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EDUCATION FOR ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE.

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EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES  
IN  
SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION FOR ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE

by  
Kenneth J. Kazmerski

A doctoral project to develop experiential learning exercises and to study their utility in an introductory course in social work administration at Hunter College School of Social Work. Submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Social Welfare in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Social Welfare, The City University of New York.

1978

This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Social Welfare in satisfaction of the project requirement for the degree of Doctor of Social Welfare.

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Abstract

EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION  
FOR ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE

by

Kenneth J. Kazmerski

Advisor: Professor Harold H. Weissman

Social work education for administrative practice requires pedagogical resources that prepare students for the realities of work in human service organizations. Available teaching materials are in short supply and too often depict simulations from the business world or from other professions such as medicine.

This project addressed the problem of limited, relevant administrative materials for social work education. The project had a design phase and an assessment phase. The design phase involved observations of the administration curriculum and student body at the Hunter College School of Social Work and a search for and adaptation of simulations to fit a course of study in the School's program. The assessment phase included the conception of evaluative procedures and instruments, data collection and analysis, and a report of the findings.

Simulation design considered such factors as cost, flexibility, and potential outcomes in relation to other pedagogical materials, their usefulness as a supplement to direct field experiences, and their potential for the

application of androgogical principles. Design processes for each exercise explicated concepts and objectives to be learned, activities to be simulated, time frames for exercise sequences, and debriefing questions that would serve to highlight, integrate, and transfer learnings.

The project's assessment phase aimed to improve the utility of those simulations which were selected and developed during the design phase. To improve an exercise's usefulness, the project studied each exercise for the presence of three general attributes: 1) the relevance of an exercise to social service organizational and administrative processes, 2) the adequacy of an exercise's means for learning, that is, the educational materials and processes of each exercise, and 3) an exercise's effectiveness in terms of students' learning specific course objectives and general administrative competencies. If one or more of these three general attributes was found to be in deficit, the project considered options for change and made recommendations for the further refinement or replacement of the exercise.

To obtain the desired information, the project administered an achievement questionnaire to students before and after the course and an exercise-assessment questionnaire at the completion of each experiential exercise. Observations and interviews supplemented the questionnaires to substantiate the questionnaire-generated data, to solicit student attitudes about the merits and problems of each

exercise, and to evaluate recommendations for improving each exercise.

The study found three of the six tested exercises had utility. Two others required specific alterations and the last necessitated either significant changes or substitution.

Impressions gained from the project suggest that simulated activities have real usefulness in social work educational programs. By participating in well constructed simulations, students not only can achieve planned learning objectives but usually gain additional knowledge and skills that are unanticipated but relevant to the subject matter and to the distinct needs of the participating students. Increased self-awareness and sensitivity to others typically result from the interactions that comprise any given simulation. Simulations may enable students to immediately apply theory from lectures and texts to practice situations they might not otherwise encounter in their field work experiences. Furthermore, simulated exercises tend to enrich the classroom experience, offering diversity and excitement and commanding students' attention. Also, simulations can facilitate socialization into a profession by their stimulation of ethical issues and distinctions between prescribed and proscribed professional behaviors.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My interest in experiential learning in the classroom has been strongly encouraged by members of my committee, Harold Weissman, Irving Weisman, who are members of the faculty of the Hunter College School of Social Work, and Richard Lodge, former director of the Council on Social Work Education and professor at Adelphi University School of Social Work. I am indebted to them for this, for their incisive criticism and keen advice, and for the major role they have played in the completion of this doctoral project.

During the course of designing and evaluating the exercises within this project, I have received help from many sources. Chief among the contributors were the students who assisted so willingly in the assessment of the exercises and my wife, Lorraine, who counseled and motivated me and who took full responsibility for typing this report. For their support, I am truly grateful. Also, I must acknowledge the aid I received from other faculty and from my friends. Finally, I wish to express my warm appreciation to my children, Victoria, Paul, and Linda, for the patience and understanding they showed throughout my doctoral studies.

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## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT

#### General Purpose

This is a report of a formative project which had as its goals the development of experiential exercises, also called simulations, and the study of their utility in a social work education program for administrative or managerial practice. The project attempts to add to the pool of available teaching materials. It also looks for insights into those factors which affect the utility of simulations in a classroom in order to influence the future design and implementation of simulations in social work education. In particular, the project's principle function is the expansion of sound pedagogical resources for educators of social work students of administration.

#### Nature of Unmet Need Addressed by Project

Teaching materials for use in social work education for managerial practice are thought to be lacking in quantity and relevance. The 1976 report of the Council on Social Work Education's study of education programs for administration in nationally accredited schools of social work indicates that administration faculty regard the small amount of currently available teaching materials as being "too simplistic, or too oriented toward business administration."<sup>1</sup>

This materials gap is more prominent if one agrees with the conclusion reached in the above study that there is "a need to use the classroom both as a laboratory and as a locus for experiential learning" for students to practice professional skills development, compensating for agency problems of providing a broad range of actual administrative experiences for students in a time-limited field work program. Furthermore, the gap becomes even more salient when viewed from a perspective that an expansion of social work education for administrative practice is not only desirable but necessary to meet the estimated 15,000 new openings and about 1,000 replacement vacancies which are estimated to occur in social service managerial positions between 1970 and 1980.<sup>2</sup>

Strengthening social work efforts in administration education is necessary. Based upon the previously mentioned, projected combination of 16,000 new openings and replacement vacancies in social welfare managerial positions between 1970 and 1980 and an enrollment of slightly more than 2,000 students in the first half of this decade in social work concentrations in administration, management, and social policy,<sup>3</sup> it is estimated that at least 11,000 positions in this decade will have to be filled by ill-prepared social work graduates and/or by non-social work personnel.

Some of the reasons for social work's inadequate response to manpower demands are the profession's preoccupation with therapeutic competencies to the near exclusion

of program improvement competencies between 1915 and 1960,<sup>4</sup> the prohibition of graduate schools by the Council on Social Work Education (the organization which accredits social work educational programs in our country) from offering two-year specializations in administration until its policy change of January, 1971,<sup>5</sup> the lack of student interest in administration-policy concentrations (i.e., the social work student body grew by 29.4 percent from 1970 to the end of 1974 but the administration-policy student body only grew by 1.5 percent in the same period, even though macro-practice concentrations increased dramatically in this period),<sup>6</sup> and the primitive stage of development of the theoretical base of education for social service administration (e.g., in the entire first five years of the nineteen seventies, only two administrative education papers were published by the Journal of Education for Social Work, social work's principal academic journal).

One assumes that educational program expansion without a concomittant development of teaching materials can lead to only partial success in the preparation of students for effective practice in the administration of human service organizations. At this time, expanding and enhancing educational materials on social service administration seem critical. The forces of an expanding social service administration job market, potential domination of this job market by persons not educated in social service administration, and societal demands for accountability in its

institutions, urge our profession to move in the direction of increased quality and quantity in social work education for administrative practice.

### Selection of Type of Teaching Material for Design and Evaluation

At the Hunter College School of Social Work the use of teaching materials in the administration concentration has been limited almost exclusively to case studies. This likely reflects the state of arts in materials development. Published case records in social services administration do exist.<sup>7</sup> Case examples can be and are derived from student and field instructor experiences. However, films, videotapes, role plays, in-basket items, and leaderless group exercises in the context of social welfare settings and social service administration situations are not generally available for classroom use.

Experiential exercises, which include role play and in-basket and group experiences, were chosen over films and tapes for reasons of cost, flexibility, and desired outcomes. Simulated organizational exercises were thought to cost less, to be more adaptable to different educational situations, and, most importantly, to actively engage students in the practice of administrative skills.

The dominating principle within this project was that education of students for social service administration should emphasize both theory and immediate opportunity for practice of the theory. Since an administrator is a person

of thought and action, I believed that educational programs which prepare persons for such positions should involve not only the dissemination of knowledge but also the involvement of the student in experiencing this knowledge in a work related situation. My four years of supervising administrative students in field agencies led me to the conclusion that theoretically supportive administrative field work experiences often do not exist or they occur at times not suited for the best integration of theory. I concluded that experiential exercises, which enable a high involvement of the student in the application of theory as it is taught, should be located or developed and tested.

Androgical theory suggests that adult learners achieve better in educational situations in which they are self-directing, they are involved in action-learning and experience evaluation, and they see immediate job-relevance in the subject matter.<sup>8</sup> Stimulus-response theory similarly emphasizes the learner as an active participant, rather than a passive listener, or viewer.<sup>9</sup> Reinforcement-oriented theories recommend learning by doing with appropriate reinforcement-feedback that follows the learning.<sup>10</sup> Competency-based educational theory considers teaching to be structuring and managing of environmental conditions for learning and learning to be the achievement of given behavioral objectives.<sup>11</sup> All educational theories stress teaching which is learner focused, that is, teaching at a level that corresponds to a student's present attributes and needs.

Experiential exercises as selected and developed for this project were thought to reflect the above theoretical propositions. The exercises were designed to provide students with a structured learning environment encompassing student-centered learning objectives, simulated administrator-focused activities, and opportunities for immediate reflection and feedback on personal performance, on exercise processes, and on real-life generalizations.

#### Review of the Literature and Current Efforts

Several major efforts to develop or enhance administration teaching and curricula in social work have recently been reported by the University of Washington,<sup>12</sup> the University of Pennsylvania,<sup>13</sup> the University of Southern California,<sup>14</sup> Florida State University,<sup>15</sup> the University of Minnesota,<sup>16</sup> the Council on Social Work Education,<sup>17</sup> the Southern Regional Education Board,<sup>18</sup> New York State Association of Deans of Social Work Schools,<sup>19</sup> the University of Michigan,<sup>20</sup> Rutgers University,<sup>21</sup> and Temple University.<sup>22</sup>

Four of the above reports relate totally or partially to experiential classroom learning. The University of Pennsylvania Casebook Studies has one experiential exercise by Burian and Stine in it. Kershner and Washburn of U.S.C. wrote a very brief introduction to gaming and simulations. At the Council on Social Work Education's 1977 Annual Program Meeting, Siegel presented outlines of exercises that he and Lawrence developed or adapted for use at the University of Michigan; exercise details are not yet available for use

by other schools. Lastly, the work of Austin and others at Florida State University is extensive and relevant to this project at Hunter College.

In particular, the Florida State University materials are useful for their theory and exercises. Chapters II and IV of the Working Papers in Mental Health Administration: Training and Evaluation Monograph #1 discuss issues and assessment techniques in evaluating training programs in mental health administration. The mimeographed manuscript details actual experiential exercises, one of which was used in this project. The introduction of the instructor's guide is valuable for its theoretical explication of simulations and of the role of the instructor in their use.

To my knowledge, there is no report at present which examines the impact of simulations on social work students of administration. Thus, this project hopes to fill a part of the gap in pedagogical knowledge and materials, a gap that is significant during our current period of educational expansion in social service administration.

Through its emphasis upon clearly defined skill objectives, active student participation in simulated practice situations, personal performance assessment as a means for promoting student involvement and achievement, the project may positively influence the total curriculum in administration at Hunter College. On a larger scale and over a long period of time, the project may play a part in improving administrative practice, in enhancing the images

of both administration as a social work method and institutional enhancement as a social work function, and in attracting greater interest in the study and teaching of social service administration.

Project Setting: Hunter College School of Social Work

The Hunter program is an ideal location for developing and evaluating the utility of social work teaching materials on administration. It has a master degree program in social work administration. Its faculty has a commitment to educational excellence and innovation and to improvements in the quality of course offerings. Of critical importance, the faculty has an interest in and show support for doctoral studies, including this particular project.

Preceding the evaluation phase of the project, I spent one year observing all major administration courses in the master level program at Hunter College School of Social Work. I analyzed course content and the student population, formulated student learning objectives for each unit of learning since none existed, and determined exercise needs. Concurrently in that year, I did an extensive search of the literature and located simulations relevant to the School's administration curriculum.

Based upon such factors as my course observations, the necessary addition of an extra hour of classroom time per week to a course to allow for the inclusion of simulations, and my availability to conduct the exercises in the Fall semester, Professor Harold Weissman and I decided to

evaluate some of the exercises in the Fall semester's introductory course. A major determining factor was the newness to the program of the students in this course. We assumed new students would be less resistant to expanding the time of the course than students who already had been in classes of two not three hours duration per week.

Thus, the bases for the selection of particular experiential exercises for adaptation and assessment were their relevance to the subject matter normally taught in the first course in Hunter's social work program for administrative practice, their potential applicability to social work, and the apparent strength of their learning processes. Eventually I selected and adapted ten simulations to complement the eight areas of study comprising the introductory course. Each of the following sequentially taught areas had one exercise developed for it, except "supervision" and "goals and goal setting" which had two apiece:

- 1) influence, 2) informal organization, 3) leadership, 4) personnel management, 5) supervision, 6) union negotiation, 7) formal organization, and 8) goals and goal setting.

