the requisite

skills of leadership. There are three basic classes of leadership skills:

conceptual, technical, and human skills. Especially at the higher levels

of the community college organization, administrators need to be capable of

effectively conceptualizing the long-range goals, objectives, strategies,

and programs of the college if they are to be good leaders. Technical

skills--a thorough understanding of the detailed complexities of the opera-

tions of the college--is particularly required of leaders at lower organiza-

tional levels. At all levels of the organization, administrators must be

capable of easily and effectively interacting with others if they are to be

successful in their leadership role. Community college administrators

77

sho ld, therefore, assure that they themselves, and those individuals they place in other leadership roles throughout the college, possess these skills and develop them to the fullest extent.

. Another important aspect of the leadership role is the leadership style the leader adopts. These styles can range anywhere from a totally exploitive, autocratic approach to a completely free-rein, "hands-off" style toward directing the actions of others. While there is evidence that choosing the style which works best is contingent somewhat upon the nature of the leadership situation, in the majority of instances, a participative, consultative approach toward leadership appears to be most appropriate. This is especially true when dealing with professionals and "white-collar" workers found in the community college setting.

Last, leadership effectiveness is to a large extent determined by the types and degree of concern the leader possesses. A common fallacy is to assume that a concern for organizational productivity and a concern for the needs of the people within the organization are opposing forces, and that having a high degree of concern for one must necessarily mean having a minimal concern for the other. Studies have shown that, actually, these two concerns are not independent of one another. In general, the most effective leaders typically tend to possess a great concern for both the eeds of people and the goals of the organization.

Overall, the community college administrator should have a twofold interest in leadership abilities. Administrators need to examine botn their own capabilities and those of other individuals placed in leadership positions throughout the college. Whenever required, skills should be enhanced, styles modified, and concerns heightened, so that the leaders of the co ity

78

college can effectively direct the use of the scarce resources available towards the efficient attainment of the goals and objectives of the college.

Communications is the third major area for concern when analyzing the directing function of management. Without proper communications, it is virtually impossible to use limited resources of the community college properly. Administrators should be careful to assure that communications channels are open and functioning freely throughout the college organization-- downwards, upwards, and laterally across departmental lines. Barriers to communications need to be reduced and eliminated. Messages must be expressed clearly in terms the receiver can readily comprehend. The "grapevine", the communications channel of the informal organization, should be incorporated in the communications network used by the formal organization. Care should always be taken to be completely accurate in administrative communications. Also, only necessary and essential information should generally be communicated. Far too often, communications channels become saturated with trivial and unnecessary transmissions. This can result both in tying up important messages and in having these vital messages lost or ignored. Precise, accurate, clear communications are the only way in which the use of scarce resources can be directed with a minimum of waste and inefficiency.

In total, directing scarce resources relies heavily upon achieving higher levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance through effective leadership and communications. The personal needs of the administration, faculty, and staff of the community college should be taken into considera- tion when directing their organizational activities. Leadership skills,

79

styles, and concerns must be reviewed and revised as required in order that administrators might more effectively guide and influence the behavior of others toward accomplishing the overall goals of the college.

Additionally, communications need to be clear and accurate if the directing process i to be successful. One last point, a particularly important one for management when resources are especially scarce, is that many of the improvements which can be made in directing the activities of the community colleg. (increasing the motivation to perform well by designing challenging jobs; developing a participative leadership style; communicating clearly with others; etc.) can be brought about with a minimum of expense and thus with a minimum drain on the limited resources available to the community college administrator.

CONTROLLING SCARCE RESOURCES

Controlling is the last of the four basic functions or processes of management with which community college administrators should be concerned. Far too often, managers devote the bulk of their time to establishing plans, organizing resources, and directing activities—and then just "walk away" from things, assuming all ill go well. But, as Murphy's Law has it: "Anything that can go wrong, will—and at the most inopportune time possible." Control is, therefore, a critical function for the administration of community colleges. Effective control is essential for assuring that the scarce resources available to the college administrator have, indeed, been used in the best possible way.

Control can be thought of as being comprised of seven steps which need to be performed one at a time, in sequence. These steps are: data

80

86

collection; information processing; comparison to standards; identification of discrepancies; analysis of discrepancies; determination of corrective action; and, implementation of corrective action. Each and every one of these steps is equally important for effective control, since control is "only as strong as its weakest link". If the community college administrator neglects any one of these seven steps, then resources may well wind up being misapplied accordingly.

The first step in controlling the use of limited resources is to gather appropriate data regarding how well or how poorly the goals and objectives of the college are being accomplished. Total enrollment figures, class attendance records, and class sizes are just a few examples of the many kinds of quantity, quality, time, and cost data which can be and are used for control purposes. These data provide the foundation for effective control.

The second step in control is to transform data into information. Raw data are often difficult to interpret, and generally should be converted to a more meaningful form of information. For example, total enrollments can be transformed to full-time equivalent students, class attendance records to average daily attendance figures, and so forth. The information which results from these transformations can then more readily be comprehended by the college administrator and used for control purposes.

Third, the information gained from control data should be compared to the appropriate standards. These standards should have been established as a part of the planning function. They should reflect the "norms" of the community college, the desired levels of attainment at the various control points being analyzed. Projected full-time equivalent enrollments, desired

81

average class sizes, and budgeted full-time equivalent faculty positions are examples of the kinds of standards established by community college administrators when planning how best to use their scarce resources.

The fourth step in control is to identify all discrepancies which may exist between actual performance and planned activities as reflected by the standards of the college. It is especially important to recognize her that it may be just as inappropriate to exceed a standard as it is to fall short of that standard. To have more books and periodicals in a library than planned, for example, may mean that the resources which are being used to acquire and maintain these volumes might be better put to use elsewhere in the college.

Fifth, the community college administrator must carefully analyze the reasons for any discrepancies which may have been identified. Up to this point, the concern has been for what (if anything) has not gone according to plans. Now the concern becomes one for why any discrepancies have occurred. It is particularly important to be certain of the true "root" cause of the problem and its identification, rather than a secondary cause or corollary symptom. Otherwise, resources may wind up being expended inefficiently on treating symptoms instead of actual causes. Additionally, administrators should keep in mind that it may be the standards themselves which are at fault, not actual performance. Unrealistic standards which cannot be attained in actuality may well be the cause of some of the discrepancies identified by the control process.

The sixth step in the control of the operations of the community college should be formulation of corrective action for remedying any discrepancies which may have been identified. If class sizes are too small, some may have to be combined or dropped, and fewer classes might be scheduled the

next time, for example. Generally, corrective action will need to be two-faceted: curative and preventive. Curative corrective action is intended to remedy what has already occurred (combining class sections), while preventive corrective action is aimed at assuring that the same discrepancy does not occur again (scheduling fewer classes in the future).

Last, the corrective action which has been formulated by the college administration must be effectively implemented. Of particular importance is that feedback must be obtained in order to make certain that the curative and preventive actions are, indeed, having their desired effects. Gathering these feedback data initiates the entire control process once again--new data are transformed into information which is compared to standards, and so forth. Thus, control becomes an ongoing process for the community college administrator, designed to ensure that limited resources are actually being used correctly, as planned, for the effective and efficient attainment of the goals and objectives of the college.

Overall, the administration of any community college involves accomplishing a complex set of activities associated with planning, organizing, directing, and controlling the performance of the total college and the various elements of which it is comprised. While never an easy task, college administration becomes an especially difficult job in periods of declining enrollments and decreasing funding--periods when virtually all of the resources available to the administrator correspondingly become scarcer than ever. In the following section of the chapter, several behavioral and analytical methods for aiding the community college administrator in "getting the most from each resource dollar" are briefly described.

SOME METHODS FOR MANAGING SCARCE RESOURCES

A variety of methods are available to help the community college administrator with the task of managing scarce resources. Some of the major behavioral and analytical tools which might be applied to this task are summarized in the following paragraphs. With these techniques, the college administrator should be better equipped to meet the challenge of using limited resources as effectively and as efficiently as possible.

Job enrichment has been shown in many studies to be a very effective way to increase an individual's motivation, satisfaction, and performance. The process of enriching any job basically involves making the work more meaningful, challenging, and intrinsically rewarding. Often this is done by giving the individual more responsibility for, and authority over, the nature of the job. With the addition of these managerial characteristics to the position, the work is thereby made more interesting and satisfying to the employee, and motivation and performance increase accordingly; but, too great an enrichment, too quickly, can sometimes be too much for the individual to cope with, and just the opposite result occurs. A careful and judicious approach toward job enrichment, however, will often lead to better performance and, therefore, less waste of limited resources.

Management by Objectives (MBO) is another, similar behavioral method for improving job performance. In MBO, both the administrator and the subordinate, working together, establish the objectives to be accomplished in the subordinate's job. After an agreed upon period of time, performance is appraised in view of how well the individual has accomplished these objectives. The ability of the individual to participate in establishing the parameters of

84

.the position often leads to an "ego involvement" in, or personal commitment to, the work to be done, which in turn results in a higher level of per- formance. The inherent aspects of two-way communications and participative leadership make MBO an attractive tool which may be of considerable use for the community college administrator.

Periods of scarce resources in community colleges generally imply periods of change, in which numerous actions are taken in response to the decline in resources. Often, the use of a "change agent" can be very beneficial for assuring that these changes are brought about as rapidly and efficiently as possible. The change agent is an individual whose job is to make certain that the nature of, and need for, any change is clearly under- stood by all those who are affected by the change. The change agent also solicits the active participation of those affected in determining how the change should be implemented. Again, the participative approach toward the management of change typically results in a reduced resistance to change and, thus, a greater efficiency in its implementation.

Job enrichment, management by objectives, and the use of change agents are just three of the many behavioral techniques available to the community college administrator faced with the task of managing scarce resources as efficiently as is possible. The general area of management called organi- zational development (OD), which includes these and other behavioral methods (e.g., sensitivity training), has been the topic of numerous studies and writings in recent years. However, the underlying theme for all of these methods is that an understanding of, and concern for, the needs of the individual (coupled with a consultative, participative approach towards administrative leadership) will typically result in a greater motivation and

commitment on the part of the individual--and, thus, in higher performance
and a more efficient use of limited resources.

Turning now to some analytical aids for managing scarce resources, one
area of the management sciences is particularly relevant for discussion.
This area concerns the field of mathematical programming. Mathematical
programming is comprised of analytical methods including linear programming,
non-linear programming, and dynamic programming. These methods are all
mathematical tools available to the community college administrator whose
explicit objective is to allocate scarce resources among competing alterna-
tives to optimize some objective function, such as minimizing the total
cost of operations. They can and should be used to help determine which,
if any, missions and programs of the college should be eliminated altogether,
and at what levels the remainder should be pursued--all in view of the best
possible allocation of the limited resources of the college for accomplishing
its overall goals and objectives.

A relatively new approach towards mathematical programming is that of
goal programming. As with the methods mentioned above, goal programming i.
concerned with allocating scarce resources as   .t as po: 'e among competing
alternatives. however, goal programming also recognizes that   most
organizations there are many goals, with differing priorities, which need
to be accomplished. This method enables the administrator to allocate his
resources so as to ensure that top priority goals are completely accomplished
first, and so on down the line. Goal programming analyses typically
conclude with low priority goals being less than fully attained because of
the scarcity of resources. Many successful applications of goal programming
have been reported, including areas such as banking, credit unions, and

86

OSHA safety requirement models. Goal programming has the potential of being a very important tool for aiding the community college administrator in determining how best to allocate scarce resources, while keeping in mind the differing priorities of the many goals and objectives of the community college.

A third analytical approach towards resource management, one which is also relatively new to most administrators, is that of zero-base budgeting. Zero-base budgeting implies that every element of the organization is "wiped out" at the beginning of each budgeting period, and that every item included in the new budget for that period must be justified anew. This justification process requires that every proposed activity be described and explained, the consequences of not pursuing it discussed, any alternatives to the activity presented, and the estimated benefits and costs of the activity spelled out. These "decision packages" for all of the proposed activities are then ranked by administration in order of importance and value, and scarce resources are budgeted accordingly. While more time-consuming than traditional budgeting techniques--especially the first time it is applied-- zero-base budgeting can provide the community college administrator with an effective technique for budgeting limited resources in a rational, efficient way.

Mathematical programming, goal programming, and zero-base budgeting are only some of the many analytical tools with which the administrators of community colleges can better ensure that their scarce resources are being allocated as effectively and as efficiently as possible. The management sciences field contains scores of similar methods for the rational manage-ment of organizational resources. The overall concept with which the

87

community college administrator should be constantly concerned is that of
benefits versus costs. In general, whenever limited resources are to be
applied anywhere in the community college organization, the administrator
should be certain the benefits of that application exceed the cost of the
resources; and that, dollar for dollar, the greatest possible benefit is
being ga ned in comparison to all alternative applications. With such an
approach, community college administrators can be assured that they are
doing the best job possible of managing their scarce resources.