In this project the course topic choices were assumed to have validity and were accepted as given. Each exercise, however, was carefully selected for its purported or estimated relationship to a given course topic.

#### Simulation Design

The project's design of teaching materials was complex. It involved numerous interrelated activities, each aimed at

the development of a component part of a particular structured learning experience. The exercise components to be developed were learning objectives, simulated experiences and the directions for undertaking them, simulation resource materials, time frames, and debriefing questions.

In the first place, the design phase of the project involved the delineation of concepts and student-centered objectives for each exercise. The objectives described the end-states or performance outcomes that students could expect to achieve by means of their participation in a given exercise.

Next, the design of simulated activities usually required adaptations of existing materials to ensure students' active engagement in relevant social service administration related activities, such as influencing the decision making processes of a national agency board and appraising the performance of social service personnel. I assumed that direct involvement in simulated organizational and administrative processes maximizes student participation in their own learning, enables independent and mutual theory application, and facilitates student use of prior experiences which vary with each student and which not infrequently (as with certain one-year-residency students) are extensive. The activities, as designed, permitted students to observe others handling similar situations and therefore to have more than just the instructor as a role model. The process of design also embraced the specification of activities and

time periods in a way that would encourage students to be self-directed, that is, to take independent action in any given administrative situation and to use their own background and knowledge.

Lastly, the design of exercises entailed the generation of alternative debriefing questions and the selection of those questions which would provide the greatest opportunities for reflection about the experience and for the receipt of feedback from others. Thought to be essential in debriefing were evaluation, reinforcement, and correction. Considered preferable were questions which would enable students to examine their own learning through self-reflection and peer review, to apply theory overtly, to generalize to the practice world from the classroom, to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of an exercise, and to recommend improvements in an exercise. Another consideration in the design of the debriefing session was the creation of a structure for pooling information and for peer learning under the guidance of an instructor whose role would be to facilitate, focus, support, and not dominate.

As a result of involving students as adults and mutual learners in simulated, non-passive administrator and evaluator roles, it was anticipated that experiential exercises would enable students not only to achieve stated learning objectives, but also to offer recommendations for improving the exercises. By evaluating student performance data and student reactions to the structured learning

activities, judgments about the utility of an experiential exercise could be made and the areas requiring revision could be identified.

### Implementation

Experiential exercises reflect certain educational principles which govern their processes in implementation. First, learners should actively be involved in the educational process. The educator's task in experiential exercises are therefore disseminating and monitoring the exercise and facilitating subsequent discussion. The student not only has high involvement but has actual responsibility for the conduct of the exercises.

Second, learning should be self-directed. The educator's task of control in learning is deemphasized in experiential exercises. Because of student responsibility for the implementation of the exercise, the educator shares much of the control with the student and much of the resultant learning is self-directed.

Third, education should be relevant to student capabilities. In adult education such capabilities vary dramatically; thus, the educator's task in experiential exercises is to capitalize on the range of student abilities, through differential role assignments or through discussions which solicit students' diverse perspectives on the simulated experience.

Fourth, students should have role models who exemplify the desired learning. The educator's task thus is to either

act as a model or provide opportunities for others to do so. During experiential exercises, the educator searches for students who may be serving in this capacity. Students who demonstrate competency in a given behavior can be observed by others in the simulation and can then be the focus of subsequent educator-led discussions. More than one good model may develop in a simulation, enabling comparisons and recognition that there usually is more than one right way to handle a situation.

Fifth, professional learning should be relevant to particular functions to be carried out by the student upon graduation. In this case the educator's task is to use the learning materials to generate information and skills that the student likely will use in his/her professional practice. Experiential exercises actually engage the student in organization-management situations which present not only informational stimuli but which also demand actions of evaluating and manipulating those stimuli. The instructor then is to use the stimuli and student responses as subjects for evaluative discussions.

Sixth, adult learners should be involved in experience evaluation. The educator's task becomes providing a series of opportunities for students to reflect upon their learning and its processes. The educator who uses experiential exercises consequently should allow time for discussion and/or written reflections about the learning experience and its outcomes and about possible revisions in the exercise and the resultant effects of proposed revisions.

Seventh, relevant learning should be reinforced. The task of the educator is to provide feedback which increases desired student responses. By using experiential exercises, the educator structures an environment in which relevant responses are likely to occur and be reinforced either as the behavior occurs when possible or during the subsequent discussion.

The educational package of experiential exercises was delivered to Hunter social work administration students in the Fall, 1977, semester. Typically, the delivery of a simulation in the class was patterned as follows:

1. Substantive lecture by Professor Weissman;
2. Overview of substance-related experiential exercise by Professor Kazmerski;
3. Engagement in exercise by students and monitoring by Professor Kazmerski;
4. Evaluation of exercise and its learning by Professor Kazmerski and students;
5. Written evaluations of the exercise by students;
6. Tentative evaluation of the exercise by Professor Kazmerski.

There were eight units of learning, each of which lasted an average of two weeks. As each unit was completed, a tentative and preliminary review was made of the accomplishments and the problems of the experiential exercise(s) and its implementation. Six of the ten prepared experiential exercises ultimately were used. Time prevented the

evaluation of some exercises and one exercise was determined to be unacceptable based upon feedback about earlier exercises. Student resistance, anticipated in light of the increased classroom time (from two to three hours per week) expected of them, did not materialize to any significant extent. Interpretations were made relative to the potential of the exercises for professional growth and their significance for administration education. To reduce student resistance to the completion of evaluation forms, particularly performance rating forms in which they assess themselves, discussions and forms included statements about the necessity of ongoing evaluation in social work administration, about students' need for feedback, and about the desirability of personal review within any profession, as well as a declaration that the assessment would not affect a student's grade for the course.

Another anticipated difficulty was the possibility of a planned exercise taking more or less time than allotted. Therefore, an agreement was made with Professor Weissman on eliminating an exercise if the time demands of a course unit far exceeded estimates. As mentioned, four of the ten exercises were not used.

Lastly, the issue of grading was raised. It was my belief that written self-evaluations should not be considered in the grading processes. In fact, performance during any of the experiential exercises, due to the untested nature of the exercises, was not subjected to a grading process. This

decision did not seem to affect student motivation for participation in the exercises.

### Evaluation

Criteria. This was a formative project to develop experiential exercises and to study and improve their utility in an educational program for social work administration. Utility success criteria were broadly categorized into three areas: relevance, adequacy of means for learning, and effectiveness. In other words, an experiential exercise was considered to be good or useful if it was relevant to social service organizational/administrative processes, if its learning means included sound internal pedagogical elements and processes (e.g., appropriate learning objectives, a complementary relationship to the lecture, clear directions and procedures, and opportunities for self-directed learning, for self-reflection, and for peer learning), and if it facilitated student achievement of specific learning objectives and general administrative competencies. If an exercise did not contain these three general attributes of relevance, adequacy of means for learning, and effectiveness in sufficient amounts, then changes were deemed necessary and recommendations for revision or replacement were made.

Criteria standards were difficult to specify in view of the absence of prior information in this area. However, target standards of seventy (70) percent presence of each of the three general attributes were arbitrarily established as part of this project.

Target Scope. The target population for the program of experiential exercises was the group of students who enrolled in the introductory administration course at Hunter College School of Social Work in the Fall, 1977, semester. Demographic data about the participants was accumulated at the beginning of the semester.

Control of attributes of the participants was not attempted as a control group experimental design was considered premature in this developmental project. A comparison of the attributes of local and national graduate student population in social work administration concentrations, while desirable for examining the representativeness of the target population to determine the extent to which the findings can be generalized, could not be achieved because of data unavailability.

Data Collection Methods. Described in this report are the methods used to collect data for evaluating the classroom exercises. The methods used include 1) a questionnaire on student background information, 2) my observations during, and group interviews after, each exercise, 3) a review of audiotapes made during each debriefing discussion which followed a simulation, 4) a questionnaire on student reactions to, and learning from, each exercise, 5) pre-course and post-course self-rating forms which assessed student competencies in relation to the learning objectives of the exercises, and 6) informal, unplanned discussions with students individually and in small groups.

Analysis of Findings. The key evaluation variables reported on in the project are as follows:

1. Simulation's relevance;
  - a. Extent to which student takes the simulation seriously;
  - b. Extent to which student perceives others to take the simulation seriously;
  - c. Applicability to field agency;
  - d. Realism of features of a social welfare organization;
2. Simulation's adequacy of means of learning;
  - a. Potential for stimulating a student;
  - b. Clarity of simulation's directions;
  - c. Self-direction opportunities;
  - d. Relatedness to diverse learning needs;
  - e. Role model provision;
  - f. Appropriateness of debriefing questions;
  - g. Reinforcement adequacy;
  - h. Opportunity for skill practice;
  - i. Opportunity to "use" concepts not used in field;
  - j. Opportunity for reflection;
  - k. Opportunity for inquiry in the class;
3. Simulation's effectiveness;
  - a. Simulation's contribution to the achievement of specific learning objectives;
  - b. Student self-reported achievement;

- c. Simulation's provision of insights on administration and its problems;
- d. Simulation's stimulus for further learning;
- e. Simulation's preparation for professional activity.

In the assessment phase of the project, each exercise was treated as a separate study. As already indicated, each exercise was evaluated for its relevance, its adequacy of means for learning, and its effectiveness. Changes were considered and recommendations for revision or replacement were made as deemed necessary.

However, Raser's assertions about the primitive state of knowledge about evaluating pedagogical methods, particularly gaming, are applicable here and should be noted.

In the first place, most of the reported research on teaching offers results that are ambiguous or show no significant correlation between learning and instructional method. This is due to the extreme difficulty both of determining the exact educational goals of any given set of materials, and of designing reliable measures of learning. Moreover, the problem of data-based evaluation is even more complicated if what one wants to test is a hunch that what is learned by gaming is not so much factual information as a new way of integrating information, enhanced appreciation of the complexities of social relations, and greater insight into strategies of bargaining, communications, and decision-making. No tests have yet been devised to measure such abstract qualities, and tests that measure factual learning and specific attitude changes miss the point. So again, I suggest that the educational effectiveness of gaming cannot be appraised until there is more awareness of the purposes and potential of the games, and a concomitant development of tests for measuring changes along the dimensions referred to above.<sup>23</sup>

I do not believe that the development of educational materials should await hard data gathering devices. I agree with Raser when he states that social scientists should

. . . refuse to be apologetic about their own fiddling, tentative modeling, gaming, and hunch following. The knowledge to be gained from such insightful playing - guided by esthetics as well as by logic - may be as great as that to be gained from the most tightly structured observation of puntiform phenomena.<sup>24</sup>

### Project Outcomes

The immediate outcomes of the project are threefold: 1) student learning, 2) more relevant and reliable social work administration teaching materials that have been evaluated in an actual classroom situation, and 3) ideas about the use of simulations in social work education. Hopefully, these outcomes will have some influence, though unmeasured in this project, on broader goals of strengthened educational programs for administrative practice, improved administration of social welfare organizations, enhanced functioning and image of the social welfare institution, and ultimately bettered social and personal conditions of the consumers of social welfare services.

Project findings are being made available to Hunter faculty and possibly others. If experiential exercises have sufficient demonstrated value, their use may be continued and even expanded, although there can be no guarantee that this will happen.

### An Outline of the Report

The remaining chapters of this report explicate the simulation assessment themes identified in this first chapter. The second chapter describes the plan of assessment and the project participants. The findings and their interpretations are the subject of the third chapter. The last chapter presents conclusions, an evaluation of the investigation, and recommendations regarding the use to be made of the findings and some areas for further study.

### CHAPTER I

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CHAPTER II  
ASSESSMENT PLAN

Introduction

This chapter has three purposes. First, it identifies the substance of the information sought in the evaluation phase of the project. The chapter then describes the methods used to obtain the information. Finally, it describes the students who were participants in the project and who were the primary source of the information.

Target Information

As indicated in the first chapter, the project studied an exercise for the presence of three general attributes assumed to be essential for that exercise to have utility in a social work educational program for administrative practice. These three attributes were relevance, adequate means for learning, and effectiveness.