SUMMARY

The management of scarce resources is a difficult and complex task.
Recent declines in enrollments, and cutbacks in funding levels, have made
it imperative that the community college administrator be especially careful
regarding how increasingly scarce resources are allocated throughout the
college organization. "Satisficing" in managerial decision making must be
replaced by an optimizing approach toward managing limited resources.

When planning the use of the scarce resources of the community college,
administrators must ensure that the goals and objectives of the college are
precisely defined. Decision making should be as rational, objective, and
unbiased as possible. Strategic and operational plans need to be consistent
with the goals of the college and within the scope of the available resources.
Policies and procedures should be carefully reviewed, as should all new and
existing programs. Budgets and the budgeting process must be as precise as
possible, and free from typical abuses. Forecasts should be objective and
accurate. Last, all plans should recognize the dynamics of the planning
environment, and should, therefore, be flexible and contingent upon environ-
mental changes.

When organizing the use of the scarce resources of the community college, administrators must be certain that all responsibility-authority-accountability relationships are clearly defined and are in balance. The way in which the college is departmentalized should be reviewed and revised if necessary. The use of staffs, and the line-staff relationships, also need to be reexamined. Both standing and ad hoc committees should be formed only when necessary to improve the decision making process, and not for reasons such as avoiding making decisions. Finally, the informal organization should be integrated with the formal organization as much as possible in order to facilitate the operations of the community college.

When directing the use of the scarce resources of the community college, administrators need to be concerned with the needs of the individuals within the college organization. Both the content and context of work must be well-designed if satisfaction and performance are to be high. Conceptual, technical, and human skills should be developed by those in leadership roles. A participative leadership style, in most instances, will result in a greater commitment and higher level of performance. Community college leaders simultaneously can and should be highly concerned with both the needs of the individuals within the organizations, and the goals and objectives of the college itself. Communication channels should be open in all directions throughout the organization. Messages need to be clear, precise, and accurate. Finally, trivial and unimportant communications should not be permitted to overload the channels of communication in the community college.

When controlling the use of the scarce resources of the community college, administrators must pay careful attention to each and every one of the seven

sequential steps in the control process. Control data that are relevant and accurate must be collected. These data need to be transformed into, meaningful information which can then be compared to planned standards. Discrepancies between actual performance and standards must be identified and carefully analyzed as to their causes. Appropriate corrective action--both curative and preventive--should be formulated and implemented. Finally, feedback should be maintained to assure that the desired results are, indeed, being attained.

When managi., the use of the scarce resources of the community college, administrators have many behavioral and analytical tools available to aid them in this task. Job enrichment, management by objectives, and the use of change agents are just a few of the many behavioral methods which can be used. In general, these behavioral techniques recognize the needs of the individuals in the college organization, and the effectiveness of a participative and integrative leadership approach, for attaining a high level of commitment and performance. Mathematical programming, goal programming, and zero-base budgeting are some of the numerous analytical tools from the management sciences which are also available to community college administrators. The basic aim of these analytical techniques is to provide quantitative methods for helping community college administrators ensure their decisions result in receiving the greatest benefit possible for each resource dollar spent.

In conclusion, community college administrators faced with declining enrollments, decreasing funds, and dwindling resources, must carefully plan, organize, direct, and control the entire spectrum of the activities of the college organization, making good use of the many behavioral and analytical

90

tools available. This must be done if community college administrators
are to be assured that their scarce resources are being utilized in the
best, most effective, and efficient way possible.

.91

SELECTED READINGS

Easton, Allan. Managing for Negative Growth (Reston, Va.: Reston Publishing Co., Inc., 1976).

Flippo, Edwin B.: and Gary M. Munsinger. Management (3d ed.: Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1975).

Hodge, B. J.: and Herbert J. Johnson. Management and Organizational Behavior: A Multidimensional Approach (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970).

Koontz, Harold: and Cyril O'Donnell. Management: A Systems and Contingency Analysis of Managerial Functions (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976).

Luthans, Fred. Organizational Behavior: A Modern Behavioral Approach to Management (2d ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1977).

Tellier, Richard D. Operations Management: Fundamental Concepts and Methods (San Francisco: Canfield Press, Inc., 1978). (In press.)

Voich, Dan, Jr.: and Daniel A. Wren. Principles of Management: Resources and Systems (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1968).

S. V. MARTORANA

Dr. S. V. Martorana, Professor, College of Education and Research Associate, Center for the Study of Higher Education, The Pennsylvania State University, received his bachelor's degree from the State University of New York College at Buffalo, and an M.A. and Ph.D. from the University of Chicago. Prior to joining the Pennsylvania State University in 1972, he was Vice-Chancellor for Community Colleges and Provost for Vocational and Technical Education in the State University of New York. His books include Managing Academic Change (with E. Kuhns) and The Political Terrain of American Post-secondary Education (with C. Blocker and L. Bender). He is a recognized national authority on state level governance and the general field of the community college. He has served as a consultant to some thirty states and many two- and-four-year colleges.

EILEEN KUHNS

Dr. Eileen Kuhns received her Ph.D. from Syracuse University in 1954. Since 1975, Dr. Kuhns has served as Associate Professor and Coordinator of the Educational Administration Program at the Catholic University of America. Dr. Kuhns has held top level administrative positions at Montgomery College and Mount Vernon College. From 1972-75 she was an Executive Associate with the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

Building on their personal professional experiences in community college education and their special studies in the field, the authors describe the development and use of four types of management teams in these institutions. They are designated as follows: (1) top-management--a group responsible for highest level policy formulation and administration of the college; (2) innovative implementing--a group responsible for seeing a new institutional departure through stages of development from exploration to institutionalization; (3) key work group member--a group responsible for effectiveness of a particular functional area of the college; and, (4) special evaluation--a group responsible for critical assessment of the institution or a significant element in it.

The basic premise for discussion of development and use of these management teams in the chapter is that community colleges are "knowledge organizations", ones depending on use of specially trained personnel to carry on their functions and having social gains in level and use of knowledge as their products. Sections of the discussion deal with the scholarly base on which development and use of community college management teams rest; role definition of teams and team members; role coordination; team member identification, recruitment, and selection; team member professional development; and, evaluation of team productivity. The chapter closes with a call for further application of research and developmental energy on team development for improved management of community colleges and some indications of directions these efforts might take, as well as the reasons why they are needed.

Chapter V

TEAM DEVELOPMENT FOR

COMMUNITY COLLEGE MANAGEMENT

by

S. V. Martorana

Eileen Kuhns

INTRODUCTION

From the variety of perspectives provided by our association with, and studies of, community colleges, we see well-managed community colleges using four types of management teams. For purposes of the discussion to follow in this chapter, the teams are designated as: (1) top-management; (2) innovative implementing; (3) key work group member; and, (4) special evaluation. The working definition of each is: (1) top-management--a group responsible for highest·level policy formulation and administration in the college; (2) innovative implementing--a group responsible for seeing a new institutional departure through stages of development from exploration to institutionalization; (3) key work group member--a group responsible for effectiveness of a key functional area of the college; and, (4) special evaluation--a group responsible for critical assessment of the institution or a significant element in it.

To a degree, each of these types of teams is recognized, though not necessarily by the designations given here, in the scholarly literature of organizational behavior and management. The use of teams for top-management and for the implementation of innovations within the organization is coming to be generally accepted in the literature of the field that examines the use

94

of teams as a basic design principle for management. The third of the four types listed, however, represents a conclusion reached by the authors of this chapter as valid, based upon their synthesis of a number of authoritative works in the field, and their own personal observation of the administrative, management, and leadership style and practices followed in community colleges. The last type of team identified and to be discussed in this chapter has thus far attracted relatively little notice as a specific management approach in the authoritative writings on the subject; however, the increasing evidence of its use in practice in the management of community colleges persuades the authors that it merits inclusion in the discussion presented here.

Purposes and Organization of Chapter

Several purposes are set for the balance of this chapter. In the sections which follow, attention will first center briefly on the knowledge base on which the team idea rests, and next on the use and validity of team development in the management of community colleges as a particular kind of institution with a special educational purpose and philosophy to implement in their operations as complete organizations.) The next two sections will discuss, in turn, the role definition of teams and team members and the task of role coordination. A fourth section deals with team member identification, recruitment, and selection; a fifth with team member professional improvement or "staff development;" and a sixth with the evaluation of team productivity. The chapter closes with a call for further application of research and developmental energy on team development for improved management by community colleges and an indication of the directions these efforts might take as well as the reasons why they are needed.

Efforts to develop a better general understanding of the team concept in staffing, structuring, and managing an organization are seen coming from two directions. One is the thrust of some scholar analysts to establish a general theory of group or social organizaticnal action which can apply to all forms of organizations and enterprises. Another is the efforts of analysts of the staffing function in particular spheres of activities such as business, industry; and so on.

Among those who can be mentioned whose work builds a basic theoretical foundation for understanding the merits of use of a team development approach to any human enterprise are Talcott Parsons, and A. H. Maslow. Parsons works on the basic structure of social organization, and his development of a theory of individual and personal drives toward satisfaction (in relation-ship to individuals' sense of deprivation) provides theoretical and conceptual foundations on which many propositions for institutional management, including the notion of team development, can be advanced.[1] In a similar manner, but from a different perspective (namely the psychological drives of human individuals), Maslow has established a theory of motivation in individual behavior on which many management practices are being laid.[2]

The work of specialists in the study of staffing practices in particular enterprises can also be helpful in a background discussion of team development. Drucker's conclusions about the use of teams as a basic design principle, for example, draw heavily on business and industry and are fundamental to the discussion which follows. He says:

> Team design requires a continuing mission in
> which the specific tasks change frequently, however.

96

> If there is no continuing mission, there might be an
> ad hoc temporary task force--but not an organization
> based on the team as a permanent design. If the tasks
> do not change, or if their relative importance or
> sequence remain unchanged, there is no need for team
> organization and no point to it.[3]

But Drucker then develops some significant expansions to this general

definition when "the knowledge organization" is discussed. The extensions

tend to suggest for management an integrated use of both functional

considerations and teams in order to assure organizational effectiveness.

The following quotations show how this logic develops:

> But the area where team design, as a complement to
> functional organization, is likely to make the greatest
> contributions is in the knowledge work. . .
> This requires better functional management. What
> specialties are needed has to be decided or else the
> organization will drown in useless and unused learning.
> There is need to think through what the key activities
> are in which a high degree of specialized knowledge work
> in the key areas is provided for, in depth, and with
> excellence. It also demands that knowledge work in
> other areas is either not done at all or be kept in low
> key. . . .
> An increasing number of knowledge workers, however,
> will have a functional home but do their work with other
> knowledge workers from other functions and disciplines.
> The more advanced the knowledge worker's knowledge, the
> more likely it is that he will do his work and make his
> contributions in cross-functional teams, rather than in
> his own functional component. . . . It becomes results
> only in a team.
> Knowledge organization will, therefore, increasingly
> have two axes: a functional one, managing the man and
> his knowledge; another one the team, managing work and
> tasks. Seen one way, this undermines the functional
> principle and destroys it. Seen another way, it saves
> the functional principle and makes it fully effective.
> It certainly requires strong, professional, effective,
> functional managers and functional components.[4]

Later in his development of the logic of the need for teams in knowledge

work, Drucker goes on to emphasize that:

The team is clearly not the panacea advertised by a
good deal of the discussion of the small group and free-
form organization. It is a difficult structure requiring
very great self-discipline. It has severe limitations
and major weaknesses.

But it is also not, as many managers still believe,
a temporary expedient for dealing with non-recurring
special problems. It is a genuine design principle of
organization. It is the best principle for such perma-
nent organizing tasks as top-management work and
innovating work. And it is an important and perhaps
essential complement to functional structure--in mass-
production work, whether manual or clerical, and above
all, in knowledge work. It is the key, in all proba-
bility, to making functional skills fully effective in
the knowledge organization.[5]

The point to be noted and emphasized here is that a community college

is clearly a knowledge organization. The structure for management, therefore,

should recognize both the broad social functions (goals) community colleges

are expected to attain, and the highly specialized skills possessed by

persons who work as professionals within these institutions. Faculty,

counselors, librarians, instructional media specialists, fiscal officers,

public relations workers, administrators--all are persons with advanced

preparation who carry on highly specialized technical and professional

duties to support the work of the institution.

Particularly in matters of top-management (the highest official

leadership level) and innovation, attention to the team concept in management

is needed, as Drucker says, to balance considerations of organizational

functions and individual specialties. The importance of each to the produc-

tivity of the college, (effective and efficient achievement of its goals) must

be kept in mind. This is necessary because both functional structures are,

in Drucker's words: "work and task oriented".

To get the work of a community college done well requires not only a

complex of qualified professionals in various functional areas (student

personnel, academic affairs, fiscal affairs, and so on), but also it requires
a readiness to draw on selected individuals from each area of specialization
to operate across functional lines in leadership, top-managment decision
making, and policy formulation. Additionally, these requirements are necessary
to support and direct new departures in practices and programs of the insti-
tution. Thus, the logic developed in the series of Drucker's statements
presented above shows clearly the need for and the reason why community
colleges use teams designated in this chapter as "top-management" and
"innovative implementing".