An exercise was considered to be relevant if students perceived it as being applicable to their field agencies and as being representative of social service organizations, and if students reacted to it seriously. An exercise was deemed to have adequate means for learning if students reported that its educational elements and activities stimulated students, complemented lectures, provided clarity of directions, gave opportunities for self-directed learning, related to the learning needs of different students, enabled peer learning,

posed questions to enable debriefing discussions that were appropriate to the course's learning objectives, offered opportunities for reinforcement of learning, and correlated positively with student interests. An exercise was thought to be effective if students said it facilitated the learning of specific objectives, if they reported they achieved these objectives, and if students believed that the exercise provided insights into administration and administrative problems, stimulated their desire for further learning in the substantive area under study, and prepared them for later professional practice.

Additionally, the project sought information from students about the merits and problems of an exercise and about their opinions as to learning that results from an exercise. Finally, the project solicited data about changes that might be made in an exercise to improve its relevance, learning means, and effectiveness.

### Methodology

Type. The evaluative methodology used in this project may be characterized as exploratory, action-oriented, and formative. Kerlinger explains that the exploratory study "seeks what is rather than predicts relations to be found . . . Exploratory studies have three purposes: to discover significant variables in a field situation, to discover relations among variables, and to lay the groundwork for later, more systematic and rigorous testing of hypotheses."<sup>1</sup>

Action investigation in education, according to Goldstein,<sup>2</sup> seeks information about the application of instructional theory in a local classroom. He states that such an investigation uses available pupils and/or teachers as subjects and employs not only flexible and less rigorous procedures of inquiry but also simple procedures of analysis in order to improve education in that setting.

Formative evaluation stresses an iterative process of testing and modification. It focuses on identifying "areas where revision is needed . . . to improve the instructional methods and materials so that greater student learning will result."<sup>3</sup>

Standards. In this project standards were arbitrarily set as a guide for deciding if an experiential exercise is acceptable or should be revised. Any simulation found to have relevance, means for learning, and effectiveness at seventy (70) percent levels was considered to be useful for subsequent classes and to not require modification or replacement. Seventy (70) percent was selected as the standard since it was well above the half-way-present mark of fifty (50) percent and well below the totally present mark of one-hundred (100) percent which potentially would be out of reach for newly developed teaching materials.

Methods of Data Collection. In the assessment phase of this project, data was collected in six ways. One, a pre-course background information questionnaire was used to solicit name, age, birth date, undergraduate major, graduate

degrees and areas of study, specialized education or training in administration, and work history. A copy of this instrument is appended as part of the "pre-course data" form.

Two, identical performance self-rating forms were used as pre-course and post-course measures and were administered before the course began and after it was completed. Self reports for the evaluation of student performance were chosen to simplify data collection. Ideally, in an experimental situation, which this project is not, other means of evaluating student competencies before and after the course also would be employed. Other means were considered but were not utilized. For example, at the beginning of a course, field instructors might be asked to evaluate student performance but most of them could not do this since they would not yet know their students. Even by the end of the course, all students could not be expected to have field experiences in each area of the course and certainly not in the development of every competency described in the numerous course learning objectives. Therefore, field instructors, or for that matter any other observer in field activities, would be unable to assess the students on their level of achievement of all course objectives. Direct observation of each student during a simulation might be possible. However, individualization of students by a single person would be very difficult when eighteen (18) students are engaged concurrently in an exercise. Observation of each student individually performing a simulated task would require much preparation and testing of

the individual tasks before the tasks could reliably test student competencies; this in itself would be another research project. Vignettes and examinations might be used but these would be useful only in measuring the acquisition of knowledge and analytical skills, not interpersonal or other psycho-motor skills that simulations also attempt to develop. Consequently, having ruled out other methods of evaluating student competencies before and after the course, self-report forms were designed for use in this project.

The pre-course performance rating form was attached to the background information form and was given to students to complete before the course began. At the end of the course, the post-course form without the background information section attached to it, was given to students for completion. A copy of the pre-course instrument is appended as part of the "pre-course data" form. A copy of the post-course instrument, entitled "My Administrative Capacities," is also appended.

These performance self-rating forms were designed to solicit student perceptions of their administrative competencies in the learning areas of the School's introductory course. On the forms were listed all behavioral objectives for the course. A rating scale was presented under each objective. The scale was weighted from one to eight, with one representing no ability to demonstrate the competency in question, two and three representing occasional ability to demonstrate that competency, four and five representing

moderate ability, six and seven representing frequent or great ability, and eight representing a capacity to always or totally demonstrate that competency. To exemplify:

USES INFLUENCE APPROPRIATE TO A SITUATION

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

Students were told to circle the number that most clearly corresponds to the level of ability he or she had at that point in time. Each student was assigned both a "unit achievement score" based on his or her response to questions about competencies covered in that course unit, and an "overall achievement score" based upon responses to all twenty-six (26) course competency questions. To reiterate, these measures were taken before the course began and then again at its end.

Three, a student reaction questionnaire was administered after each exercise (copy appended). Open and closed type questions were combined to obtain information about student attitudes toward an exercise that was just completed. In open-ended questions (items 01-05) students were asked about their learnings from the exercises, reasons for not learning, suggestions for improving the exercise, and aspects of the exercise they liked. Closed-ended questions were posed to obtain weighted responses relative to an exercise's perceived relevance (items 06-09), adequacy of means for learning,

(items 10-23), and its contributions to student learning (items 36-43). A six point rating scale was used in this questionnaire.

Four, during exercises observations were made. Student behavior and implied attitudes were assessed.

Five, evaluative interviews were conducted after exercises with the class as a whole. These interviews were audio-taped.

In the direct observations, group interviews, and tape reviews, the strengths and weaknesses of an exercise's components and processes were inferred from student verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Strengths and weaknesses were analyzed in relation to the three general attributes of an exercise: 1) relevance, 2) adequacy of means for learning, and 3) effectiveness.

Six, informally, students were observed and interviewed during conferences and coffee breaks. Occasionally statements were made and questions asked about a given exercise, about student attitudes, and about other related matters. The same criteria used in the observations and interviews during class and the reviews of tape after class were applied in these unplanned sessions with students.

Classroom Procedures. With one exception, the classroom procedural pattern was as follows. First, Professor Harold Weissman presented concepts didactically. Second, I gave an overview of the experiential exercise, that is, its objectives, activities, and general student responsibilities

or tasks. Third, students engaged in the simulation while I observed. If requested, I consulted with students. Fourth, together the students and I discussed the simulation and the learning obtained from it. Fifth, students completed a questionnaire on their reactions to the exercise. Last, I immediately but cursorily reviewed the strengths and weaknesses of the exercise and its implementation in a preliminary analysis to determine needs for change in procedures and directions that might affect subsequent exercises.

The single exception to the procedural pattern occurred in the first unit of learning. Professor Weissman, who was unable to attend this session, gave his lecture the week after the completion of the exercise.

### Study Participants

The class of students who enrolled in the introductory administration course at Hunter College School of Social Work in the Fall semester of 1977 was the target group selected for the program of experiential exercises (see Table 1). This group of students numbered eighteen (18). Eleven (11) students, sixty-one (61) percent, were male and seven (7), thirty-nine (39) percent, female. This compared with the national average of thirty (30) percent male and seventy (70) percent female full-time MSW students in 1975-76.<sup>4</sup> They ranged in age from twenty-four (24) to forty-nine (49); six (6) were in their twenties, seven (7) in their thirties, and five (5) in their forties. Their mean age was thirty-four (34.3) as compared to the national 1975-76 mean of twenty-six

TABLE 1  
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

Sex		Age		Undergraduate Degree	Graduate Degree	Administrative Staff Development		Years of Experience			
Male	11	20s	6	Education	4	Yes	4	Yes	5	0	1
Female	7	30s	7	Psychology	4	No	14	No	13	Under 1	2
		40s	5	Sociology	3					1+	3
				Other	7					2+	4
										3+	1
									4+	2	
									5+	5	

(26.4) for full-time social work students.<sup>5</sup> They had diverse major areas of study at the undergraduate level of education; four (4) majored in education, four (4) in psychology, three (3) in sociology, and one (1) each in social-psychology, economics, sociology, recreation, social work, business management, foods-institutional management, and philosophy. Four (4) had graduate degrees; all were in education. Five (5) of the eighteen (18) attended staff development programs on administration. All but one (1) student had prior administration experience. Five (5) had more than five (5) years of experience, two (2) had more than four (4) years, one (1) had more than three (3) years, four (4) had more than two (2) years, three (3) had more than one (1) year, and two (2) had less than one (1) year.

I attempted to locate national and local data about the attributes of graduate social work students in administration concentrations. I wanted to compare the project's target group with other student populations in order to examine the representativeness of the class studied and to determine if and to which extent the project findings might be generalized. Unfortunately, such data was not available.

All of the eighteen (18) entering students participated in the study. Because of this limited pool, I made no effort to control the attributes of the study group. Though desirable, I considered such control unnecessary and premature in an exploratory project.

### Summary

The target information, methodology, and participants of the study have been described in this chapter. In summary, a natural group of students enrolled in an introductory course in administration in the Hunter College School of Social Work during the Fall semester of 1977 was the source of data used in this project to assess the utility of experiential exercises designed for use in education for social service administration. A useful exercise was one that had relevance to social services, adequate means for learning, and effectiveness. The project considered those exercises which did not have these attributes in sufficient quantities to be unacceptable and to require revision or substitution. A combination of observations, interviews, and questionnaires elicited the data for assessing the merits and drawbacks of the exercises. On those bases, the project evaluated six (6) exercises, the results of which are found in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER II

### Notes and References

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CHAPTER III  
DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

Exercises were evaluated on three (3) general attributes: relevance, adequacy of means for learning, and effectiveness. Each of these general attributes was comprised of several specific characteristics.

Relevance is an external attribute of an exercise. Relevance characterizes an exercise's ability to represent the external, real world of administration and thus to be viewed seriously by its participants. Adequacy of means for learning is an attribute which describes the exercise's internal characteristics, that is, its learning materials and processes.

Effectiveness is an outcome attribute of an exercise. Effectiveness defines the products of learning, such as the knowledge gained, the skills developed, the attitudes and motivation changed.

An exercise was considered to be relevant (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning Questionnaire) if students reacted to it seriously, if they believed other students took it seriously, if they saw the exercise as applicable to their field agency, and if they viewed the simulation as realistically describing features of a social welfare organization. An exercise's means for learning were deemed adequate (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning Questionnaire) if students found

the exercise to be stimulating, to be relevant to the lecture, to be clear in its directives, to allow for self-directed learning, to meet the learning needs of different students, to enable learning from peers, to be appropriate in terms of its debriefing questions, to provide reinforcement for learning, to be interesting in its subject matter, to be illustrative of a lecture, to provide opportunities for skill-practice, to enable students to use information not yet used in the field, to enable students to reflect on feelings and attitudes, and to lead to more relevant questioning by students in comparison with other classroom learning methods. An exercise was judged as effective (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning Questionnaire and relevant items from the post-course questionnaire, My Administrative Capacities) if students thought that it helped them to achieve the learning objectives for a course unit and to develop insights into administration and administrative problems, if students found the exercise to be a stimulus for further learning, if students reported that the exercise helped to prepare them for future professional activity, and if students reported they achieved the objectives of a course unit of learning.

In sum, an experiential exercise was determined to be acceptable for further use if students viewed it 1) as relevant, 2) as having adequate learning means, and 3) as effective. As discussed in the previous chapter, on all three (3) general attributes success standards were set arbitrarily at seventy (70) percent of the maximum possible

score. In other words, a good exercise was thought to contain the three (3) general attributes at a seventy (70) percent level and, if so, was deemed acceptable for future use and not in need of change or further development.

To obtain the level of an attribute of an exercise in the project, the sum of the students' raw scores on that attribute was divided by the total possible score for that attribute. For example, the attribute, relevance, was measured by adding together the sum of the students' scores on Assessment of Learning items 06-09 ( $91 + 93 + 62 + 63 = 309$ ) and dividing the sum by the total possible score ( $108 + 108 + 96 + 90 = 402$ ), which equals .7686 or 76.9 percent.

In the above example, eighteen (18) students responded to items 06 ( $18 \times 6 = 108$ ) and 07 ( $18 \times 6 = 108$ ), sixteen (16) students responded to item 08 ( $16 \times 6 = 96$ ), and fifteen (15) students responded to item 09 ( $15 \times 6 = 90$ ). The maximum score for each student was six (6) because a six point scale was used to measure all attributes except effectiveness, which had both a six point scale and an eight point scale.

In the analysis of the student responses to individual questions, responses of one, two, and three (1-3) on a six point scale (Assessment of Learning Questionnaire) are considered negative, and responses of four, five, and six (4-6) are considered positive. Likewise on an eight point scale (My Administrative Capacities Questionnaire), the lower half numbers (1-4) are considered negative responses and the upper half numbers (5-8) are considered positive responses. Thus, if

a student checks three (3) on a question, his answer is regarded as a "no."