Drucker's views are modified somewhat, however, to accommodate the
frequent community college use of functional organizational design and,
within that, the effort to establish a team concept for functional effective-
ness. In this practice, community college leadership attempts to apply the
team development concepts for better effectiveness in the management of
various functional areas of operation in a manner comparable to the applica-
tion of the team concept to the management of the entire institution in
order to assure its greater success in achieving its goals. In developing
this modification of Drucker's views on management teams, Likert's work on
motivation and productivity of work groups was influential in molding the
thinking of the authors of this chapter, for they see the professional staff
of a functional area of a community college (academic affairs, business
affairs, student personnel services, and so on) as the work groups in these
institutions.[6] Because of these views, the authors hold that a discussion
of the use of teams in the management of community colleges should include
that designated here as "key work group member".

99

Inclusion of the team type designated as "special evaluation" is the result of observation of community colleges' use of groups of personnel to make special assessments of institutional operation. Although included in this category are the special teams of outside personnel used to help accrediting associations make judgments, special evaluation teams are more than that. Included in the concept and in the observed practices of community colleges are the institutional self-study teams organized to produce comprehensive analyses of institutional operations preparatory to visitations of outside accrediting teams, application for special federal grants, approaches to foundations for similar grant aid, and for other purposes. Also included are the groups of professionals brought together to participate in the "audit" of internal operations. Use of audits for internal evaluation purposes is on the increase and is no longer applied only to fiscal matters (as was earlier the case) but is being applied to academic operations, student services, and other aspects of institutional operations as well.

Recognition of the need to provide stimuli external to the organization, in order to produce changes in it, has generated a considerable body of critical analyses of the principles and practices involved. "The innovative task, therefore," says Drucker, "cannot be organized on the basis of functional organization. It is incompatible with it."[7] From his research into the subject, B. Lamar Johnson concluded that community colleges would be well-advised to establish positions within the institution to be designated as "vice president for hierarchy".[8] Martorana and Kuhns drew upon the experience of a number of community colleges, as well as that in a variety of other types of postsecondary institutions, to suggest the use of change agents and change managers in the implementation of their interactive

100

forces theory of change and its utilization in academic planning and decision making.[9]

.The analysis of use of external teams for the evaluation of institutions goes back to the early days of the accreditation movement in this country. The landmark study by Russell and Reeves, which moved the North Central Accrediting Association toward a systematic process of utilization of professionals and fixed criteria for assessing institutional quality, was the forerunner of a flood of studies lasting to the present day.[10] No other postsecondary education institution has moved as rapidly towards the adoption of a management-by-objectives operational style as quickly or as completely as the community college. Most of the institutional experience on which Lahti reached his conclusions about innovative college management, for example, is drawn from the two-year colleges. While Lahti claims that "many of the same approaches and principles could beneficially be applied to all educational institutions," he states forthrightly that his work "focuses primarily on the two-year college".[11]

From Theory to Practice

A number of organized actions aimed at translating the growing mass of theoretical knowledge about organizational management and staffing patterns and principles, in general, and the concept of team development more specifically, into practical use in operating organizations, can be reported. The American Management Association, for instance, found a fertile interest, in recent years, among community colleges in the professional staff development institutes directed by the Association for leadership personnel.

The Community College Institutes, which were sponsored by the Danforth Foundation, are also worth noting. By design, these Institutes brought

101

together selected teams of personnel, including trustees, presidents, other administrators, faculty, and students from selected community colleges, to undergo special training for leadership as change agents to carry forward specific innovative ventures at their home bases. These innovations covered such varied topics as nonpunitive grading, special admissions programs, the establishing of new campuses, and formulation of developmental studies programs.

A growing list of special institutes of other kinds also contributes to better understanding of management practices, including the use of teams in community colleges. A pioneer venture of this type was launched by the Southeastern Community College Leadership Program in 1972.[12] Another landmark institute was run by the Community College Administrative Leadership Program of Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1973. A paper presented at that conference advanced several concepts pertinent to the discussion here. In the paper, William D. Guth, a noted analyst of business organization, interwove a variety of illustrative case materials with an exposition of three conceptual models of behavior in complex organizations. In light of the four types of teams for management of community colleges designated earlier, the reader's attention is called to the three models Guth presented and to his final conclusion concerning organizational practices in using them. These were designated and defined as follows: (1) Rational Strategy-- describes the organization as a "single actor" entity operating as a logical, unitary, decision maker with one set of goals, one set of perceived alternatives, a single estimate of consequences of each alternative; (2) Organizational Politics--views the organization as a series of players in jobs where there is a "game going on in which there are many interactions and interrelationships"

and where "the real activity of an organization takes place at the lower levels"; and, (3) Organizational Structure and Processes--describes the organization not as a single decision maker, but instead as a locus where many actors play, each representing an organizational unit only loosely coordinated with the others in the organization.

Guth's conclusion applies to community colleges as well as other organizations. In actuality, it is very difficult for complex and sizable organizations to operate as "single actor" organizations; only the community or junior colleges with easily defined and homogeneous constituencies in their service communities would be able to practice in this mode. Beyond stressing the need for drawing upon a variety of organizational models in an eclectic fashion, Guth's statements also show that his recommended approach to management places an important priority on the use of teams. In discussing the third of his models, he says:

> Factored problems and power bases, which are like the ones in the political model, are also part of this model; they stem from the creation of specialized units (underlining ours) that each focus attention on only part of the total organizational activities.[13]

VALIDITY CF TEAM CONCEPT FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE MANAGEMENT

Administrative leaders and managers of community colleges are dealing with large and complex organizations, and they are fundamentally knowledge organizations. These are the two most basic facts on which rest the advantages to be found in having an understanding of and making an operating decision to use the team concept in community college management. The third largest unit of the multi-campus State University of New York, for example, is a campus of a two-year college, the State University of New York

103

Agricultural and Technical College at Farmingdale. The Chicago City Colleges, as a multi-campus system of community colleges, have some 60 administrators and over 600 faculty to provide for over 10,000 full-time, and some 20,000 part-time, students. Collectively, the 1200 two-year colleges in the United States have professional staffs which include some 20,000 administrators and 150,000 full-time and part-time faculty to serve over 4 million full and part-time students.

In order to carry out their functions, community colleges, like other organizations, utilize an internal structure which recognizes the several areas of needed operations and allocates to different units of the structure responsibility for accomplishment of the tasks related to each main area of operations. A typical community college is organized to provide specific attention to the following functional operations: academic affairs, student personnel services, business affairs, and, in some cases, institutional development.

Sheer size and complexity are only two community college features suggesting attention be given to the team concept in management. The idea is supported by several other important features as well. Chief among these is that community colleges are knowledge organizations and, therefore, have special need for participatory governance and management. But, even more, community colleges are knowledge organizations with a special educational philosophy which typically guides their operations and close ties to local community units in the general society; this characteristic guiding philosophy distinguishes community colleges from other types of postsecondary educational delivery systems.

Stated succinctly, the guiding philosophy is one of commitment to enhancing the individual student's fulfillment as a person, worker, and member of the society. This community colleges are dedicated to do in all respects, except for the preparation of students for careers requiring upper-level collegiate, graduate, or professional education. To accomplish the broad goals indicated, a companion goal exists--a commitment to accept all students from a community who feel the need for such further fulfillment of a personal, economic, or social nature, who are motivated and who can profit from the opportunity provided.

These goals, of course, represent an ambitious educational undertaking for any organization; required to accomplish it are many different kinds of resources--teachers, counselors, clerks, groundskeepers, and so on, as well as nonpersonal material. The latter include libraries, learning resources centers, instructional media, classrooms and laboratories, instructional supplies, and the like. The personnel staffing requirements for such an enterprise are obviously large and complicated.

The community college commitment to the local community served, further-more, generates another type of complexity. This is a network of organiza-tional devices needed to maintain the desired linkages in both the actual operations of the several facets of the community college and the exchange of information between the college and all of a wide array of constituencies in the community it serves. The result is a variety of citizens advisory committees working with administrators, facu'y, and other professional personnel; a complex of contractural or other forms of agreement for shared resources with local hospitals, businesses and industries, professional and governmental offices; and so on.

To attempt to staff such an enterprise and to manage the personnel involved in it without attention to the team concept is to invite disorder and inefficiency, if not chaos and organizational breakdown. The team concept is essential and, as a matter of fact, is honored in the well-run community college; it happens either as a planned, recognized technique of management, or as a kind of intuitive, subconscious accomplishment of able administrative leadership which pragmatically uses its concept without giving it high visibility or recognizing it as an applied management technique.

ROLE DEFINITION OF TEAMS AND TEAM MEMBERS

Well-administered organizations, community colleges among them, recognize the general validity of the proposition that the total complex of operations necessary to maintain in order to make the organization effective in achieving its end is best managed by an effective "division" of the labor. It is already noted that both the theoretical analyses and critical observations of practice support the wisdom of the team concept to accomplish organizational work. The four teams designated here as top-management, innovation imple- menting, key work group member, and special evaluation are actually means of deploying the human energy available in community colleges to get the work of these institutions done.

Both theory and practice also support another common conclusion. It is that teams serve the organization best when there is clear-cut consensus within the total organization about the presence of a team and of the team's function within the organization. Such consensus is rooted, in turn, in the presence of a strong understanding about broad institutional goals and, more particularly, basic objectives.

106

Institutional goal definition, then, is the first and essential step toward establishment and definition of community college management teams. "Unless the captain knows to what port he is sailing, no wind is favorable," is an oft-quoted observation of a Roman sage. Goal definition involves not merely a statement of the broad educational purposes envisioned for the college, but it also involves the action required to assure that these are understood and accepted widely throughout the institution and among the constituencies it serves.

With such consensus and acceptance, a sound foundation is set for identifying teams needed to manage the enterprise and what the tasks of the several teams are to be. Following that comes the assignment of particular purposes to be served by each team in its efforts to accomplish the institutional goal. These purposes operationally become objectives for each team to achie..: policy objectives for top-management teams; change objectives for innovative implementing teams; improved operations for key work group member teams; and, objectives of improved institutional assessment for special evaluation teams.

Team Identification

Given these preliminary steps towards the use of the team concept as a true design principle for organizing and managing community colleges, further attention should be focused on the teams themselves. Key among the essential forces typically found is general leadership and expert policy-level administrative skills. In most community colleges this top-echelon, general-administrative leadership team exists and operates as a continuing or standing unit and centers around the offices of the chief executive--president,

chancellor, district superintendent, or other title of similar official connotation. Beyond this key executive leadership team, institutional practices are seen to vary greatly in the extent and manner that other teams are utilized in managing the institution.

One pattern quite commonly found recognizes the team designated as key work group member. Community colleges following this pattern organize leadership teams in each of the traditional structural divisions of the institution--academic affairs, student personnel services, business affairs, and the like. The intent of the institution in developing a team in each of the functional areas of operation is to provide a leadership focus in these important areas of institutional operations comparable to that provided for the entire institution by the top-management team.

A different pattern, much less commonly found, is the use of teams as a means of carrying the burden of institutional operations viewed on an ad hoc basis. In such designs, effort is made to identify problems and deploy leadership groups within the institution to examine and recommend how these problems can best be handled. These teams operate very much in the same manner as innovation-implementing teams, with the former concentrating on problems confronting the institution and the latter focusing their attention on new departures that the college is either considering or attempting to get underway.

Most commonly, community colleges use both of these approaches, the key work group member team carries the burden of college operations at a high level of excellence, and innovation-implementing teams "spark plug" new undertakings. The community colleges vary more in terms of what approach is most labelled and emphasized as a team concept than they do with respect to

108

the use of some teams deliberately and fully, while excluding others from consideration in institutional design.

Jamestown Community College in New York State has attracted considerable notice for its use of "ad hocracy" in personnel organization to attend to institutional development. On closer examination, Jamestown is actually using both of the approaches described above but is identifying its special problem-attacking teams more than most other community colleges do.

Consensus on Roles cf Management Elements

Regardless of how many different types of management teams a community college uses, a reasonable measure of consensus among the leadership of the college and all component groups about the objectives that each team is expected to accomplish is essential to the effectiveness of its operations. Recognition of this essential fact is one of the reasons why authorities in organizational behavior stress the importance of communication between and among all points of an organization. Within the college, means must be established and maintained to assure widespread understanding of the way each operating element, team, or work group relates to the broad general goals of the institution and to the particular purposes to be served by each of its subordinate components.

This is not to say that each and every operating unit of a community college has to be afforded the opportunity of approving or vetoing the mission developed and assigned to all of the others. It does mean to say, however, that strong attention must be paid, first, to broad participation of all interested elements in the college in formulating team or work group missions and, second, to widespread and continuous communications throughout the college concerning team missions, assignments advanced, and accomplishments reported in relation to them.

109

At this point, it may be helpful to note a difficulty which often arises and confuses role definition for different management teams; the problem of differentiation between broad institutional goals and particular team mission assignments. Because all management teams are expected to contribute to the broad goals of the institution, the possibility of overlap in assignments and, therefore, confusion in work to be done, is always present.

In order to avoid this, it is essential that the particular assignments of teams be made distinct so that each one sees itself as contributing to progress toward broad institutional goals in a different way from the others. The problem of team or role confusion can be further avoided by the formulation of clear-cut objectives within the special assignments given to each team. All teams and all members working on teams should understand that, while broad institutional goals in a real sense cannot be measured, progress toward accomplishment of objectives which, when accomplished, contribute to the general success of the institution can be measured. It is the responsibility of the top-management team to make certain that the missions or institutional assignments of all other teams are made clear and that the objectives that will be used to measure the progress of teams towards accomplishing their assignment are similarly stipulated in clear-cut fashion.

Development and Implementation of Job Design and Specification

Out of the general institutional understanding of team and work group mission and assignment flows the capacity to make more specific determinations of the best ways to define more detailed job descriptions of persons functioning as team members. Each team, a key work group member team in the student

110

services area for example, is expected to support the total institution by relating in a mutually and positively supportive way with all other teams and work groups existing in the institution--academic affairs, business affairs, and so on. Each working group or team needs to see its tasks, modus operandi, and membership composition in relation to the entire institution and in relation to each of the other key operating groups.

A variety of procedural arrangements can be followed to develop this inter-group understanding. These arrangements can be built around a vertical hierarchical organizational structure (department, division, and so on), a structure which recognizes the separate institutional functions (academic affairs, student affairs, and fiscal affairs) but which cuts across all of them as found to be operating at a particular hierarchical level, or one related to the entire college, disregarding or deemphasizing the notion of either vertical, hierarchical operating levels and particular functional areas of institutional operations. The point is the intent to force better communications and action across the usual units of institutional operations.

Since within every complex organization, particularly one that is knowledge-based, there is need for participatory governance, all community colleges operate somewhat within the political organizational model. Within such a model there is particular need to develop a general consensus about the relationship of particular teams and work groups to the general institu-tional purpose. The political interaction between and among the several teams and work groups of the college, then, is provided a focus. Without such a focus, intra-institutional differences can emerge and grow to levels

111

which are counterproductive to the college's strength and operating effective-
ness. Regardless of what procedure is used, the end product sought is a
definitive statment of why the team or work group exists within the institu-
tion and what it is expected to do.

Implicit in this step in team development is a need to have assignments
rooted in institutional goals; a work group with a mission detached or
unrelated to the basic goals of the institution it serves is irrelevant and
dangerous. Given this kind of guidance, responsible persons in the institution
can then turn to the question of team composition and specification of jobs
to be done by its members. This is true for all kinds of teams but, as will
be pointed out later, the degree of specificity in the job descriptions for
team members will vary according to the type of team in which the member is
found working.

In typical community college practice, job design and job specifications
differ considerably when the functional work group is the consideration as
compared to a top-management team. When staffing a key work group member
team, the functional area will include a larger work group representing
the complex of workers (all or most of them professionals) brought together
by the college to sustain the work in that particular functional area. The
job design of the key work group member team, therefore, is essentially a
restatement of the objectives set for the broader function to support the
total institution's goals. Thus, for example, the job des'nn and the job,
descriptions for the key work group member team in the student personnel
services area might well call for members with particular expertise in
counseling (providing assistance to students to examine their ability,
motivation, and background against career and personal aspirations), testing

112

118

(providing assistance to students to assess interests and prior educational achievement), student financial aid (providing assistance to students to acquire financial help if needed), and so on. The design for the key work group team member in business affairs calls for membership concerned with effective projection of the need for and use of fiscal, material, and personal resources, responsible accounting of these resources, and the like. In academic affairs, on the other hand, the job designed for the team indicates expectations of effective teaching, curriculum development, student evaluation, and so on.

Job descriptions, then, are developed for each class of specialized work needed to support the team's assignment or mission which, in turn, supports the institution's broad goals. Professional personnel serving a particular role on a given team are guided by the details set forth in the job description.

"Job descriptions," says Lahti, "provide the basis for establishing regular objectives, authority, and accountability relationships."[14] Indeed, the procedure of requiring specific job descriptions is carried to all aspects of the organization; Lahti describes in detail, for example, a job description for the chairman of the board of trustees, a key functionary in the general administration function, as well as descriptions of jobs held by professional employees on the college staff.[15]

These queries into the staffing processes of community colleges, however, represent only a start toward analytical research on the subject. Much of the published writings of community college administration and management describes prevalent staffing patterns and their relationships to institutional goals and objectives. Virtually none is to be found, in contrast, which

113

examines analytically the way the aggregate of professionals in the different
functional areas of institutional operations interrelate as teams or work
groups. This is true even though evidence exists that community college
presidents and other top-echelon administrators differ in administrative
leadership style.[16]

Neither are there available systematic examinations of community
colleges with respect to the use of the team concept as a deliberate design
principle of institutional organization. Insights into this use come mainly
from personal professional observations and from reports of particular
institutional developments focusing on the development itself (the establish-
ment by Orange Coast College is an example of a widespread "open learning"
system), but reflecting presence of a team and the team concept in its
implementation. Examples of this are seen in several of the institutional
innovations reported by Martorana and Kuhns in 1975 and in recent reports of
innovative ventures advanced by community colleges having membership in the
League for Innovation.[17]

When used to enhance top-echelon administrative leadership and manage-
ment, or to implement an innovation, job design and job descriptions are
more broadly conceived; often only the general mission of the group is stated
formally within the organization. Thus, the top-management team may be
described as the president's cabinet or executive administrative council.
A team organized to spearhead an innovation may simply be described in that
fashion, for instance, "open learning task force", "computer assisted
instruction commission", "cluster college committee", and so on. Consistent
with Drucker's observation, the team members' function as a group; specific
job descriptions are not advanced. Drucker's description applies, "there is

usually a team leader or team captain...but leadership at any one time places itself according to the logic of the work and the specific stage of its progress. There are no superiors and subordinates; there are only seniors and juniors."[18] In the case of the innovation implementing team, therefore, job descriptions for members beyond the team leader are invalid—the only valid requirement is that the team member's professional background and training be applied to the purposes of the team.

TASK OF ROLE COORDINATION

How, then, are teams and functional work groups coordinated so that the work they do is collectively supportive of the organization and not working at cross purposes within it? Coordination of effort inherently implies the enhancement of the different capacities of organizational components and of individuals working in the organization in ways that cause their collective efforts to generate a greater organizational effectiveness than would otherwise be developed. Coordination of roles is not an end in itself; it is a means to a better functioning, more productive organization.

Organizational theorists and analysts of practical organizational operations agree that coordination which stems from understanding of roles is better than that which is attempted by authoritative or bureaucratic structure. While a pure and complete separation of these two approaches is not usually the practical case, the principle suggested should be honored. To have effective role understanding, personnel need to know the goals of the total organization and the part that the individual's "home unit" (work group or team) plays in helping the larger organization succeed. In order for this to happen, positive steps need to be taken to develop group consensus

throughout the organization. These steps, in turn, require meaningful involvement of individuals in work group and team decisions. What is to be accomplished (that is, the expectations from the team's effort held by the larger organization), may be largely determined by forces and decisions made outside the team membership; how the team is to get its assigned mission done, however, is essentially for its members to determine. In short, clear delineation of the areas in which a team has organizational decision making responsibility, as opposed to a recommending role only, is very important. Presence of such delineation, along with clear-cut and accepted role understanding, assures facile and smooth coordination of the efforts of all component units and contributing individuals.

Relating Authority and Responsibility

A top-management community college executive leadership team carries an obviously different authority relationship than a team organized in the college to effect a particular task or innovation. Each makes a legitimate contribution to the college's success, and the institution functions best when these legitimate organizational services are recognized. A chancellor, key staff members in his office, and the executive directors of the individual campuses of a multi-unit community college district can be designed and designated as the top-management team of the district. Its authority as a leadership focus for the entire college, district-wide, however, is a different kind from the structural, executive function the individual team members may hold as line administrators heading up particular campuses or staff functions in the total organization. The team authority derives from an expectation of leadership action involving the total organization and

116

demands, in turn, a responsibility for all action by the team to be always in line with this global perspective of the total organization.

As indicated earlier, however, the authority and responsibility of a team designated to deal with a specific task (the design of a new program or an extended campus) or innovation (adoption of a modular calendar, non-punitive grading system, and so on) or special evaluation (program audit or development of an institutional self-study preparatory to institutional accreditation) derives its authority from the fact that it has been so designated. Within the team's mission, therefore, it has both authority and responsibility to act. It should be free to decide the means best used to accomplish its assignment. It should also be free to deploy the individual capacities of its members to get the needed work done. The deployment of duties or within-team responsibilities should be supported by the full weight the team's group authority in its mission area.

In this connection, it is important to note an aspect of team authority and responsibility often overlooked or deemphasized in community college management. It is that the team should have a voice in the budget development process of the institution. There should be ample opportunity provided to make sure the team's need for financial support is considered in a balanced fashion along with other budgetary requests advanced in the institution. Similarly, teams, to be fully effective, need to have a clear understanding of the fiscal resources provided to support their work and furthermore, must have the authority to administer the resources provided. Within the team, highest responsibility for these budgetary functions should rest with the team leader.

Conflict Resolution and Decision-Making

Despite all efforts toward consensus between and among component groups
and working professionals, organizational conflicts within the community
colleges arise as is the case in all complex social structures. How they
are resolved relates to the type of organizational structure used and the
management style followed by the college's administrators. For these reasons,
conflict resolution and decision making need to be considered jointly.
Institutions characterized by bureaucratic structures and modes of decision
making reflect greater use of administrative channels of authority, hierarchical
reviews, and ultimate higher echelon decisions on appeals of those holding
different views on particular issues. Community colleges managed through
consultative participatory, group involvement structures and procedures
show more intense and longer consideration of issues at lower levels of
institutional operations but also a stronger likelihood of the difference in
view being resolved at those levels.

The likelihood is strong that an expanded use of the management team
concept as a design principle for community colleges will generate some new
tensions within the organization. This is because the concept in most cases
is adopted with relatively little effort to communicate its validity and
usefulness. Bender and Richardson found that while presidents of
public community colleges differed in terms of their individual verbal
descriptions of their management style, their responses on a formal testing
instrument showed more similarity than differences in their actual adminis-
trative practices. As a group, they did vary significantly, however, from
the private junior college group in their views on management style,[19] showing
a stronger leaning to participatory concepts and procedures. Earlier, Upton

118

emphasized the need for community college administrators to pursue leadership training as a means of reducing role conflict in these institutions.[20] Until the team concept, as a design principle for community colleges, is studied more and communicated better among community college administrators, Upton's admonition will continue to be appropriate.

Regardless of the management style and mode of decision making used now, most community colleges will see adaptations generated by the spread of faculty collective bargaining as a means of internal conflict resolution. Only limited research exists now on the ways that faculty collective bargaining tend to affect management styles and decision making arrangements. The conclusion suggested by the studies thus far reported, however, that faculty voice in institutional governance will increase and be expressed through the representative agency established for collective bargaining.[21] The question such a conclusion poses in the context of this paper is: How will this affect the use of teams in community college management? The future may see both faculty membership and the role to be played on teams for management purposes controlled by provisions of faculty collective bargaining contracts.

TEAM MEMBER IDENTIFICATION, RECRUITMENT, SELECTION

Membership on teams is determined differently for different types of teams. The extent to which this is a studied practice or an operating consequence cannot be determined from empirical reports of community college management practices. Membership on teams for top-management of community colleges comes by virtue of the individuals' holding of key, high-level executive positions in the institution. Members of groups considered as the

119

key work group team members needed to lead the total work group in a functional area of community colleg? operations similarly come to the team by virtue of the position's held on the staff of the functional area. Although generally true, this last observation, however, may not always be true. On some occasions, a functional area leadership team may quite deliberately see fit to include individuals who have special capabilities needed by the team but who do not have an official status in the structure for administering the functional area. Team members who serve on special evaluations or on special problem-solving assignments, in contrast, rely very heavily on the choice cf persons for the capability they bring to the task of the team; in such cases little or no reliance is put on official positions held and, as Drucker says, the team is not structured hierarchically; "there are only seniors and juniors".

Because the individual team member's special capabilities are the chief determining factors for his being on the team, identification, recruitment, and selection of members focuses on personal attributes. The theoretical proposition in the process is to bring to the team only those persons whose individual motivations, aspirations, and needs make a "best fit" with the career opportunities, skill, and conceptual applications called for, and chances for personal fulfillment provided by the individual's working on the team. To establish the necessary conditions by which the fit will be judged, two types of clarifying statemer.cs are usually developed. Job descriptions specify the duties and functions expected of the team member by the organization and the team itself; job qualifications specify education and training, experience, and related personal attributes believed to be prerequisites to successful team member performance--again as seen by the organization and the team.