The mean average response for each question is calculated by taking the sum of each student's actual score for any given questionnaire item and dividing that sum by the number of students responding to that item. In all cases except student evaluations and self-achievement of specified learning objectives, the mean score was derived from a six point scale. With regard to the exception, an eight point scale was used.

Data regarding the above-named exception will always be found under the sub-heading "effectiveness" in the analysis of each exercise below. These exceptions will be identified by the words "eight point scale" in parentheses.

Standard deviations and variances were computed for all items on both questionnaires. This statistical information is reported in composite form in an appendix for purposes of future comparisons should subsequent research be undertaken.

### Influence

The exercise, "Influence (Power, Authority) in Organizations," was viewed very favorably by students. In both the written and oral comments of students, the exercise was rated highly on the three (3) general variables of relevance, adequacy of learning means, and effectiveness.

Description. In this exercise students role play agency directors who come together as a board of "National Agency" to elect a new board president. Each student has

different amounts of legitimate (votes) power. Other types of power become necessary to influence the board's decision making. Students independently or jointly formulate strategies of influence.

Relevance (items 06-09), Assessment of Learning). All of the eighteen (18) students wrote that they took the simulation on influence seriously (mean 5.05). Similarly, they all indicated that they believed that other students also took this exercise seriously (mean 5.17). With regard to the exercise's applicability to the student's field agency, only nine (9) of the sixteen (16) respondents answered affirmatively (mean 3.86). Lastly, eleven (11) of the fifteen (15) respondents believed that the influence exercise realistically modeled a social welfare organization (mean 4.20).

Combining the above four (4) sub-attributes to obtain an overall relevancy score, students as a group rated the exercise on influence at nearly a seventy-seven (76.9) percent level of relevancy. Thus, in terms of the attribute, relevance, this exercise was successful since it was well over the target score of seventy (70) percent.

Oral comments from students strongly supported the exercise's relevance. For instance, one student said, "Power is crucial in my agency. You really have to know how to exercise influence to get what you need from the board." Several students referred to how this exercise represented what goes on in their agencies in terms of

people manipulating situations for their own interests, in terms of the effects of good and poor influence on the goal achievement and the emotional climate of an agency, in terms of the effects of good and poor influence on the goal achievement and the emotional climate of an agency, in terms of conflicts among legitimate and other kinds of power, and in terms of the stratification of power in an agency.

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). Students responded even more favorably to the questions dealing with pedagogical materials and processes than they did to the questions of relevance. All of the eighteen (18) students found the exercise on influence to be stimulating (mean 5.28). Students did not answer the question of fit between lecture and exercise as no lecture preceded this exercise. Seventeen (17) of the eighteen (18) respondents said the exercise's directives were clear (mean 4.94).

Sixteen (16) of eighteen (18) students believed that this exercise provided opportunities for self-directed learning (mean 4.94). Of the sixteen (16) students who answered the question of the exercise's appropriateness to the learning needs of different students, fourteen (14) answered affirmatively (mean 4.94). The entire class claimed the exercise helped students to learn from each other (mean 5.11).

Seventeen (17) of eighteen (18) respondents agreed that the exercise's debriefing questions were appropriate (mean 5.11). The exercise enabled students to receive reinforcement for good performance, according to sixteen (16) members of the class (mean 4.94). All students in the class

expressed interest in the exercise's subject matter (mean 5.39). Students omitted item 19, the question about whether the exercise illustrated the lecture, due to the absence of a lecture.

Practicing an administrative skill was possible because of the exercise, according to fifteen (15) of the eighteen (18) respondents (mean 4.50). Fifteen (15) of seventeen (17) students reported that the exercise on influence enabled them to use information that they had not yet used in field practice (mean 4.35). The exercise encouraged self-reflection as attested by seventeen (17) of the eighteen (18) respondents (mean 5.33). Finally, sixteen (16) students out of the eighteen (18) viewed the exercise as contributing to relevant class inquiry (mean 4.88).

Aggregating the data from the above component parts of the general attribute, adequacy of learning means, the exercise on influence received an overall rating of eighty-three (83) percent. This was well above the targeted score of seventy (70) percent; so no changes were essential on this attribute of the influence exercise.

Oral, non-structured evaluative comments from students were not particularly enlightening or plentiful regarding the attribute of adequacy of learning means. Students focused almost exclusively on learning outcomes rather than learning processes and materials in their discussions. My own impressions supported the written findings that this exercise established excellent learning conditions. Students

involved themselves with zeal in both the simulation and the debriefing. They often referred back to this exercise in terms of how well it was constructed in comparison with subsequent experiential exercises.

Effectiveness (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning and Section A, 1-3, My Administrative Capacities). The exercise on influence succeeded also in terms of its capacity for enhancing student learning. Fifteen (15) of the sixteen (16) respondents said that this exercise facilitated their achievement of learning objective one, analyzes own and other's influence in terms of its source and its rank (mean 4.88). Later, on the post-course self rating form (eight point scale) seventeen (17) of the eighteen (18) students claimed they achieved this first objective (mean 5.72). All sixteen (16) respondents believed that the exercise facilitated their achievement of the second objective, anticipates the effects that using influence in a given situation will have on self, on others, and on the organization (mean 4.94), as well as the third objective, uses an influence posture and strategy appropriate to one's power, to the situational conditions, and to the interests of the organization (mean 5.13). On the post-course self rating form (eight point scale), seventeen (17) of the eighteen (18) students said they achieved learning objective two (mean 5.67), and sixteen (16) of this group reported achieving objective three (mean 5.22).

Twelve (12) of fifteen (15) respondents on the exercise assessment form believed that the influence exercise

helped students to develop insights into administration and administrative problems (mean 4.20). Asked if the exercise was a stimulus for further learning, fourteen (14) of fifteen (15) students thought so (mean 4.93). Lastly, thirteen (13) of fifteen (15) respondents agreed that the exercise prepared them for future professional activity (mean 4.27).

Overall, students rated the exercise on influence as being about seventy-five (74.6) percent effective. This effectiveness score, being above the targeted seventy (70) percent, meant that this exercise required no further development in the effectiveness area.

Students in the discussion period spoke at length about the personal awareness that resulted from the exercise. They became aware of differences among field agencies in their power concentration and differential use of influence. Students agreed that a significant learning was their recognition in the exercise that different types of power became necessary in response to changing conditions.

Evaluative statements gave attention to this exercise's capacity "to crystalize conceptions related to power," to be more subtle in the exercise of power and to more carefully assess the person(s) to be influenced," to reflect upon "the feeling of powerlessness," to enable one to see that a person who controls certain resources can be undermined by others," to enhance an "understand(ing of) different ways of achieving and using power," to allow students "to discriminate between

effective and ineffective uses of power," and to enable learning about "the way power influences behavior in organizations."

Changes. Change suggestions were minimal. Many students recommended that the exercise be left as is. Some wanted more time for debriefing after the simulation proper and one specifically desired discussion of participant motivations during the exercise. A few thought that the written message part of the exercise either could be eliminated, or reduced, or interspersed with oral communications within the small group.

This exercise definitely can be used in the future in the same format as was employed in the project. A full three (3) hours are necessary for its use, not the minimum of two and one-fourth ( $2\frac{1}{4}$ ) hours suggested. With the additional available time, more discussion about the applicability of the exercise to various field agencies would be possible, thus addressing the exercise's only low score item. Considerations could be given to trying the exercise without the written message period; however, it seems that this period provides participants with essential time for assessing others, formulating strategies, and becoming emotionally involved in the experience without the threat of verbal interaction.

#### Informal Organization

This particular exercise, called, "The Bad Cop," met with a somewhat unfavorable reception by the thirteen (13)

students who participated in this simulation. Individual responses showed great variability. But on the whole students reported that the exercise lacked sufficient quantities of the general attributes of relevance, adequacy of learning means, and effectiveness.

Description. This exercise includes a case study which becomes the basis for the development of strategies to change an informal organization which negatively affects the formal organization's performance. The exercise simulates a city council meeting at which various community groups, such as the major's office, the police commissioner's staff, and a citizen's committee, criticize each group's plans for improving the problematic situation.

Relevance (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning). Twelve (12) of the participants said that they reacted to the simulation seriously (mean 4.62), and eleven (11) said other students reacted likewise (mean 4.62). Only six (6) of these students believed the exercise on informal organization to be applicable to their field agencies (mean 3.46). Lastly, a mere five (5) of the twelve (12) respondents viewed the simulation as realistic in its description of features of a social welfare organization (mean 3.17).

Its total relevancy level was just above sixty-six (66.3) percent, but below the target level of seventy (70) percent. Changes in this attribute of the informal organization exercise are worthy of consideration, particularly in the areas of field agency applicability and social service realism.

Some students orally objected to using policemen and not social workers as the principals in the simulation. Not all participants agreed with this criticism; some expressed the belief that the use of "bad cops" as an example made clearer the potential negative effects of some informal organizations or organizational goals while not sidetracking students to arguments about the existence of "bad social workers." One student added that the respondents do not, or will not in the future, supervise only social work personnel.

If other later recommended changes are made, perhaps the relevancy question will not be critical. Possibly, the relevancy of the informal organization exercise could be increased by helping students in the discussion period to look at their own agencies in light of what transpired during the simulation. If neither of the above possibilities affect change in the exercise's relevancy attribute, then revision of the principal roles from cops to social workers will be necessary.

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). Seven (7) of the thirteen (13) participating students found the exercise on informal organization to be stimulating (mean 3.69). Eight (8) thought that the exercise fitted the content from the lecture (mean 3.62). Eight (8) students also considered the exercise's directions to be clear (mean 4.15).

Only six (6) participants viewed the informal organization exercise as relevant to the learning needs of different

students (3.23). Asked if the exercise enabled students to learn from each other, nine (9) replied positively (mean 3.77). Twelve (12) students indicated that the exercise's debriefing questions were appropriate (mean 4.62). Reinforcement, according to six (6) of the twelve (12) respondents, occurred during some phase of the exercise (mean 3.92).

The informal organization exercise matched the interest of ten (10) of the thirteen (13) participants (mean 4.31), illustrated lecture content for seven (7) participants (mean 3.78), and enabled the practice of an administrative skill for eight (8) participants (mean 3.85). A very small number of students, four (4) of eleven (11) respondents, reported that the exercise on informal organization enabled students to use information not yet applied in the field (mean 3.00).

When questioned about this simulation's capacity for student self-reflection, nine (9) of the thirteen (13) participating students answered affirmatively (mean 4.31). Finally, on the potential of the exercise on informal organization to stimulate relevant class inquiry, again nine (9) students said "yes" (mean 4.00).

Overall, students rated the adequacy of learning means of the exercise on informal organization at a little more than sixty-four (64.4) percent. This level, being below the target level, indicated a need to further develop the learning means of this exercise. Judging from the above scores, the simulation proper, not the debriefing, needed modification.

Many respondents believed the exercise focussed too much on strategies for changing an organization's informal structure and that the process of delineating and criticizing strategies took too long in the exercise. These students wanted more attention to be given to assessing the actual development of an informal structure within a simulated organization.

Several students orally complained about the time allocation being insufficient either for the simulation proper or for the subsequent debriefing period. One person suggested that given more time, informal groups would become more evident in the exercise and could be used as examples in later analysis.

More time also might increase the learning potential of the exercise for different students. Furthermore, it could allow students more opportunities to use concepts and to reinforce learning.

Most students agreed that, because the exercise was carried over from one class period to another, the climate for learning was hurt. Some said they forgot the dynamics and feelings of the week before. Others agreed that the exercise lost its sense of immediacy through postponement.

Effectiveness (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning and Section B, 1-3, My Administrative Capacities). Only four (4) of the eleven (11) respondents claimed to achieve the first learning objective on informal organization, identifies the informal structure of an organization (mean

3.00). Six (6) of these same students reportedly achieved the second objective, evaluates the effects of the informal organization on the organization (mean 3.73). The same six (6) persons indicated that they achieved the final objective, evaluates alternative strategies for using or influencing the informal organization (mean 3.54). On the post-course questionnaire (eight point scale), fifteen (15) students from the class believed they achieved objective one (mean 5.61); fifteen (15) claimed to achieve objective two (mean 5.72); and fourteen (14) reported they achieved objective three (mean 5.50).

Ten (10) of the twelve (12) respondents to the Assessment to Learning Questionnaire believed this exercise helped students to develop insights into administration and administrative problems (4.25). Nine (9) of these twelve (12) respondents thought the exercise to be a stimulus for further learning (mean 4.08). Lastly, asked if the exercise helped to prepare themselves for professional practice, seven (7) of the twelve (12) answered positively (mean 3.83).