Against these statements of expectations, officials creating a team judge the individuals who may be invited or seek to be on it. Generally speaking, practice in community college personnel recruitment leaves the task of describing the other side of the expected fit (that is, the characteristics and qualifications of the potential team member) up to the individual team member applicants themselves. They do so by bringing forward professional vitae, letters of application, queries and statements on their behalf by colleagues, and so on. This over-development of one side of possible team member characteristics and qualifications, however, is often off-set by less obvious inquiries made usually by persons in the larger organization, as well as the team leader and his close associates. The process involves phone calls, subjective assessment of the potential team members' prior work, personal work styles, and so on. The team selects members who are believed to bring it the greatest strength--all things considered.

Several outcomes are hoped for by this process. The all-encompassing one, of course, is to build the strongest, most able, most creative, most productive team possible and, thereby, provide the best assurance that the team will serve the larger organization well. Within this enveloping intent, another outcome sought is a maximum level of professional and personal compatibility among the team members; inter-personal frictions and professional rival ies are counter to team effectiveness.

A third intent is related to the second but works in a different way; it is a maximum level of congruence in the personal aspiration that each team member holds for himself and the opportunities to fulfill these aspirations afforded by his participation on the team. Authorities in the field of personal motivation and organizational effectiveness are in general agreement

that, when all three of the outcomes to team building just described are found and achieved with balance between them, as well as with completeness in each one, a smoothly functioning and productive team is the result.

Team member retention depends on several things. One essential is the extent to which the member helps sustain a sharp focus on team effort and organizational reasons for having the team. He must demonstrate steady support of team work by his own specialized abilities. He needs to contribute positively to a condition of inter-member compatibility. Failure to provide strength to the team in these important respects attracts criticism, labels one as an ineffective team member, and invites, ultimately, removal from it.

TEAM STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Increasingly, community college leaders are noting the need to prepare staff members to work effectively as members of management teams. Evidence of this rising awareness is seen on several fronts. There is, for example, the spate of leadership training programs supported by community colleges taking place on their campuses. These programs include the institutes run by the American Management Association mentioned earlier in this chapter and a wide variety of others directed by individuals or small groups of special- ists in intrainstitutional management. Another indication is the substantial institutional support provided community college management teams to enable their attendance and participation in training programs conducted away from the home institution. Still another is the attention to improved management practices coming from new thrusts among community colleges. Examples of this are the League for Innovation and the Presidents Academy of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges.

122

Whatever the vehicle for accomplishing team development, the content which the program must cover entails four essential components: (1) introduction to team participation; (2) enhancement of team member effectiveness in participation; (3) appreciation of demands and rewards from team membership; and, (4) evaluation of team productivity.

The key to the successful introduction of members into team participation is their individual acceptance that the role is to serve the team and, through it, the larger organization. Team play signifies putting team purposes ahead of individual ends or, more positively, in the light of research and personnel motivation, team play is strongest when the individual sees his own fulfillment emerging from the team's ability to succeed. Sound induction processes, therefore, dwell on the mutual dependence of the team on members and members on the team.

Enhancement of team member effectiveness in serving the team is promoted in two ways. One is to communicate clearly to all members the importance of the particular role played by each member's specialty, thus building appreciation for inter-member dependence. Another is to provide organizational team support (material as well as psychological) to improving the member's specialty itself, particularly as the specialty can apply to team purposes. Recognition of this need by a growing number of community colleges may well explain the sizable enrollment of community college personnel in management institutes on and off their campuses.

Team membership carries always both positive and negative aspects which every member should understand. On the positive side are such things as a heightened recognition in the organization, the chance to concentrate on a specific organizational function, or new development, and the opportunity to

123

work with a small group of colleagues. On the negative side is a loss of individual identity with organizational results (anonymity) and intense demands on time and energy.

Evaluation of team effectiveness happens both within and outside of the team itself. Assessment of results characteristically requires an examination of the achievements of the team against the broad institutional goals and the assignment, pertinent to these goals, given to the team. But, in recent years, more than a gross check of this relationship is being required. Evaluation is centering on cost-benefits and cost-effectiveness. Team staff development, therefore, needs to be directed toward an understanding of these more refined evaluative techniques and why they are likely to be used in judging team performances.

EVALUATION OF TEAM PRODUCTIVITY

All teams used in organizations where the team concept is an organizing principle cannot be evaluated alike. A top leadership team has to be appraised in a manner different from that used to judge a team established to formulate and implement an innovation or to evaluate a program element or the institution at large. True, each type of team must be evaluated against the things it is supposed to do for the organization, but the way these purposes are defined and their amenability to definition as criteria for team assessment force different evaluative approaches in each case. A top-management team will be judged by the nature of the total organization that their leadership creates and by the effectiveness of that total organization in moving towards its goals. A team, to direct an innovation or evaluate a college or a program element within the college, will be judged by the end-result of

124

130

adoption or rejection of the innovation or by the impact that the reported evaluation of the college or program element has.

Two ingredients for a complete and effective evaluation process are essential. The first is an objectively, thoroughly developed procedure for review of team productivity, and a second is the development of a set of agreed-upon normative standards to be applied during the review process. In considering the development of normative standards, two alternative approaches are useful and will be developed in the discussion that follows.

Systematic Review Procedures

Evaluation is best achieved when the basis on which the teams are to be evaluated are known in advance of the team formulation and assignment. Awareness of what is expected of the team is helpful to the total organization to be served by it, to the team as a group, and to individual members. Both team member recruitment and selection are facilitated, and group morale is enhanced as well. Accordingly, the expectations sought from the team's work are best stated clearly and early and made known throughout the organization. This applies to all kinds of the teams mentioned in this chapter.

The focal point for determining expectations of team performance is, of course, the goal of the institution and the part to be played by the team specifically to move the organization toward its goals. Again, the team is a totality, and each individual member must see clearly the intended accountability measures that will be imposed within the institution.

Concentration of team purpose within the total organization places the evaluative emphasis where it belongs--on the team itself--with the further positive effect of minimizing the sense of threat to individual team members

125

which otherwise may be developed if a more atomistic evaluation were to be employed. This is not to say that individual member role performance is not to be evaluated; it is. But the first point to be established is the effectiveness of the team as a group; determination of weak and strong players within the context of the overall team strength then acquires more meaning. There is little sense in acquiring a new member of the top-management team responsible for a community college's public interpretation when the institution's top-management team is ineffective in developing faculty morale; to do so would be like acquiring an excellent-hitting second baseman when a baseball team has an overall fielding average of .800 and six errors a game.

Systematic review procedures imply not only clear understanding of the timing of evaluative measures (monthly, quarterly, annually) but also coverage of all aspects of team operations. Thus, the evaluation will include periodic review of job descriptions (from team leaders throughout the membership), decision making and team operations, discharge of member authority and responsibility, and techniques necessary to ascertain cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness of team productivity.

Development of Normative Standards

Normative standards against which teams are evaluated in community colleges, as in all organizations, vary for different types of teams. For top-management, innovation implementing, and special evaluation teams, the normative standards for team members are actually breakdowns in detail from the general view of a team as a group of individuals with a "bundle of roles". Each of such teams is expected to perform well, with well-being defined as

better, or at least as good as, similar teams in other community colleges of like type.

A key work group member team, however, and its members, can be evaluated quite effectively within a particular community college itself. Thus, the student personnel services team can be judged by the standards of performance set by the top-management team by designating objectives agreed to within the community college itself. Indeed, management by objectives (MBO) techniques for internal processing of performance standards are quite appropriate for developing this kind of team evaluation. Lahti describes well the considerations essential in this process and their application to job descriptions, authority and responsibility relationships, and professional staff development.[22]

Another approach to development of normative standards for teams and team member evaluations would place more emphasis on the importance of some newer concepts of productivity, particularly of organizations involved in social services as opposed to production, like education as opposed to an industry. These newer concepts argue that personal development of participants in the enterprise merit consideration as outcome, along with the level of effectiveness of the services provided the society outside of the enterprise. In such a view, the enhancement of a professional skill and understanding possessed by each member of a community college management team is an outcome along with the services provided by the team to the colleges and through it to the larger society.

The authors see this proposition really as a further extension of the satisfaction/deprivation theory of human motivation alluded to in several places earlier in the chapter. The problem confronted, when an attempt is

127

made to translate the proposition to practice, is that of finding valid

comparative data on which to judge the experience and professional growth of

individuals performing as members of different types of community college

management teams. Until more systematic and penetrating studies using

management science are made of community colleges, it appears that only

scattered and institutionally idiosyncratic solutions to the problem will be

made.

CONCLUSION: NEEDED ADDITIONAL INQUIRY AND EVALUATION

The authors identified, in this chapter, four types of teams believed to

be used constructively for community college management: (1) top-management;

(2) innovation implementing; (3) key work group member; and, (4) special

evaluation. Their development and use in community colleges is quite clearly

rooted in the expectations of the colleges where it can be observed that the

institution is more effective as a result. As organizations, the colleges

that use management teams are more aware of their institutional goals and

purposes; they are more unified and coherent in carrying on necessary operating

functions; they are flexible and experimental in accommodating new conditions;

and they have a stronger confidence from knowing how well they are doing. The

organizational dynamics within them, therefore, which create operating tension

may be described as healthy, "creative tension" rather than unhealthy internal

conflict.

But the authors sense also several inadequacies in the state of the art

of community college management with respect to the team development concept.

One is the limited identification given to the concept in the literature,

particularly that stemming from analytical applications of study techniques

used in management science. Another related sense of shortcoming is the equally limited study of community colleges as social organizations with special attention to their internal structure and the drive of personnel and sub-units within them, as well as of those involved in external relations.

This chapter and this monograph close, therefore, with a call for more extensive reporting of the use of the team principle in the design for management of community colleges and for more critical analysis of the way it is used and an evaluation of its worth to the colleges involved. Such research should consider all possible questions: impact on morale of personnel; task-effectiveness in reaching college objectives; uniqueness of the teams to community colleges and their special educational philosophy; and so on. To be fully effective, community college management teams need to move from action based on ad hoc wisdom and leadership intuition to action based on a foundation of research and hard evaluation. The question is not whether community colleges will continue to use the team development concept in their management, but rather it is how rapidly improved understanding of the nature and use of these teams to advance the effectiveness of community colleges can be brought out.

NOTES

[1]Talcott Parsons, The Social System. .Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1960.

[2]A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1954.

[3]Peter F. Drucker. Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices. New York: Harper and Row, 1973, p. 566.

[4]Ibid., p. 569-70.

[5]Ibid., p. 571.

[6]Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management. New York: McGraw Hill, 1961 and The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw Hill, 1967.

[7]Peter F. Drucker, op.cit., p. 563.

[8]B. Lamar Johnson, Islands of Innovation Expanding. Beverley Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1969.

[9]S. V. Martorana and Eileen Kuhns, Managing Academic Change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975.

[10]John Dale Russell and Floyd E. Reeves, Evaluation of Higher Education. Chicago, Illinois: North Central Accrediting Association, 1936.

[11]Robert E. Lahti, Innovative College Management. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973, p. xi.

[12]Louis W. Bender and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Management Concepts and Higher Education Administration. Tallahassee, Florida, Center for State and Regional Leadership, Florida State University/University of Florida, May, 1972.

[13]William D. Guth, "Behavior and Decision Making in Complex Organizations," in The Management of Change. Michael Brick and Andrew A. Bushko (eds.) New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1973, pp. 6-19.

[14]Robert E. Lahti, Innovative College Management. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973, p. 61.

[15]Ibid., p. 154.

[16]op cit, page 34-35.

130

[17]S. V. Martorana and Eileen Kuhns, _Managing Academic Change_. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975, and _The Newsletter, League for Innovation_. Los Angeles, California.

[18]Drucker, op.cit., p. 564.

[19]Bender and Richardson, op.cit., p. 34-35.

[20]John H. Upton, "Role Conflict and Faculty Confidence in Leadership," _Junior College Journal_, Vol. 41, February, 1971, p. 31.

[21]Kenneth P. Mortimer and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., _Governance in Institutions with Faculty Unions: Six Case Studies_. The Pennsylvania State University/Center for the Study of Higher Education, University Park, Pennyslvania, May 1977, pp. 175-6.

[22]Lahti, op.cit., p. 85-90.

KICHIRO KARL IWAMOTO

Dr. Kichiro Karl Iwamoto completed his under-
graduate and early graduate studies at Hunter College
and the City College of New York. He has a Ph.D. in
Sociology from Purdue University. At present, Dr.
Iwamoto is on the faculty of the University of Santa
Clara, where he teaches graduate courses in the MBA
Program and undergraduate courses in Sociology. Dr.
Iwamoto was a Senior Fulbright Lecturer at Sri
Venkateswara University in Southern India from
1971 - 72.

His professional areas of interest are the study of
leadership, models of motivation, and the examination
of meaning of the work value in Western industrial
societies. His other major interest has been social
science curriculum development for secondary education, with a general interest to apply
modern industrial motivational principles to the educational setting.