In response to open-ended questions about learning, all but two (2) of the participants said they learned something from this exercise. Most of these persons explained that they became more sensitive to the characteristics and effects of informal structures on formal organizations. Many made associations with informal organizations in their own agencies. A few students thought the major learning to be the types of strategies one might employ to assess and to

influence the informal structure of an organization. An unexpected learning for some was learning to better handle disagreements and criticism.

On overall effectiveness, students rated the exercise on informal organization less than sixty-seven (66.4) percent. This attribute, like the other two (2) for this exercise, was below the success criteria. This was further evidence that changing this exercise is essential for future use, especially with regard to the first learning objective, identifies the informal organization.

Changes. If used again in the School's administration program, "The Bad Cop" exercise would require changes. It can be used as is to develop planning skills for intervening in informal organizational groups. If altered, it could be used also to develop analytical skills for identifying and assessing informal groups. To accomplish both objectives, the class as a whole would be divided into two (2) large groups instead of five (5) small groups to allow for the greater development of structure, specialization, and differentiation within groups. One (1) group could play the commissioner and staff, the other group the citizens committee for better government. Each group first would individually prepare a proposal to improve the current situation. The two (2) groups then would meet for debate, not simply for criticism, of their respective proposals. Finally, debriefing would center upon examining 1) the merits of the various strategies in the two proposals, 2)

the changes in strategies that students would make as a result of the debate, and most importantly 3), the emergent informal structures (leadership, roles, norms, communication patterns, and affective ties) that developed in each of the two groups during the planning and debating process.

It is assumed that the small size of the groups (from three (3) to four (4) members each) in the original version of the exercise made the structural elements of these groups more fluid and less apparent to observers. By reducing the number of groups and in turn increasing group membership to eight (8) or nine (9) persons, it is believed that the groups will tend to develop clearer patterns of authority, interaction, affection or trust, roles, and operating norms or rules, thus making it easier for students to observe and identify these informal structures.

If so, the analytical objective as well as the planning objective could be met through this exercise. Also, less time would be spent on only developing and criticizing plans since fewer groups and consequently fewer plans would be involved.

Student criticisms should reduce after this basic change is made. If not, further development of the exercise should occur, such as replacing policemen with social work personnel as the focal subjects of the exercise.

### Leadership

The exercise, "Leadership Functions and Styles," was the least realistic of the simulations. Students voiced

concern about the relevancy and the learning materials and processes of this exercise but were in agreement that they learned from it.

Description. This exercise involved four (4) students playing different style leaders, each of whom is responsible for an airplane building task to be carried out by a group of workers (students). The class then compares the effects of varying styles of leadership upon task achievement and group morale. Obviously, this exercise did not represent a typical social service agency. However, I thought that the leadership processes structured in the exercise were sufficiently generic to warrant inclusion in the course.

Relevance (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning). Only one-half of the total class reacted seriously to this exercise on leadership (mean 3.61) and thought other students took this exercise seriously (mean 3.50). Again, nine (9) of the eighteen (18) students believed the exercise to be applicable to their field agencies (mean 3.06). Not unexpectedly, as few as six (6) of the seventeen (17) respondents said that the simulation realistically described features of a social welfare organization (mean 2.59).

The total relevancy level of the leadership exercise was slightly more than fifty-three (53.3) percent. This was well below the target score, indicating the desirability of changing this attribute completely.

During the group interview of the debriefing sessions, students were highly critical of, and most dissatisfied with, the leadership exercise which had the lowest realism of all

exercises. Student comments suggested that satisfaction in learning from a simulated exercise may be dependent upon that exercise's realism. Typical comments included, "it was hard to take the exercise seriously." "Change the exercise to make it more relevant to social work." "I couldn't apply myself to the exercise." "Pick a more appropriate exercise." "It was simplistic and irrelevant to my work experience."

Generally, then, participants asked that the exercise be made "appropriate to social work," and "relevant to the actual work situation," however, one respondent wrote, "Please, don't have the task 'related' to social work . . . as someone suggested--the topics are related already through social interaction within the groups."

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). One-half of the class found the leadership exercise stimulating (mean 3.39). Nine (9) of the seventeen (17) respondents said the fit between the lecture and exercise was good (mean 3.94). Seventeen (17) members of the total class assessed the exercise directives to be clear (mean 5.11). Ten (10) of seventeen (17) respondents believed the exercise provided opportunities for self-directed learning (mean 3.35). Only seven (7) found the leadership exercise relevant to the learning needs of different students (mean 3.00) and eight (8) said the exercise enabled them to learn from others (mean 3.22).

Asked if the exercise's debriefing questions were appropriate, twelve (12) of sixteen (16) respondents said

they were appropriate (mean 4.56). Only six (6) of fifteen (15) said that students were reinforced for good performance in the exercise (mean 3.27). Fourteen (14) of seventeen (17) students found that the exercise on leadership contained subject matter of interest to them (mean 4.76). Questioned if the exercise illustrated lecture content, eleven (11) of sixteen (16) replied affirmatively (mean 4.25). Of the fourteen (14) students responding to the question about the leadership exercise permitting skill practice, only six (6) said it did (mean 3.00). Seven (7) of fifteen (15) students claimed the exercise enabled them to use information not yet applied in the field (mean 3.13).

Seven (7) of sixteen (16) students believed that the leadership exercise encouraged more self-reflection than other learning methods did (mean 3.69). Finally on this attribute of learning means, a mere five (5) of fifteen (15) respondents assessed this exercise as leading to relevant class inquiry (mean 3.00).

The leadership exercise received an overall rating of about sixty-two (61.8) percent on its adequacy of learning means. As this attribute of the exercise was also low, the need for refining the exercise was more apparent.

Particularly weak areas identified in the above analysis were its inflexibility in meeting diverse learning needs, and its lack of opportunities for peer learning, for reinforcement, for skill practice, for applying concepts, for self-reflection, and for relevant class inquiry. The

strong areas of its learning means were its directives, debriefing questions, subject matter, and relationship to the lecture.

Several students mentioned in discussion that this exercise took too long. One pinpointed the problem of excessive time, saying it occurred in the airplane construction period of the exercise.

Some respondents said the exercise was simplistic. One student said it lacked subtlety. Another recommended that exercises should be like experiments rather than demonstrations. Students agreed that the dynamics (e.g., changing conditions, problems) of leadership should be built into the simulation proper.

One student said the learning process would be enhanced through the use of videotapes of students in leadership roles. He added that the tapes could be examined to determine each student's personal style and leadership effectiveness.

Effectiveness (items 36-43), Assessment of Learning and Section C, 1-3, My Administrative Capacities). On the first learning objective, classifies leadership styles, thirteen (13) of seventeen (17) students evaluated the exercise as positively enhancing student achievement of that objective (mean 4.29). Eight (8) of sixteen (16) respondents assessed the exercise as contributing to student attainment of objective two, analyzes the effects of varying leadership styles (mean 3.56). Regarding the final objective, identifies conditions for the appropriate use of each style of

leadership, eight (8) of seventeen (17) students assessed this exercise as promoting student achievement of this objective (mean 3.18). Noteworthy, all students reported on the post-course self-assessment form (eight point scale) that they achieved objective one (mean 6.83) and objective two (mean 6.22). Also on this form (eight point scale), sixteen (16) members of the class claimed to have achieved the third objective (mean 5.67).

Ten (10) students out of seventeen (17) believed that the exercise helped them to develop administrative insights (mean 3.71). Eleven (11) of this group evaluated the exercise as a stimulus for further learning (mean 3.76). Ten (10) of these seventeen (17) reported that the exercise prepared them for future professional activity (mean 3.59).

The exercise's overall effectiveness rating was nearly sixty-eight (67.7) percent, which was almost at the target level of seventy (70) percent. The exercise was successful on objective one and almost achieved what it was supposed to achieve on the whole. But this was not enough, judging from the amount and strength of expressed student dissatisfaction.

According to oral and open-ended written reports, growth occurred in students' awareness of their own personal reactions to certain forms of authority. Most students commented upon the leader's impact upon not only their own but also the group's functioning. For example, one person expressed surprise at her group's low tolerance

for, and inability to work with, an authoritative leader. Another stated he should not have allowed the laissez-faire group leader to upset him and the group.

For at least one student, self-reflection went beyond the experience at hand. "The impact of the exercise on me was strong. I've given a great deal of thought since to my own styles of leadership and their effects on my job."

Many participants already recognized the need for different leadership styles in different situations. For most students, the discussion after the exercise reinforced the notions that demands for a leadership style change and that a good leader is a responsive one.

Changes. A major recommendation for further development of the leadership exercise was that of providing opportunities for all participants to experience different styles of leadership. Students in the exercise performed either as, or under, a single type of leader and some claimed they could not tell what was going on in the other groups. One respondent said it this way, "The instructor should develop a means for all to observe first hand the dynamics of different leadership styles."

A second often made recommendation was to change the group task from building airplanes to doing a social service activity. One person suggested that groups be given the responsibility for completing new social work forms. A second respondent thought the task might be formulating a social service program proposal.

One student recommended that the exercise include the followers attempting to influence a leader's style. This, I believe, would facilitate a discussion of changing conditions affecting leadership requirements and would give participants an opportunity to experience the effects of attempted change.

Finally, two respondents thought this exercise should be eliminated. One said it was too elementary and the other stated it "was too simple and obvious as well as irrelevant."

Therefore, to have utility for the School's introductory course, either changes have to be made in this exercise or it has to be discarded. If discarded, a new one has to be located.

In either case, the exercise to be used in the future should aim at a higher level of experiential learning. It should involve students in experiencing or at least observing more than one leadership style in situations that are somewhat typical of human service organizations. In addition, it should allow students to directly view distinctly different situations which demand dissimilar leadership styles.

One possibility is to use the same basic group division according to different leadership styles, but changing the substance to social welfare and the format from four to two concurrent groups with the other two groups acting as "judges" or observers. In the second round, the observers would become the performers and vice-versa, and the task to be performed would be changed.

In this way, students would actively examine the effects of two leadership styles as a judge and would experience an additional leadership style. Also, comparisons could be made between the two simulated social welfare tasks in terms of the leadership styles which were used and which should have been used to accomplish their desired outcomes.

### Supervisory Tasks

The simulation, "Supervisory Task Analysis," according to respondents, had relevance but not enough of either learning means or effectiveness. The primary reason for these deficiencies in two attributes seemed to be a poor allocation of time for the simulation. Only one and one-half ( $1\frac{1}{2}$ ) of the two (2) hours of planned time were available. We chose to shorten each period of the exercise instead of delaying it. The process and outcome of learning suffered.

Description. The supervisory task exercise involves students in the setting of priorities for typical tasks of a director of a community health center. Students then engage in an in-basket experience, handling problematic situations in relation to their earlier established priorities and subsequently receiving consultation from fellow students on the strategies selected. The tasks pose dilemmas between planning and implementation, development and control, organization and staff, task functions and maintenance functions.

Relevance (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning). The simulation provoked a serious response from ten (10) of the thirteen (13) participating students (mean 4.30). These same students also thought that other students responded seriously to the exercise, too (mean 4.15). Only six (6) of the participating students found the exercise applicable to understanding their field agencies (mean 3.54). On the last sub-item of relevancy, ten (10) of twelve (12) respondents saw the exercise as realistically representing a social welfare organization (mean 4.42).

The total level of relevancy, as indicated by the students as a group, was over sixty-eight (68.3) percent. This level approached the target score, suggesting that further development of the relevancy attribute on this exercise may not be highly critical.

In the discussion period, one student thought the realism of the exercise could be enhanced by the inclusion of written materials briefly describing the goals, activities, and critical conditions of the depicted community mental health center. This student wanted clearer boundaries for his responses to the simulation's in-basket items. Others agreed with this suggestion.

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). Student opinions of the learning processes and materials of the supervisory task exercise were extremely negative. It was not surprising to find that this exercise was rated poorly on its learning means. The time planned

for it was not available. Only four (4) of the thirteen (13) participants felt stimulated by the exercise (mean 2.92). Even fewer students, two (2) of the eight (8) respondents, thought that the exercise linked well with the lecture content (mean 2.13). Nine (9) of the thirteen (13) participants found the directions for the exercise on supervisory tasks to be clear (mean 4.00). Asked if the exercise provided opportunities for self-directed learning, six (6) of the participants replied positively (mean 3.46).