He has been a faculty member in the United States Chamber o Commerce's Manage-
ment Institute since the Summer of 1966, and has been a lecturer for the Center for
Leadership Development at Santa Clara University for the same time period.

He is presently working with a Theatre Arts professor examining the changing role
and power relationships between a play director and cast during the rehearsal of a pro-
duction.

Dr. Iwamoto will spend Winter and Spring of 1978 on sabbatical leave at the Uni-
versity of Kansas studying emerging power positions within different sized small groups.

ABSTRACT OF CHAPTER

This paper examines the general characteristics of interpersonal conflict behavior and
the consequences of various conflict strategies, drawing upon examples from the academic
community.

Two types of conflict, competitive and disruptive, are identified and are briefly dis-
cussed concerning the positive and negative consequences of each. The major emphasis of
the paper examines the fundamentals of the interpersonal conflict process and how con-
flicts may be prevented or effectively dealt with once they begin. The five basic steps of
the conflict process are identified: preconditions to conflict; definition of the conflict
situation; the conflict behavior; the resolution of the conflict; and, the consequences of
conflict. There are a variety of styles of behavior a person might adopt in a conflict situation.
Three passive styles of "lose-leav'er", "indifferent-vacillator", and "friendly helper", tend
to end up as the losers in conflict, i.e., not accomplishing their personal goals. The
"compromiser" has moderate success, but tends to sacrifice some personal goals to achieve
others. There are two aggressive styles, "tough battler" and benevolent battler", who win
at the expense of the other party's personal goals. The final style is the "problem solver"
who desires that both parties in conflict achieve their personal goals. This behavior style
desires mutual goal attainment and also maintenance of the interpersonal relationship.

The patterns of conflict resolution are "lose-lose", where both combatants fall short
of achieving their personal goals; "win-lose", where one individual achieves his personal
goals but blocks the other person's goal achievement; and "win-win", where both persons
achieve personal goals and also maintain an effective personal and/or working relationship.
This paper argues for adopting a "problem-solver's" style and striving for "win-win"
r solutions.

138

Chapter VI

MANAGING INTERPERSONAL CONFLICTS

IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

Kichiro K. Iwamoto

This chapter will first examine the general characteristics of
interpersonal conflict behavior that may occur in a community college and
then analyze the consequences of particular conflict-control strategies
frequently used in academic situations. Often, administrators only focus
on, or are concerned with, the immediate consequences or results of
conflicts with colleagues or students. Consequently, they tend to adopt
strategies, which may produce immediate favorable or desirable results.
However, in looking for such quick solutions to present crises, they may
create even greater conflict problem: in the future. Therefore, before
an administrator selects an appropriate strategy to handle a conflict situa-
tion involving another colleague, he or she should consider whether or not
it is necessary to work with the other person in the future. This distinc-
tion applies when dealing with graduating students and with tenured faculty
members.

Although community college administrators must consider a number of
factors in academic decision making, such as the potential policy-making
implications of the results of a conflict situation, this chapter will focus
upon the general behavioral patterns and strategies of interpersonal conflict
situations basic to all human interaction.

133

TYPES OF CONFLICTS

Conflicts have been identified as either competitive or disruptive (Filley, 1975). In a competitive conflict, only one of the competitors can succeed or win: both try to achieve a mutually incompatible or exclusive goal. For example, two faculty members may vie for the position of department head, or an administrator may try to maintain a department budget while the chairperson argues for an additional faculty position. The goal of each, in this type of conflict situation, is to "win" at the expense or loss of the other. Therefore, the behavior of each is intended to be rationally oriented toward personal successful results. These types of conflicts are resolved only when the result or outcome becomes obvious to both sides.

For example, in athletic competition, when a coach or manager recognizes an insurmountable lead by one of the opponents, he or she will often abandon the "win" goal and adopt one of providing experience for younger or more inexperienced players. Thus, the coach will take out the better players to allow the less talented or inexperienced to participate. It then becomes a ritual to wait for the formal end of the contest. At times, it can even be observed that those officiating will overlook minor infractions to speed the completion of the game because they, too, consider the winner of the competition to already have been decided.

A disruptive conflict, on the other hand, occurs when one party is primarily concerned with inflicting loss, defeat, or harm on the other. In this extreme case, there is no concern about personal goals of success or winning; all energies are intended to maximize the other party's losses. Therefore, behavior tends to be nonrational, with a point of view which

134

constantly appears to change so as to sustain the conflict. An example of a disruptive conflict can be seen in the brutal relationship between Martha and George in Albee's play, Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf. Martha goes to great lengths to continually point out George's failures and lack of ambition by indicating how long he has been an associate professor and how difficult it is to live on his salary. He, in turn, fights back and hurts her by referring to a son they might have had.

Filley (3, 1973) suggests that most conflicts are distributed along a continuum somewhere between the two extremes of competition and disruption. One may not only desire to win or succeed as a primary objective in a conflict situation but may also wish to increase the cost or loss of the other party as a secondary objective.

There are also multi-goal competitive conflict situations whereby one wants to win as well as reduce or minimize the cost or loss of the other party. An example of this occurs when one wants to obtain an administrative position and also hopes to establish a good working relationship with the other leading candidate for the desired position.

Moore (128, 1962) suggests that an "opportunity for conflict" occurs in organizations when there is uncertainty over objectives, procedures, and/ or responsibilities. This situation can be prevalent in the academic setting because the professional dimensions of academic autonomy, with its implications of academic freedom, can contribute to a lack of communication and coordination within the community college. There tend to be three basic organizational levels within the community college: faculty, division chairmen/directors, and upper level administrators, such as the president and vice-president. Although a statement of purpose or goals can be found

135

in most college catalogues, it is unusual to find such statements carefully and systematically defined down through the organization. In practice, these statements are usually expressed throughout the organization in very general terms, i.e., "offering a high-quality educational experience for the students." It is understandable, then, that evaluative criteria such as "publish or perish" may be established at some universities or colleges without considering how they directly affect the quality of education and other formally stated goals.

Since competitive conflict could be a tension-releasing mechanism that might prevent a more serious disruptive conflict from developing, it may benefit a group or department. Furthermore, if administrators try to smooth over all forms of tension or conflict between individuals or groups, they may stifle healthy forms of questioning or challenging. In short, if faculty are not allowed to express disagreement towards proposed ideas, solutions, or programs, an important source of creativity and new ideas or solutions will be suppressed. Thus, a benefit from conflict is the development of new ideas, a benefit which is more likely in a modified competitive conflict.

Modification takes place when both competitors view the group's goal of finding the best solution to be more important than their personal goal of having their own suggestion adopted. Each is willing to withdraw his or her proposal if convinced of the superiority of the other's proposal. Such withdrawal from competitive conflict is simply due to a recognition that an opponent's proposal is for the common good and not solely due to a belief that his personal ideas will be rejected by the group. This type of competition should actually be encouraged within departments or committees in any school, since people are working together rather than against each other toward the solution of a shared objective.

136

If several groups are in competitive conflict, a possible benefit might be the increase of cohesion and performance within each group during the conflict (Sherif, 1956). On the other hand, the relationship and feeling between the groups may, at the same time, become hostile and even lead to disruptive conflict. In this situation, Sherif (1956) found that conflicting groups will often begin to work together again to develop a harmonious relationship when all groups recognize they cannot solve a common important problem without the help, support, and cooperation of the other groups.
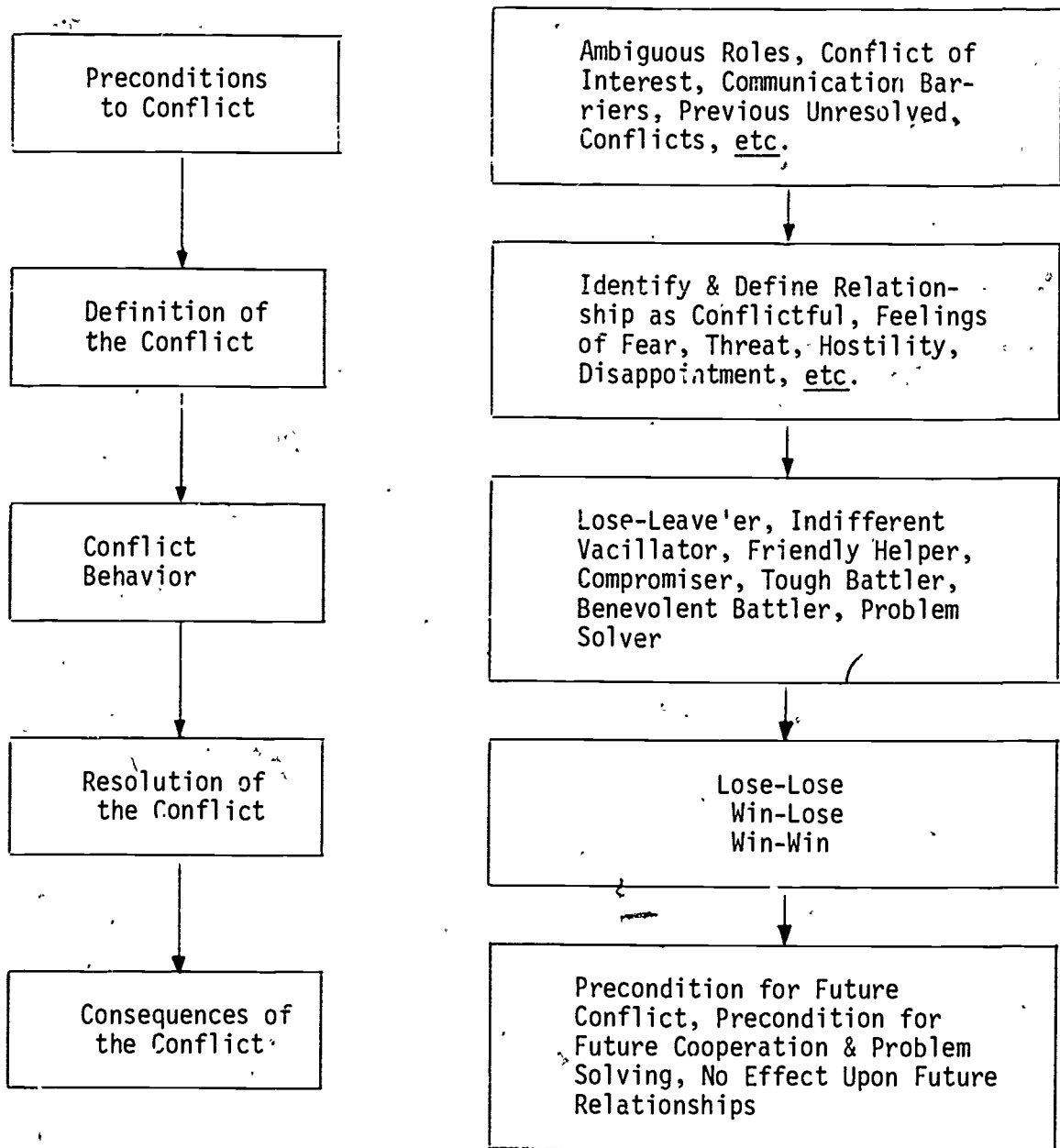
Thus, without a mutually accepted objective, competitive conflicts can develop negative friction within a department or committee and can lead to disruptive conflict. Disruptive conflict has no useful benefit for an individual or a group because, in such conflict, instead of contributing to the college goals, one is intent on hurting or hindering another colleague or co-worker. In return, the recipient of this aggression may develop resentment and even desire appropriate revenge. In short, disruptive conflict can only waste human energies and resources, as well as build barriers and obstacles for future working relationships.

THE PROCESS OF CONFLICT

Let us examine the fundamentals of the conflict process which are important if we are to understand how conflicts may be prevented or effectively dealt with once they begin. Since several social scientists (Pondy, 1967; Filley, 1975) have developed a multi step model to explain this process, we shall draw upon this research. The process has been described in five steps: preconditions to conflict; definition of the conflict situation; the conflict behavior; the resolution of the conflict; and the consequences of the conflict (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

MODEL OF STAGES & CHARACTERISTICS OF CONFLICT

Preconditions to Conflict	Ambiguous Roles, Conflict of Interest, Communication Barriers, Previous Unresolved, Conflicts, etc.
Definition of the Conflict	Identify & Define Relationship as Conflictful, Feelings of Fear, Threat, Hostility, Disappointment, etc.
Conflict Behavior	Lose-Leave'er, Indifferent Vacillator, Friendly Helper, Compromiser, Tough Battler, Benevolent Battler, Problem Solver
Resolution of the Conflict	Lose-Lose Win-Lose Win-Win
Consequences of the Conflict	Precondition for Future Conflict, Precondition for Future Cooperation & Problem Solving, No Effect Upon Future Relationships

Stages of Conflict   Characteristics of Conflict Stages

138

1. Preconditions to Conflict. The first stage of conflict is
   a set of preconditions which is often the prerequisite for
   conflict. For example, Filley (1975) points out that ambiguous
   roles or rules, conflict of interest, communication barriers,
   size and complexity of the organization, and unresolved
   prior conflicts can cause conflict. If the boundary lines
   between responsibilities, authority, obligations, or rewards
   are not clearly defined or understood by all parties, then an
   ambiguous role or role-relationship exists, and conflict
   behavior can develop over these ambiguities. The creation
   of a new administrative position or committee often goes
   through this amorphous stage. Recently, at one college,
   the title "Assistant to the President" was introduced with
   only a vague statement of required duties. When this
   "Assistant to the President" terminated a popular adminis-
   trator, a certain amount of resentment developed among the
   staff and faculty partially because it was not known by
   many that, in actuality, the terminated administrator's
   office was part of the "Assistant's" personnel
   responsibilities.

   Conflict of interest is present when persons seek
   mutually exclusive or competing goals. Any parent
   understands this concept when listening to two children
   argue over which television program to watch. Chairmen
   of different divisions within the college often find
   themselves in this situation when budget requests are

139

presented; each argues for a certain proportion of a fixed,
limited commodity.

The potential for conflict becomes greater when there are
communication barriers. The lack of two-way communication
often results in misinformation or misunderstanding, as
well as greatly reducing the opportunity to confirm the
accuracy of information. In larger colleges, the chance
for preconditions for conflict to develop are simply greater.
For example, schools with a large number of departments
or divisions may have communication problems, conflicts of
interest between departments, or poor working relations due
to prior conflict experiences. Furthermore, when there have
been unresolved prior conflicts, one tends to enter future
relationships with hesitation and distrust which can influence
a person to perceive the new relationship within a conflict
framework.

The above-mentioned factors are some of the common
preconditions to conflict. Consequently, it is important
for us to recognize them when they are present in our
professional communities and to be conscious of their potential
consequences.

2. Definition of Conflict Situation. It is quite possible that
conflicting persons might not be aware of these preconditions
(Pondy, 1967); but the presence of these, or of other similar
conditions, can influence a person to perceive and define a
relationship or interaction as one of conflict. Furthermore,

140

146

it is not absolutely essential that any of these conditions
be present for people to anticipate an ensuing conflict. It is
the psychological processes of perceiving and defining a social
situation that initiate a conflict situation. If one does
not believe a comment to be insulting, or unjust, there will
be no conflict, unless one is informed of the nature of the
comment at a later date. If one is not interested in, or
greatly bothered by, a campus newspaper editorial, then it is
also unlikely that it will be perceived as a threat or serious
attack, and one will not engage in some form of conflict
reaction. A simple method to avoid conflict is to devalue,
discredit, ignore, or overlook a comment by a potentially
conflicting party.

It is the interaction between the feelings and the per-
ception of a situation that causes it to be a conflict. What
is seen and heard shapes emotional responses toward a situation,
and feelings shape perception. For example, an administrator
is approached by a faculty member with a proposal which
requires additional budget considerations, but as the
professor explains the proposal, he erroneously draws from
the facial expressions and other non-verbal gestures of the
administrator that he is not supportive of the plan. However,
the administrator has, in fact, not made up his mind yet,
and probably might not even fully understand the request.
While the faculty member is talking, he is also feeling the
emotions of disappointment and mild anger as a result of his

141

147

.perception. To clarify some points, the administrator may ask

one or two questions, but the faculty member, based upon his

negative feelings, perceives his questions as attempts to

discredit his proposal. The professor then, to the

bewilderment of the administrator, responds with sarcastic or

defensive responses to these information-seeking questions.

If the administrator perceives the remarks as attacking

or insulting, conflict behavior will then begin.

3. Conflict Behavior. Conflict behavior has been defined as

consciously, but not necessarily deliberately, frustrating

a person's pursuit of a goal (Pondy, 1967; Filley, 1975). It

must be intentional, not chance or accidental. It may not

be deliberate, though, for in the pursuit to achieve an objective,

it may be an unavoidable consequence to block or to frustrate

another's goal attainment. Pondy (1967: 304) nicely explains

this characteristic of behavioral conflict as follows:

"Suppose A unknowingly blocks B's goals. This is not

conflictful behavior; but suppose B informs A that he perceives

A's behavior to be conflictful, if then A acknowledges the

message and persists in the behavior, it is an instance of

manifest conflict". This points out an important characteristic

of conflict behavior: it must be mutually recognized.

Filley (49-52, 1975) presents an interesting typology

of styles of conflict behavior which has been developed from

Jay Hall's (1969) model of conflict management styles. The

two key dimensions for this model are the degree of concern

142

for one's personal goals and the degree of concern for the relationship with another. This means that as someone enters a conflict situation, he or she assesses how important the perceived blocked goals are and also how important the relationship with the conflicting person is. Then, based upon these two judgments, a conflict behavioral style is adopted. A person can be low, moderately, or highly concerned for each of these dimensions (see Table 1). In conflicts, a major consideration in the choice of behavior style tends to be the anticipated or desired outcome which can be thought of in the simplistic terms of "winning" or "losing" the battle.

a. Typology of Conflict Behavior

1) "Lose-and-Leave" Style. The person choosing this style has no real commitment toward personal goals or the social relationship. When faced with the slightest suggestion or perception of conflict is to remove himself both mentally and physically from that situation. The "lose-and'leave'er's" rationale is that the best strategy is impersonal tolerance and avoidance when confronted with conflict. This is similar to Presthus' (1962) indifferent personality type who is described as viewing conflicts as unproductive systems of frustration, and whose major concern is the security and prestige rewards from work, leaving the pursuit of personal goals of success and power to others..

143

Table 1

TYPOLOGY OF CONFLICT BEHAVIOR

Style	Concern for Personal Goals	Concern for Relationship	Anticipated or Desired Personal Outcome	View of Conflict
Lose-Leave'er	Low	Low	To avoid conflict at all cost	Abhorrant
Indifferent-Vacillator*	Low	Moderate	To stay out of conflict without making anyone angry	Avoidable
Friendly Helper		High	To give support and smooth over potential conflicts & maintain relationship	Avoidable
Compromiser	Moderate	Moderate	To try to gain some portion of personal goals and also maintain some degree of relationship without conflict	Unnecessary
Tough Battler	High	Low	To win at any cost	Nuisance
Benevolent Battler*	High	Moderate	To win first and then repair or reestablish relationship	Necessary Evil
Problem Solver	High	High	To achieve mutual goal attainment and maintain an effective relationship	Positive Contribution

_____

* These styles developed by this writer.

144

150

51

This person believes that one should try to remain anonymous and never "rock the boat" with innovation or new ideas. The "over-the-hill" tenured faculty member who is mainly concerned with achieving retirement and only wishes to be left alone to teach the same classes each term is an extreme, but unfortunately, prevalent example of someone who chooses this style. Since the "lose-and-leave'or" has no important personal goals he is willing to   ue seriously, losing almost by default will be his expected outcome in conflict situations. The person adopting this style will be a non-contributor to the growth and development of a department or division.

2) Indifferent-Vacillator Style

The selection of this style suggests a lack of important personal goals, although this person does have a moderate concern for the existing relationship; but because it is only a moderate concern this person may vacillate between agreement to avoid conflict and withdrawal from the entire situation. This makes it impossible to depend upon the Indifferent-Vacillator for support in any group decision making situation. An example of the type of comment this person would make is: "Well, I really did not mean to suggest that I agree with that idea". On a committee, this person's indecision can consume additional meeting time because

of the need to continually check the current position.
Even if he is not greatly vacillating on many issues,
he probably can be easily convinced to change his
opinion or support a different proposal if he feels
the change will support the relationship about which
he is moderately concerned.

3) The Friendly Helper

The person who adopts this style places great
importance upon maintaining existing relationships and
also does not highly value any personal goals. There-
fore, he is willing to support almost any position.
The rationale for his style is that he believes only
cooperative behavior can be productive and that there
is no positive value in conflict. Thus, maintaining
mutual interests and harmonious relationships are key
objectives of this style. This person can form a
strong and powerful coalition with the "Tough Battler".
Though the "Friendly Helper" does not directly succeed
(win) in achieving any personal goals, it is possible
that he may gain some vicarious success in strongly
supporting and coalescing with a victorious "Tough
Battler".

4) The Compromiser Style

This is the style c. negotiator who is willing to
trade or sacrifice the achievement of some of his
personal objectives for a corresponding concession by

146

the other party. This person prefers majority rule,
assuming that it is impossible for everyone to be
simultaneously satisfied, and recognizes the importance
of allowing everyone to express his individual opinions
as long as he does not stubbornly hold to his convictions.

5) The Tough Battler Style

"Winning at any cost" seems to be the principal
value for this style. Consequently, working relation-
ships are irrelevant unless they might directly aid in
the achievement of a personal goal. In an extreme
case, the "Tough Battler" may wish to win in a conflict
situation for the sake of winning as a demonstration of
personal power. For this person, conflicts arise when
others do not understand the merits of his ideas. His
individual objectives are his primary concern, and only
when department or college objectives coincide with his
does he see any merit in them.

As previously suggested, an advantage of a conflict-
producing colleague is the check-and-balance effect his
questioning and challenging produces. Unfortunately,
however, this person may lose sight of goal achievement
and choose to change from competitive to disruptive
conflict. For example, if "Tough Battler" recognizes
that other members are going to support his opponent's
viewpoint, the "Battler" may change his goal to
preventing any decision from being made by attacking

147

certain individuals or ideas. Though he does not get
his personal proposal accepted, he does cause the
opposition to lose, too, by preventing anything from
being accomplished. Therefore, the "Tough Battler" is
a personally successful colleague because winning
produces its own rewards.

6) The Benevolent Battler Style

This style is similar to the "Tough Battler" in
that winning is the primary objective, but it. .fers
in that this individual is also concerned about
"patching things up" after the battle is over. There-
fore, after winning, the "Benevolent Battler" attempts
to smooth over the hostile feelings by dealing with
the loser's frustration, anger, and tension (Bales,
1950, refers to this as the social-emotional leadership
role). This person will often withhold information or
only provide limited feedback because he believes that.
he is protecting his colleagues from being hurt or
upset (and, of course, increasing the probability of
his "winning"). An administrator who supports and
defends all the college goals without question may be
likely to adopt this strategy. The benevolent auto-
cratic leadership style is very compatible with this
conflict behavior. The benevolent autocrat is basically
a very "decent" person who gives genuine support to
those subordinates who internalize the organization's

148

goals, and feels morally responsible for the subordinates
(Brown, 1950). He wants them to be successful as long
as success criteria are defined by either himself or
the organization.

7) The Problem-Solver Style

The person who adopts this style consciously
attempts to achieve everyone's goals within the conflict
situation, not just his own. He believes that mutual
goal achievement is possible and views conflicts as
positive contributions to the group because they create
solutions. He recognizes the legitimacy of expressed
feelings within the group and believes that one does
not have to ignore or "sacrifice" one or two members
for the good of the group (Filley,52, 1976).

This may sound like an overly idealistic model
which, for all practical purposes, cannot be achieved.
The first thing one should do as a "Problem-Solver" is
to redefine all problems as solvable challenges.
Another essential characteristic of a "Problem-Solver"
is avoiding the defining of interpersonal relationships
as threatening or conflicting, but rather trying to
identify the specific factors, such as communication
barriers, misinformation, etc., which are affecting the
relationship and attempting to correct them. For
example, A, a "Tough Battler", states that B's (a
"Problem Solver) idea is really dumb. B, rather than

149

becoming defensive and launching a counterattack,
accepts the possibility that there may be flaws in his
plan; therefore, he (B) will try to understand what A
sees to be wrong. B will inevitably respond to A's
initial remark with an information-seeking question,
such as, "What is specifically wrong with, or dumb
about, my proposal?" If A is not able to express
clearly his criticism, then B might ask whoever else
is present if they can help explain it.

The original comment of A has stimulated a group
or mutual inquiry into the merits of B's plan rather
than a competitive or di. uptive conflict.

Ultimately, A must change his personal objective
from the adoption of his plan to the adoption of the
best plan for the group, thus changing from "Tough
Battler" to "Problem-Solver" , and it is B's behavior
that acts as a model for A and also that makes the
change most attainable. The "Problem-Solver" uses
consensus, not majority rule, as the mechanism for
decision making, compromise, or force. There can be no
losers if a unanimous agreement is reached.

Thus, clearly stating and agreeing upon the goals
or objectives significantly reduces the chance for
disruptive conflict. If all are mutually working
towards a solution, it is less likely that one will try
to sabotage another's contributions. Of the seven

150

behavior styles mentioned above, it is the "Problem-
Solver" approach that best avoids or reduces potential
conflict situations to the benefit of the school,
department, and all personnel.

The reader should recognize that these styles are extreme or pure type
descriptions and that actual human behavior may only approximate the
characteristics of each type. It is not unusual for someone to choose
different styles for different relationships. A faculty member may be a
"Benevolent Battler" with students when discussing course grades, a "Compro-
miser" within the department, and a "Friendly Helper" when working with
administrators.