Seven (7) of twelve (12) respondents saw the exercise as relevant to diverse learning needs of students (mean 3.25). Learning from others was possible in this exercise for six (6) of the thirteen (13) participants (mean 3.08). Seven (7) of eleven (11) students perceived the exercise on supervisory tasks to be appropriate (mean 4.18). One-half of the twelve (12) respondents claimed that the exercise on supervisory tasks allowed for reinforcement of good performance (mean 3.67). Of the thirteen (13) participants, ten (10) expressed interest in the subject matter of the exercise (mean 4.31). Only two (2) of six (6) respondents believed this exercise illustrated content from the lecture (mean 3.00.).

Six (6) of thirteen (13) participating students reported that this supervisory exercise enabled them to practice an administrative skill (mean 3.62). Four (4) of eleven (11) respondents stated that the exercise enabled them to use information not yet used in their field practice

(mean 2.73). Asked about self-reflection opportunities, seven (7) of twelve (12) respondents thought the exercise provided these (mean 3.50). Lastly, only four (4) of ten (10) students believed this supervisory exercise led to more relevant class inquiry than did other classroom learning methods (mean 3.30).

For its overall rating of adequacy of learning means, the exercise on supervisory tasks got a low fifty-seven (56.9) percent. Obviously, this indicated that changes were necessary here. However, insufficient time was probably the major reason for students judging the exercise as providing minimal learning conditions. Further development of this particular attribute of the exercise probably should await additional testing of this exercise with the prescribed amount of time assured.

Students expressed feelings of being rushed and unrelated to the exercise's events because of time pressures. Students made comments about their need for more preparation for the exercise, their inability "to develop an analysis of the situations . . . within the time constraints," and their need for time for group discussion of the different strategies that students used to handle the in-basket items which were part of the exercise. Time lack was a uniform complaint.

All written recommendations pertained to time considerations. These included such suggestions as allow more time for directions, for discussion, and for personal analysis

of in-box items. One student stated it plainly, "Don't rush us!"

One participant believed that greater learning would occur if each person in the small group discussed his or her written responses to all six (6) in-basket items, rather than orally indicating how he or she would handle a single situation. By discussing the merits of their respective strategies on each item, students could feel more personally involved in the total exercise.

Effectiveness (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning and Section E, 1-3, My Administrative Capacities). This supervisory exercise also received low ratings on effectiveness. Eight (8) of twelve (12) respondents perceived the exercise as facilitating the achievement of learning objective one, identifies priorities in supervision (mean 3.83). One-half of these twelve (12) saw this supervisory exercise as contributing to the achievement of objective two, responds purposively to problems of program implementation (mean 3.75). Only three (3) of this same group viewed the exercise as helpful toward achieving objective three, delegates responsibility clearly (mean 3.00). On the post-course self-evaluation (eight point scale), all eighteen (18) students reported they achieved the first objective (mean 6.00), sixteen (16) the second objective (mean 5.67), and seventeen (17) the third objective (mean 6.11).

Seven (7) of twelve (12) respondents held the opinion that the exercise on supervisory tasks helped to develop

administrative insights (mean 3.50). Of thirteen (13) respondents, seven (7) believed the exercise to be a stimulus for further learning (mean 3.31), and six (6) thought it helped to prepare them for future professional activity (mean 3.31).

Overall, this supervisory exercise earned a rating of sixty-five (65.6) percent on its effectiveness. Below the target score, changes to improve effectiveness seemed to be indicated. Uniformly weak in all characteristics which comprise this attribute, general change is suggested.

Students spoke about learning from the exercise. They said they learned about the nature of supervisory tasks in mental health, about the problems of balancing often conflictual supervisory functions, and about options for solving supervisory problems. Yet, all agreed that learning was minimal because of time pressures.

Changes. Basically, targets of further development cannot adequately be determined since this exercise was not conducted under the proper conditions. However, besides allowing the scheduled time, students could benefit, it seems, from a description of the community mental health agency simulated in this exercise. The description might include locale, size, divisions, budget, personnel, programs, clientele, and current pressures. This addition to the learning materials should improve relevance, learning means, and possibly effectiveness, as well.

In addition, consideration should be given to the student's suggestion that students in small groups compare their responses to in-basket items. Not only might it involve students more thoroughly in the exercise, but new ideas about handling supervisory problems might emerge.

### Performance Appraisal

"Developing Effective Managers: Performance Appraisal" had high ratings on all measures of simulation characteristics. All participants reacted favorably and indicated that they learned from the exercise.

Description. In groups of three, two students simulate an interview in which a superior evaluates the job performance of a subordinate. The third student acts the role of consultant who observes and critiques the interview in an attempt to help the superior to better assess employees. The roles rotate so that each person plays each of the three roles, superior, subordinate, and consultant/observer. The simulation scenario changes in each of the three instances.

Relevance (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning). Of the sixteen (16) students who participated in this exercise, fifteen (15) viewed it seriously (mean 5.38) and said others did so, too (mean 5.25). All participants viewed the exercise as relevant to their field agency (mean 5.06) and realistic in its depiction of a social service agency (mean 5.38).

Its overall relevance score was nearly eighty-eight (87.8) percent. The performance appraisal exercise, therefore,

was well above the success standard of seventy (70) percent and changes in this attribute seemed unnecessary.

Students spoke of the simulation as being very realistic in depicting the complexities of appraisal situations. They agreed that the roles were representative of those in the real world. They offered no suggestions for changing this exercise's characteristics of relevance.

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). Students also evaluated the performance appraisal exercise very positively on its provision of good conditions for learning. All sixteen (16) participants found this exercise to be stimulating (mean 5.44). Fifteen (15) of this group saw a good fit between this exercise and the lectures on supervisory processes (mean 4.88). Fourteen (14) judged the exercise's directives to be clear (mean 4.88). All students believed the performance appraisal exercise provided opportunities for self-directed learning (mean 5.31) and was relevant to the diverse learning needs of students (mean 5.31). Fifteen (15) of the participants said the exercise enabled them to learn from others (mean 5.06).

Of the fifteen (15) students who responded to a question about the appropriateness of the exercise's debriefing questions, thirteen (13) replied they were appropriate (mean 4.67). All participants claimed students reinforced good performance in this exercise (mean 5.31). Fifteen (15) of this group of sixteen (16) participating

students stated they were interested in the subject matter in the exercise (5.50).

When asked if the exercise illustrated lecture content, twelve (12) of fourteen (14) respondents answered affirmatively (mean 4.93). All fifteen (15) respondents said that the performance appraisal exercise enabled them to practice an administrative skill (mean 5.53). Thirteen (13) of fifteen (15) expressed the opinion that this supervisory exercise enabled them to apply concepts they had not applied in their field practice (mean 4.53). Fourteen (14) of the sixteen (16) participants thought that the exercise enabled personal reflections about one's own feelings and attitudes (mean 5.06). Finally, twelve (12) of fifteen (15) students believed this exercise allowed greater inquiry into the subject matter than did other classroom learning methods (mean 4.73).

The performance appraisal exercise received an overall score of almost eight-five (84.8) percent on its means for learning. This attribute, too, was above the target score, so its further development was not required.

Yet, in discussions many students expressed the belief that the observer's role could be strengthened. Some said this could be done by simply providing the observer with the role descriptions of the supervisor and supervisee. Others stated that the directions for the evaluation process which follows each role play could be written to highlight the necessity of involving all three parties, not just the observer, in the evaluation of the role play.

Both of these suggestions would provide more feedback to not only the role players, but to the observers as well. Observers, having read the role descriptions before the role play, could concentrate less on the substance and more on the process. Directions for the evaluation process, in addition to the guidelines for observations, should assure that the evaluative period is not only a reporting time for the observer but is also a time for mutual analysis of the process that occurred. Feedback to the observer on his or her observations also could result.

Effectiveness (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning and Section E, 4-5, My Administrative Capacities). On this attribute as well, the exercise on performance appraisal was successful. Fifteen (15) of the sixteen (16) participants found the exercise helpful in achieving both learning objectives, demonstrates mutual problem-solving with subordinates (mean 5.13), and provides appraisal feedback that meets specified criteria (mean 5.06). On the self-assessment of achievement form (eight point scale), all eighteen (18) students evaluated themselves as having achieved the first objective (mean 5.83), and sixteen (16) as having achieved the second objective (mean 5.61).

All sixteen (16) respondents to the exercise-evaluation questionnaire expressed opinions that the exercise helped to develop relevant insights (mean 5.13) and provided a stimulus for further learning (mean 5.25). Lastly, fifteen (15) of the sixteen (16) participants believed this

supervisory exercise played a part in preparing them for future professional activity (mean 4.94).

The overall effectiveness level for the performance appraisal exercise was about eighty (79.9) percent. Meeting the success criteria meant changes did not have to be made in this attribute.

Students in discussions mentioned diversified learnings from this exercise. Among the learnings they said occurred were personal insights into one's own evaluation style, into one's reactions to alternative evaluation styles, and into the process of evaluation. Additionally, students identified learning about techniques of a good evaluation, approaches to discussing supervisee problems in conferences, and the value of understanding another's perspective before taking action.

Changes. This exercise can be used in its present state. However, it can be improved through two minor revisions. First, duplicate sufficient quantities of all role descriptions and provide the observers with both roles, while also distributing one role description to each role player. Second, delineate directions for the evaluative process which is to occur after each of the three (3) rounds of role play. Include in this description an emphasis on the involvement of all three (3) persons in the assessment of the role players and in the assessment of the observer as well.

### Formal Organization

Participants generally liked the exercise, "Comparative Organizational Analysis: Hard Rock Prison and Sweet Joint Correctional Center." All respondents claimed they learned something from the experience. It met the success criteria on all three (3) general attributes, relevance, adequacy of learning means, and effectiveness.

Description. This exercise enables students to use an analytical framework to evaluate a total organizational system. The framework is a systems approach described in the course text, Organization and Management: A Systems Approach, by Kast and Rosenzweig.<sup>1</sup> Students alone and in small leaderless groups compare a closed prison system and an open community-based rehabilitative system in terms of their environmental influences, goals, technologies, structures, personnel, and management.

Relevance (items 06-09, Assessment of Learning). As indicated before, this attribute received good evaluations from students. Eleven (11) of the thirteen (13) participating students said the exercise could be taken seriously by themselves and by other students (for both: mean 4.46). Eleven (11) participants also indicated the exercise applied to their field agencies (mean 4.54) and realistically described features of a social service organization (mean 4.69).

On the total evaluation of relevance, this exercise scored over seventy-five (75.6) percent. Considered

successful, this attribute of the formal organization exercise required no further development.

In the group and informal interviews, students repeatedly said the case materials adequately reflected the real world. But one student suggested the use of another organization to analyze, one that is more complex and not so obviously open or closed to environmental exchanges.

Adequacy of Learning Means (items 10-23, Assessment of Learning). The formal organization exercise achieved the standard on its provisions for learning. Only in three (3) sub-areas, opportunities for reinforcement, illustration of lecture content, and opportunity for self-reflection, the exercise received a mean average of less than four (4.00). Regarding the first low sub-area, nine (9) of twelve (12) respondents believed the exercise provided reinforcement opportunities (mean 3.92). Only six (6) of ten (10) respondents claimed the exercise illustrated lecture material (mean 3.90). And nine (9) of twelve (12) said the exercise enabled self-reflection (mean 3.75).

On all other characteristics of learning means, the formal organization exercise received high scores from students. Twelve (12) of thirteen (13) students said it was stimulating (mean 4.31). Eight (8) of eleven (11) respondents evaluated the fit between the lecture and the exercise as good (mean 4.45). All thirteen (13) participants found the directions of the formal organization exercise to be clear (mean 5.15). Eleven (11) from this

group assessed this exercise as providing opportunities for self-directed learning (mean 4.85). Each of the eleven (11) respondents answered affirmatively the question on the appropriateness of the exercise to different needs of students (mean 4.82). Ten (10) of the participating students believed the exercise enabled peer learning (mean 4.38).

Nine (9) of ten (10) respondents assessed the exercise's debriefing questions very positively (mean 5.20). For twelve (12) of the participants, the exercise on formal organization related to their substantive interest (mean 4.77). Nine (9) of twelve (12) respondents reacted favorably to the exercise's capacities both for enabling skill-practice (mean 4.25) and for encouraging relevant class inquiry (mean 4.08). Lastly, ten (10) of the participating students claimed the exercise enabled students to use concepts that they had not yet used in the field (mean 4.23).

Students evaluated the learning means of the exercise on formal organization at an overall adequacy level of almost seventy-four (73.9) percent. This rating met the success standards of the project, requiring no changes in this attribute.

Oral criticisms were few and centered mostly around time constraints. Students wanted more time either for introductory comments by the instructor or for debriefing after the experience. Apparently, the time allotted for the experiential phase was sufficient.