It is also possible for a person to change styles during a particular
relationship. One may begin a discussion as an "Indifferent Vacillator"
and become annoyed at some comment and change to a "Tough Battler" by
suddenly deciding not to support the other person's plan but instead pro-
posing his own.

A final point that one might consider is the combining of certain
styles in a sequence which might model someone's predominant conflict style
during a professional career. One might enter the academic setting as an
ambitious "Tough Battler", then years later enter administration as a
"Benevolent Battler" or "Problem-Solver," then after years of service, step
down and return to teaching as a "Compromiser," and then end one's career as
a "Lose-Leave'er." This is not intended to suggest a prevalent or desirable
career pattern but only one way to view these styles.

The final section of this chapter will discuss ways to adopt a "Problem-
Solver's" style and how to deal with the other styles. However, before

151

moving to this point, it might be helpful for the reader to review Table 1 and to ask himself two questions. "Where do I fit, and where do others see me fitting?"

4. <u>Resolution of Conflict.</u> As stated earlier, conflicts end when the outcome is recognized by both parties. To understand the final results, it must be determined to <u>what</u> extent each of the antagonistic parties has achieved personally defined objectives. There are three basic results of conflict: both parties fail to accomplish their objective to any significant degree (lose-lose); one accomplishes personal objectives while the other does not (win-lose); or both achieve their desired ends (win-win).

    a. "Lose-Lose." Both parties fall short of their desired goals in this conflict-resolution pattern. There are several reasons why this may occur (Filley, 23-24, 1975). For example, both parties may be willing to accept partial goal attainment to avoid potential conflict. The "Lose-Leave'er", "Indifferent Vacillator", "Friendly-Helper", and "Compromiser" conflict styles have this characteristic to some degree, and any combination of the above pairs can be expected to produce this result. Another way for this to occur is with the addition of a third person as moderator. The usual consequence of the addition of a neutral third person is either a compromise ("lose-lose" result) or a decision in favor of one of the two parties ("win-lose" result), but rarely for both parties ("win-win" result).

152

Another pattern of the "lose-lose" result is the stalemate. Two "Tough Battlers" may refuse to yield to each other; and, therefore, no decision is made because both are unable to achieve personal objectives. In some situations, a stalemated party may accept a third person as moderator, and the results then can be either "lose-lose" or "win-lose." The moderator in a successfully resolved situation tends to gain some of the recognition and rewards that originally would have gone to the winner or winners of the combat. Yet, if things are not resolved, it is the "Battlers" who are considered to be responsible. It is usually the marriage counselor, and not the two spouses, who is credited with "saving the marriage"; yet, if the marriage is dissolved, no one says that the counselor "did a lousy job".

b. "Win-Lose". This is a prevalent pattern of one winner at the expense of the other. One pattern is that one capitulates and deliberately allows the other to win. Sometimes there may be briber or informal agreement involving promises for future support and cooperation. The "Lose-Leave'er", "Indifferent Vacillator", "Friendly Helper", and "Compromiser" tend to lose to the "Tough Battlers" or "Benevolent Battlers".

Another instance of this result is seen when someone enforces the formal authority of his position to resolve

153

a conflict. The other person loses, not because of the
merits of an idea, but because of being outranked.
This can produce a negative consequence of the win-lose
result: an angry loser who will be more difficult to
work with in the future. One can speak of creating a
powerful loser who will develop a grudge, desire revenge,
and prefer not to cooperate in the future. This may
occur when a faculty member requests a particular
teaching schedule for the next term, but the department
chairperson states that scheduli g is his responsibility,
and it is not possible to please everyone. So the
request is rejected. If, in the near future, the depart-
ment chairperson should ask that faculty member for an
opinion or help, one could expect the reply of: "I
don't know; it's not my responsibility."

Another win-lose situation is the democratic
procedure of majority rule. Having a department voting
on issues, unless there is a unanimous consensus, will
produce a minority of losers. Although voting is a
valuable technique for decision making among a large
number of people, this procedure (with its negative
consequence) is less appropriate for small groups of
about a dozen. In particular, in conflict situations
where people view losing as personal defeat, there
tend to be feelings of powerlessness, alienation, and,
therefore, a disinterest in future participation.

154

A fourth pattern can be seen when a small minority
of colleagues manipulate or "railroad" an idea through
a meeting by forming a coalition which will give others
the impression of majority support. This can develop
by a spontaneous, accidental merging of common ideas or,
in the other extreme, be a secretive, divisive, pre-
planned strategy. Regardless of the reason, the
majority becomes the loser although it may seem to each
one that he represents the minority points of view.

The major consequence of this resolution pattern
is that it is costly and most often unnecessary in
achieving one's objectives.

c. "Win-Win". This pattern occurs when individuals can
agree upon a common solution that will satisfy their
personal objectives or needs. Though this is obviously
desirable, it is often assumed to be unobtainable.
Once we assume that our individual objectives are
mutually exclusive, then by definition, we cannot
mutually resolve the problem. Filley's (25, 1975)
definition of consensus provides us with an interesting
insight into achieving this result: "Consensus decisions
occur when...a final solution is reached which is not
unacceptable to anyone". This suggests a refocusing
away from a highly committed personal solution
toward a serious objective examination of alternate
solutions. When presented with alternate solutions,

155

162

a group that accepts this definition indicates that
there may be ac·eptable solutions to the entire group
in conflict, though it might not be everyone's first
choice. This is different from compromise because in
consensus the solution does meet each person's
individual objectives or needs.

When there are situations where several individuals are at polar
extremes, how can they resolve the difference and begin with an objective
examination of one's own goals? Often if the combatants are willing to do
this, there can be discovered common parts or components within these
extremes. Then, by emphasizing the common parts and questioning the personal
importance of the disparities, a common objective can be agreed upon as the
initial step in achieving a "win-win" resolution. For example, in one joint
sociology/anthropology department, two anthropologists were in conflict over
deciding what the qualifications to fill a vacant position should be. One
argued for an archaeologist; the other, for an urban anthropologist. A person
listening to these two opinions could be easily swayed by both arguments,
yet there was only one position vacant, and it was extremely unlikely to find
a candidate equally specialized in both areas.

After an hour of restating the same points over and over, another
colleague suggested that each anthropologist state what his or her personal
objectives were in determining the position's qualifications. Surprisingly,
they both began with the same general objective--to offer our students the
best possible range of basic courses in the field. Next, they began to
examine their own rationale for the specific qualifications in terms of this
agreed-upon, overall objective, and in a reasonably short time, they agreed

156

163

that the urban anthropologist would best fit the department's needs, and they jointly de eloped the necessary job description.

Although in an earlier section where it was suggested that there are serious a advantages to the use of a moderator in conflict situations, the point referred only to those moderators who perceive their task as that of primarily formulating the solution to the problem. Let us refer to those as "Solution Moderators". The above example suggests that moderators who focus on shaping the process of problem solving within conflicts can be major positive forces in establishing a "win-win" resolution. They can be referred to as "Process Moderators", since these persons focus upon basic procedures that will help produce a cooperative consensus.

Here are some rules that will aid in this approach (Hall, 1977; Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954; Filley, 1975):

1. Begin by having all persons involved express their personal objectives, needs and feelings.

2. Seek to agree upon a single or a set of objectives acceptable to all.

3. Consciously focus upon defeating the problem and not on each other.

4. Avoid compromising procedures such as voting, trading, or bargaining.

5. Attempt to deal with factual information to resolve problems. It is important to recognize and admit when there is no factual evidence to support a position.

6. Recognize that the values and feelings of each person play an important part in causing and also resolving conflicts. If two

157

164

suggested solutions are of qual merit, but the first has strong opposition to it by several persons, and the second has no major objectors, then the latter solution will more easily achieve consensus.

7. Accept conflict or disagreement as a helpful and productive contribution, providing it does not produce threats or defensiveness.

8. Avoid personal behavior that will exclude or ignore the personal needs and objectives of others.

9. Be prepared to examine objectively and compare your ideas with others in terms of which one can best meet the agreed-upon overall objectives.

10. When disagreements arise, ask questions to determine the specific points of conflict and refer to the common objectives for guidelines to resolution.

An effective "Process Moderator" should convey three ideas to the other persons within the conflict (Filley, 27-30, 1976):

1. "I want a solution which achieves your goals and my goals and is acceptable to both of us."

2. "It is our collective responsibility to be open and honest about facts, opinions, and feelings."

3. "I will control the process by which we arrive at agreement but will not dictate content."

The "Problem Solver" striving for a "win-win" solution to conflict is most effective when in the role of a "Process Moderator", and this should not inhibit his or her contributing ideas or criticism towards the final agreed-upon solution as long as these contributions are treated with the same scrutiny as all others.

The following is an example of a conflict situation that developed
when the author co-directed a Summer Institute for Social Studies High School
Teachers. During this six-week program, two teachers adamantly refused to
do one of the institute's assignments: to write five behavioral objectives
for use in the classroom's next term. This developed into a major conflict
between the four of us, and it also began to affect the other thirty-four
participants who were being forced to take sides on the issue. We, the
co-directors, kept insisting that the two teachers had to successfully
complete all assignments to receive academic credit, and they expressed an
absolute refusal to to it. Finally, it became necessary for the four of
us to meet after class to try to resolve the conflict because it began to
affect the entire program.

Much of the first few hours were spent in shouting, interrupting each
other, and in other basic characteristics of disruptive conflict. Finally,
totally exhausted, but still as unresolved as before, we began to examine
our individual premises and objectives surrounding the conflict. First, we
examined the institute's objectives which were to provide materials, pedagogy,
and basic understanding that would be immediately useful to the participating
teachers. Then the two teachers indicated that they had chosen to attend to
gain materials and skills they could use the next year. Thus, we had a very
compatible, if not common, objective. Next, we examined the specific
assignment.

The co-directors had chosen this assignment because behavioral objec-
tives were rapidly becoming a required format for lesson plans in high
school. Already, the state of California had adopted behavioral objectives
as required format. It was felt that it was a valuable skill to have for

159

teaching secondary education. The two teachers, both from California, had developed strong dislikes for the rigid quantitative characteristics of behavioral objectives and, though State-required, their particular school did not enforce that regulation and neither teacher had to use them. It became obvious to the four of us that requiring teachers to execute an assignment that would not be immediately useful was simply a futile exercise.

We then decided to drop the assignment and substitute another one, mutually designed and agreed upon, that would be of more value to the teachers. Though, unfortunately, we had spent over one week in competitive and disruptive conflict, our "win-win" solution had additional positive consequence for the whole program. The next day we announced the suspension of all assignments and indicated that new individual assignments were to be jointly designed by each teacher and a director to meet more closely each participant's individual needs. This led us to the final factor in the conflict process.

5. <u>Consequences of Conflict</u>. There are three possible consequences of conflict situations:

    a. Conflict resolution can become a precondition for future conflicts. As previously suggested, when total agreement is not reached in a conflict resolution, the probability for future, and perhaps more serious, conflicts is greatly increased. Losers will try to "beat" the winners in the next encounter; compromisers will feel obligated to continue in some kind of antagonistic cooperation; and one-sided winners will become even less sensitive and concerned about the feelings, needs, and objectives of others.

160

b. Conflict resolution will have no significant effect upon
    future relationships. Though this is possible, most writers
    on this subject believe that conflicts leave a legacy affecting
    future relations--if nothing more than a desire for competition
    for its own sake (Filley, 1975).

c. Conflict resolution can precondition future cooperative
    problem-solving situations. The author has argued in this
    chapter that adopting a problem-solving style and striving for
    "win-win" results cannot only produce effective cohesive
    working relationships but can also be a precondition for more
    creative, supportive and trusting professional relations in the
    future.

161

168

REFERENCES

Bales, Robert, "A Set of Categories for the Analysis of Small Group Interaction," American Sociological Review, 1950, 15:257-63.

Brown, J. A. C., The Social Psychology of Industry, Penguin Books, 1954.

Caplow, Theodore, Two Against One: Coalititions in Triads, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1968.

Drucker, Peter, The Practice of Management, Harper & Row, 1973.

Filly, Alan C., Interpersonal Conflict Resolution, Glenview: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1975.

Guetzkow, H. & Gyr, J., "An Analysis of Conflict in Decision-Making Groups," Human Relations, 1954, 7, 367-81.

Hall, Jay, Conflict Management Survey, Teleometrics, 1969.

Hall, Richard H., Organizations: Structure and Process, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1977.

Moore, Wilbert E., The Conduct of the Corporation, New York: Vintage Books, 1962.

Odiorne, George, Management by Objectives, Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1965.

Pondy, Louis R., "Organizational Conflict: Concepts & Models," Administrative Science Quarterly, 1967, 12:296-320.

Presthus, Robert, The Organization Society, Vintage Books, 1962.

Sherif, Muzafer, "Experiments in Group Conflict," Scientific American, November, 1956.

Simmel, George, The Sociology of George Simmel, Kurt H. Wolff, Trans. ed., New York, Glencoe Press, 1950.