One participant voiced concern that the two situations depicted in the exercise were too polar. He said that,

because of this, the discussion "lent itself to black-white, hard-soft comparisons." A few respondents agreed with this but most did not. Some who opposed this viewpoint said that the dichotomy facilitated a quick mastery of complex ideas and skills. Others stated that the effects of the inter-relationships within an organization and between it and its environment would be less clear in situations of greater subtlety or less polarity.

Effectiveness (items 36-43, Assessment of Learning and Section G, 1-3, My Administrative Competencies). On all dimensions of effectiveness, the formal organization exercise received positive evaluations from students. Eleven (11) of the thirteen (13) respondents perceived the exercise as facilitative of objective one, describes the organization in terms of the attributes and processes of its subsystems and environment (mean 4.77). Nine (9) participants assessed the exercise positively on its second and third objectives, analyzes internal organizational interrelationships (mean 4.08), and evaluates the effects of environmental exchanges (mean 4.15). Fifteen (15) of the eighteen (18) students assessed themselves on the self-evaluation form (eight point scale) as having achieved the first objective (mean 5.50) and the third objective (mean 5.33). Regarding the achievement of the second objective, twelve (12) of these eighteen (18) students evaluated themselves positively (mean 5.22) on the self evaluation form (eight point scale).

Of the thirteen (13) students who participated in the exercise on formal organization, twelve (12) believed the

exercise stimulated insights into administration (mean 4.69). Twelve (12) of this group also found the exercise to be a stimulus for further learning (mean 4.77). Lastly, on characteristics of effectiveness, eleven (11) of twelve (12) respondents assessed the exercise as helpful in preparing them for future professional practice (mean 4.83).

The exercise's aggregate rating on effectiveness was just over seventy-one (71.3) percent. Though close to the established standard, the exercise met the criteria for success on this attribute.

In discussion and in response to open-ended questions, students said their learning included insights into "the multitude of forces acting upon an organization," "the interrelationship of organizational subsystems," "the organization as a system of interacting parts," and "the systems approach for analyzing organizations." Many students believed the exercise increased their understanding of, and ability to use, concepts from their texts, and gave them the ability to use an analytical framework to obtain a total picture of an agency.

One student wondered if such a framework, especially an elaborate and complicated one, is essential to learn. Another responded that this comprehensive approach made it more likely for someone who is analyzing an agency to pinpoint its problems, strengths, and interrelationships.

Changes. I believe that the exercise should be used as it now is with more time allotted, if possible, for

introducing the experience and for discussion of it afterward. It seems that most students need assurance about their ability to use systems concepts. This exercise provides that assurance. It is a first step in using a systems approach in organizational analysis. The first step necessarily is small.

Students later can be expected to apply the systems approach to their own field agency. A term paper requirement can be made in the following semester as a means of sequentially building a student's skills through application of a system's approach to a more complex situation and to one that has potential for distorted perspectives due to a student's own ego involvement in that agency.

#### Effects of Experiential Exercises on Achievement.

For heuristic purposes, the project took a preliminary look at the relationship between student achievement and experiential exercises as a teaching methodology. It compared student perceptions of their own learning in course units with exercises to their perceptions of learning in course units without exercises.

As indicated in Table 2, in Course Units 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7, which had experiential exercises, students achieved the combined objectives of these units at a self-reported level of approximately seventy-two (72) percent. In those units without exercises, Units 4, 6 and 8, the class claimed to only achieve objectives at approximately a sixty (60) percent level.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS  
WITH AND WITHOUT EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES

Course Units		Student Perceived Achievement of Course Objectives	
		Percentage*	Rank
With Exercises	1. Influence	69.2%	4
	2. Informal Organization	70.1%	3
	3. Leadership	78.0%	1
	5. Supervision	73.1%	2
	7. Formal Organization	66.4%	6
Combined Average**		71.6%**	
Without Exercises	4. Personnel Management	63.2%	7
	6. Union Negotiation	55.7%	8
	8. Goals and Goal Setting	67.7%	5
Combined Average**		60.2%**	

\*Percentages are based upon the sum of students' raw scores on the post-course questionnaire divided by the total possible score for a unit.

\*\*Combined Averages are based upon the sum of the raw scores for all units with or without exercises in relation to the total possible score for those units.

Looking at individual course units, however, students' perceptions of their achievement were not always higher for every unit with an exercise compared to those without. In one case, Unit 8 (Goals and Goal Setting) without an exercise had a higher level of self-reported achievement than did Unit 7 (Formal Organization) with an exercise. Yet, the

difference is about one percentage point and is probably insignificant.

That experiential exercises may improve self-perceptions of achievement becomes less evident when consideration is given to the pre-course achievement levels of students, as reported by students on the Pre-Course Data form. One expects that pre-course unit achievement levels will affect post-course unit achievement levels. Data from the project suggests that this is the case, as may be seen in Table 3. In six (6) of the eight (8) course units of learning, the data suggested a positive relationship between pre-course and post-course scores.

As shown in Table 4, the two (2) largest rates of growth in student achievement occurred in the course units which did not have experiential exercises, and the third largest occurred in a unit with an exercise. Those greatest growth rates, occurring in Units 6 (Union Negotiations), 4 (Personnel Management), and 7 (Formal Organization), respectively, took place in the units where students rated themselves the most poorly at the beginning of the course. Hence, the higher growth rates likely correlated less with experiential exercises than with lower pre-course unit perceived achievement levels. Low pre-course achievement left greater room for student change or development during the course. Such a regression toward the mean between the pre-test and post-test periods is not atypical.<sup>2</sup>

TABLE 3

COMPARISON OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF ACHIEVEMENT OF COURSE OBJECTIVES  
BEFORE AND AFTER THE COURSE - BY EXPERIENTIAL  
AND NON-EXPERIENTIAL UNITS

Course Units		Student Achievement*						r**	P
		Before			After				
		Mean	S.D.	Var.	Mean	S.D.	Var.		
With Exer- cises	1. Influence	14.83	4.30	17.47	16.61	3.22	9.79	.53	.05
	2. Informal Organization	13.67	4.27	17.22	16.83	3.07	9.44	.54	.05
	3. Leadership	14.44	4.94	23.02	18.72	2.37	5.62	.17	--
	5. Supervision	26.94	7.56	53.94	29.22	3.80	14.42	.53	.05
	7. Formal Organization	11.89	5.09	24.43	15.94	2.71	7.35	.05	--
Without Exer- cises	4. Personnel Management	7.33	3.53	11.78	10.11	2.17	4.69	.49	.05
	6. Union Negotiation	13.88	9.80	90.46	22.29	8.07	65.10	.52	.05
	8. Goals and Goal Setting	8.61	3.48	11.46	10.83	2.43	5.91	.60	.01

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\*Student achievement data is based upon individual student raw scores.

\*\* Correlation coefficients are based upon correlations of before and after raw scores of each student.

TABLE 4

A COMPARISON OF EXPERIENTIAL AND NON-EXPERIENTIAL COURSE UNITS FOR GROWTHS IN PERCEIVED ACHIEVEMENT

Course Units		Student Achievement				Mean Growth Rates:	
		T <sub>1</sub>		T <sub>2</sub>		T <sub>1</sub> to T <sub>2</sub>	
		Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Percentage	Rank
With Exercises	1	14.83	2	16.61	5	12.0%	7
	2	13.67	5	16.83	4	23.1%	6
	3	14.44	3	18.72	3	29.6%	4
	5	26.94	1	29.22	1	8.5%	8
	7	11.89	6	15.94	6	34.1%	3
Without Exercises	4	7.33	8	10.11	8	37.9%	2
	6	13.88	4	22.29	2	60.6%	1
	8	8.61	7	10.83	7	25.8%	5

Note: rho T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub> = .98, P = .01; rho T<sub>1</sub>, Growth = .73, P = .01; rho T<sub>2</sub>, Growth = .79, P = .01.

In summary, students in this project typically reported higher achievement levels in course units with exercises than in those without exercises. However, greater reported growth usually occurred in course units without exercises, probably due to students having low pre-course achievement levels in these units.

These project findings raise questions for future research about experiential exercises and achievement. Does the presence of an experiential exercise in a course unit of learning really affect student perceptions of achievement? How much learning occurs in a course unit regardless of

content or pedagogical method? Could a given topic itself be responsible for some growth? Do students who learn also gain a totally new perspective which prevents them from perceiving their progression in learning?

### Summary

This chapter analyzed the utility of structured experiential exercises in the introductory course for administration majors at the Hunter College School of Social Work. It addressed the impact on students of six (6) particular exercises which were selected and developed for this course. Students favorably evaluated three (3) of the six (6) exercises on the general attributes of relevance, adequacy of learning means, and effectiveness. The exercises found to require significant alterations pertained to informal organization, leadership, and supervisory tasks. The project considered options for improving all exercises and made recommendations for their refinement or substitution.

To generate future research questions, the project also combined data to compare student learning in course units that had experiential exercises to student learning in course units that had no such exercises. Achievement differences were apparent in these units of the project. Also, there was evidence of a positive relationship between pre-course and post-course achievement levels of students in this project. The project lastly identified specific questions about the relationship between experiential exercises, achievement, and other intervening variables.

## CHAPTER III

### Notes and References

1. Fremont E. Kast and James E. Rosenzweig. Organization and Management: A Systems Approach. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1974.

2. Scarvia B. Anderson, Samuel Ball, Richard T. Murphy, and Associates. Encyclopedia of Educational Evaluation. San Francisco: Josey-Bass Publishers, 1975. p. 321.

## CHAPTER IV

### CONCLUSIONS

#### Introduction

This chapter evaluates the projects and its conclusions. It also considers the inferences which might be drawn and the implications of this project for further investigation. This final chapter specifically addresses the following questions: 1) What might have been done differently in this project? 2) What conclusions can be formulated about the use of simulations in social work education for administrative practice? 3) What are the implications of this formative study for future research?

#### Assessment of the Project

The safest way of evaluating new pedagogical materials was thought to be a formative, action-oriented investigation which emphasizes immediate utilization rather than generalization of the knowledge gained from an evaluation. The investigation had features of simplicity, economy, and immediacy of feedback, all of which seem necessary in the design and study of new teaching materials.

The quasi-experimental result was a balance between efficiency and effectiveness in the investigation. It lacked rigor but provided precise information for planning for the revision of the tested simulations.

The key variables of the study were three (3) simulation attributes. The attributes which were studied

included relevancy, adequacy of learning means, and effectiveness.

The project employed two (2) instruments to obtain and record student judgments about their own achievements and about the characteristics of a given simulation. These instruments utilized rating scales in order to direct student attention either to clearly defined behavioral objectives or to specific aspects of a simulation. These scales provided students with a common frame of reference for their judgments and enabled quantification of the data.

In the case of the achievement self-rating scale, question must be raised about its reliability as a means of evaluating student competency and pedagogical effectiveness. Such factors as student expectations for achievement and change, student participation in a study of experiential exercises, student projection of "good" personal images, and my own attitude toward this project, must be considered for their reactive effects upon student self-assessments. Self ratings must be compared with ratings by others, such as job supervisors, other teachers, and peers, to determine their accuracy and to bring greater certainty to judgments about a student's ability to perform administrative behaviors not only in simulations but also in real work situations.

Self-ratings do have potential benefits. Gronlund argues that they help the student to "1) understand better the objectives of the course, 2) recognize more clearly the progress he is making toward the objectives, 3) diagnose

more effectively his own particular strengths and weaknesses, and 4) develop increased skill in self-evaluation."<sup>1</sup> He adds that self-reports are invaluable to the educator because they provide insights into student self-perceptions on learning and may motivate students toward course goals.

Regarding student evaluation of the characteristics of the six (6) tested simulations, a search of the literature determined the unavailability of an appropriate instrument to assess the attitudes of students on an exercise's relevancy, learning means, and effectiveness. The instrument constructed for the project, consisting of open-ended and closed-ended questions, lacked technical sophistication. Its validity and reliability were uncertain. Furthermore, it was likely too lengthy, possibly causing student fatigue and inaccuracies during its completion. A further development of the exercise-evaluation instrument's usability is indicated.

An in-depth statistical analysis of student responses on the exercise-evaluation questionnaire is recommended. Computer analysis of each item and its correlation with each other item is desired for determining overlap, ambiguities, omissions, and consistencies. Additional field testing of the instrument is required.

Supporting the self-rating instruments were direct observations of class attitudes and performance during structured experiences as well as formal and informal interviews with the class and individual members. Direct

observations were necessarily broad in scope because of the size of the class. Observations of individual students were not possible. Class observations focused upon 1) detecting the extent to which the class was performing targeted behaviors and 2) inferring the types of attitudes toward the simulation that students expressed through their verbal and non-verbal behaviors.

Formal interviews were taped for later content analysis. Again, attitudes underlying the behavior were assessed as were student responses to such direct questions about the simulation as: "What did you like about the simulation?" "What did you dislike?" "What would you change?" "How would you improve it?" "What did you learn?"

To what extent students viewed the data collection processes as reflecting upon themselves in some way cannot be determined. Also, the impact of my assurances that grades would not be affected by student participation could not be discovered. Furthermore, how my own presence, my characteristics, and my attitudes affected student responses during observations and interviews, could not be ascertained. Students, who wanted to convey a positive self-image or who wanted to please the instructors, can be expected to have responded favorably to the exercises regardless of their personal beliefs.

The data collection procedures allowed for the discovery of new information about the simulations and their use. The methods of investigation did not specify all the

information to be obtained. Areas of learning from a simulation were a case in point. Predicting this data was partially possible in the sense that learning objectives were delineated. However, a fuller understanding of the impact and utility of an exercise became probable through open-ended questions on the questionnaire and through involvement of participants in a discussion about the exercise's attributes, processes, outcomes, and potential.

The investigation was hampered by the lack of available tested instruments for collecting and measuring complex data in social work education for administrative practice. The issue of instrument reliability was addressed in the study through the use of several opinion measures, that is, questionnaires, observations, and interviews. The aims of assessment purposefully were limited to gaining initial knowledge about specific experiential exercises in order to improve them for immediate use without wasting effort and time on the development of much needed, sophisticated investigation and measurement procedures.

The participants in this study of the utility of six (6) experiential exercises were eighteen (18) students enrolled in the introductory course for administration majors in the Fall of 1977. This group was available and offered the best possibility for evaluating the utility of simulations in the administration curriculum at the School. The project considered the appropriateness of this group in relation to others and the possibility of comparing this

group's attributes with that of the national population of students in graduate social work and specifically in management concentrations. The project report detailed the group's attributes but found that comparisons with other populations could not be made due to the unavailability of such data. Generalizations beyond this class of students therefore were not feasible. Yet, there was an implicit assumption that the findings could be used in refining the tested simulations for the next group of students coming into this introductory course, even though this next group may not resemble the study group in any way.

Descriptive statistics were primarily employed in the study to systematically summarize and clarify the findings. Frequencies, ranges, means, variance, and standard deviations were used.

The study found three (3) of the six (6) exercises to have utility in terms of student opinions regarding their relevance, learning means, and effectiveness. The target level of seventy (70) percent established for the presence of these attributes of exercises seemed realistic. Yet, verbal reports about student evaluations of graduate instructors suggest that students rate faculty and their instruction at low to medium levels. If so, a sixty (60) percent target level for new materials may be more valid.

The exercises which were determined to have utility were influence, performance appraisal, and formal organization. The results suggested that changes be made in the

exercises on informal organization and supervisory tasks and that the exercise on leadership possibly be replaced. For each exercise the findings pinpointed specific areas where improvements can be made. The study also made change recommendations for each exercise.

#### Use of Simulations: Inferences and Implications

Information gained from this study implies that simulations have utility in social work education for administrative practice. While definitive conclusions about the use of simulated experiences must await further study, the project findings suggest tentative practice principles or pragmatic action directives for social work educators interested in utilizing this study either in practice or in future research.

Impact. The use of simulations has certain observed meritorious qualities. When exercises are combined with lectures and discussions, much learning seems to occur. However, the nature of the learning is not always predictable.

Social work students of administration often reported that from a simulation they gained knowledge and skills which the learning objectives did not cover. Their learnings were not only substantive, but personal as well.

Project examples of unanticipated learning were numerous and occurred even in the less well received exercises. An illustration of unexpected learning in the exercise on informal organization was an increased skill for some students in handling conflict and criticism, and in

the leadership exercise some insights into group process and group leadership. Also, in the highly regarded exercise on influence students became increasingly sensitive to differences among field agencies in their concentrations and use of power. Some planned and some serendipitous learning seemed to result from any exercise.

Simulated exercises provide students with opportunities to develop an increased awareness of themselves and others. After a simulation, project students often commented about the knowledge they gained about themselves through their performance and through their reflections about the impact others have on them. Students also said they achieved greater sensitivity for other's reactions and feelings as a result of examining the effects of their performance on fellow participants.

In social work practice, such awareness of self and others is highly desirable if not essential. Simulations offer great possibilities in this area.

Simulations allow students to immediately apply theory. Administration students cannot always do this in their field work. These students at times suffer from not having a broad range of field tasks assigned to them. Simulated experiences can compensate to some degree for those gaps in direct experiences. By offering a facsimile of real work processes, they can supplement direct field experiences that otherwise might not be available to social work students. For example, since all administrative students do not supervise employees in their field education,

they may not learn to appraise a subordinate's performance unless, as in the project, a simulated experience is provided to them.

Applying theory immediately seems to increase the relevance of that theory for students as indicated in the project by student statements that course content became clear or meaningful once students had a chance to use it in a given simulation. A particular case in point is the exercise on formal organization in which students applied the conceptual framework of their text to the comparative analysis of penal settings and reacted very favorably to their opportunity to do so. Students tend to agree that as a result of immediate application of theory such knowledge less likely is lost and more likely is integrated and used later by students in their daily practice.

Furthermore, simulations offer diversity in classroom experiences. Project students, for example, reported that experiential exercises broke the monotony of learning from a single method. They said that simulations are exciting, involving, and demanding of their concentration.

Thus, simulations, it seems, not only affect students' learning but also their satisfaction with learning. Such potential impact should not be ignored by either educators in their planning for the development of students or researchers in their planning for the further development of knowledge about educational methodology.

Educational Principles. The use of simulations enables the structuring of a learning environment that is

both appealing and productive. Simulations thereby become respectable vehicles for the application of the educational principles identified in the first chapter of this report.

First, experiential exercises did actively involve students in the educational process. Students in the project could not remain passive listeners or observers. By design, students participated in prescribed activities aimed at concept application and skill development. In simulations, students learned by doing.

In the exercise on influence, for example, students intently engaged in first judging others' power and then acting accordingly to influence a decision in a board meeting. They not only learned concepts of power and influence but also learned to apply them in a simulated administrative situation. Furthermore, through active involvement, students were able to enhance their particular interactional skills.

Another benefit of the active involvement of students, derived from their working together in simulations, was the fast development of a sense of group identity. Watching each other perform and work together, students got to know each other quickly. In this way, they likely found new friends and formed their own mutual support systems faster.

A second educational principle achieved in simulations was self-directed learning. Students did assume personal responsibility for the conduct and direction of an experiential exercise. Moreover, students were free to make choices about their own behavior within a simulation and thus to

learn about the effects of any particular option. In this way, students took risks and tested ideas that usually are not possible in the actual work world.

To illustrate, in the supervisory task analysis exercise, a student set his or her own priorities for the tasks assigned to a mental health director and handled problematic situations in relation to the personally chosen priorities. In other words, each student made his or her own decisions and took action based on those decisions. Nobody dictated a solution to a student; instead, fellow group members later helped each other to assess personal solutions and to weigh alternatives. Thus, much of the learning in this exercise, and similarly in the other exercises, resulted from individual choice and peer review.

Education should be relevant to student capacities and needs was the third educational principle realized through simulations. Following from the second principle, when students, within the limits of an exercise, directed their own learning and had choices, they seemed to achieve a learning level and a learning outcome that corresponded to their capabilities and requirements.

Students in the project had diverse backgrounds and experiences. Their competencies and learning needs obviously were quite distinct. Even so, all students reported learning from the same simulations. However, as previously indicated, learning that was unique to an individual or to a segment of the class often occurred too. Thus, simulations

stimulated variations in learning, allowing for personal differences among students in their interests and capacities.

A fourth educational principle, to provide alternative role models to students, became evident in the simulated experiences of this project. Whatever students did in a simulation, some students were better at it than others and thereby served as potential models for the others. Supporting this conclusion were general comments made by various students throughout the project. "I liked how \_\_\_\_\_ handled the \_\_\_\_\_." Or, "I don't know if I could do it as well as \_\_\_\_\_ did."

Simulations also demonstrated a fifth educational principle, having work relevance, when the exercises were well constructed. Chapter Three documented this principle in practice in detail. In general, it seemed that the more time spent in examining the transfer of the simulated experience to the real world, the more positively the students evaluated the exercise.

However, even in well constructed simulations, students point out an exercise's inability to fully capture the complexity, uncertainty, and confusion of their field agencies. It appears as if no simulation was or can be totally successful in regard to work relevance. In other words, simulations modeled the real world, but did not replicate it.

Regarding job relevance, students tend to expect more from any simulation than it can deliver. It is therefore

imperative that the limited purpose of a given simulation be made clear. Additionally, reminders should be given to students that simulations cannot cover all possibilities of practice but can serve to stimulate ideas and discussions about related practice elements.

Project simulations manifested a sixth principle of education, that of student involvement in the evaluation of learning processes and outcomes. This was inherent in the structure designed for this project; students played a major role in the assessment of each exercise in terms of its learning means and ends.

But even when a formal study of experiential exercises is not undertaken, debriefing is essential to an exercise. It is in this final discussion that the processes and outcomes are summarized, assessed, and transferred to new situations.

In those cases where project students had insufficient time for debriefing, they were extremely critical of the learning experience. Given the opportunity, they eagerly participated in personal reflections about their motivations, actions, and reactions during an exercise and just as eagerly made recommendations to change an exercise to make the experience more satisfying and/or effective.

Student involvement in evaluation has particular merit in a profession such as social work, which is concerned with socialization of students into its tenets. How judgment is exercised ethically often becomes a focus of such

evaluations. Typical of questions about ethical behavior raised by students in this project are "What is 'right'?" "What should I have done?" "Should social work administrators always involve clients in planning?" "What if the administrator and community are in conflict?" Instead of simply being told about ethics, students experience ethical issues in simulated practice situations.

The debriefing discussions which follow simulations purposefully stimulated students to compare strategies and behaviors. Thus, distinctions between certain prescribed and proscribed behaviors of the profession become apparent as did cautions to consider in carrying out one's responsibility. For example, during the experiential exercise on influence, some students used, or considered using, coercion in the decision-making processes of a board, thereby eliciting relevant ethical questions about coercion, its use, and its effects.

Concluding this discussion of applied principles, simulations provided many opportunities for the reinforcement of learning. Students in the performance appraisal exercise, for example, were formally evaluated by their peers on their skills in developing staff through supervision. Students received positive feedback for the application of a sound problem-solving approach in their assigned task. Of course, they received corrective feedback too. The supervisory task analysis exercise followed a similar procedure. The feedback was immediate; students said it was very helpful

to them in their efforts to improve their administrative skills.

Some exercises established conditions where successful behaviors were rewarded with "winning." This was true in the exercises related to influence and informal organization.

In all exercises, students had opportunities in the debriefing sessions to have their judgments and actions reviewed and then reinforced if indicated. Both faculty and fellow students participated in this type of reinforcement.

On the whole, simulations have the capacity to incorporate important principles of learning. Well constructed exercises actively involve students in the learning process, allow for maximum self-direction, are learner-relevant, offer alternative role models, are relevant to organizational/administrative processes in the social services, engage students in a critical evaluation of learning outcomes and processes, and provide reinforcement for appropriate learning.

Considerations. Simulations require great time and effort in their development and testing. This project took one year to locate applicable experiential exercises and to adapt them for use in the School's introductory course, a half-year to administer the exercises and to collect data, and another half-year to analyze the data and prepare a report. Time reductions are possible by eliminating a reporting requirement for example. Yet, this overall developmental process still consumes large amounts of energy

and time. A clearing house for the dissemination of tested experiential exercises in administrative social work practice is desirable because of its potential for reducing the need for everyone developing simulations on a given topic.

Simulations also require ample utilization time. Some simulations run for three hours and longer, though most are under three hours. Extending class hours and reducing planned lectures to accommodate the addition of experiential exercises are possible ways of dealing with the time problem. Another way, deserving special consideration, is the creation of a laboratory course for administrative skill development. Burian supports a laboratory approach to supplement the practice of professional behaviors in general.<sup>2</sup>

Simulations demand clarity of purpose. Precise objectification of the skills that administrative students are to practice in an exercise is essential not only for the selection and adaptation of simulations but for their critique as well. This, too, takes time. But without clear goals, there are no measures for determining directions and success.

Simulations require faculty commitment to educational innovation and excellence. Their use at times raises faculty concerns and brings peer pressures toward conformity to traditional teaching methods. For example, one instructor called me "the fun and games man." Another said, "Oh, you're the one who uses all those teaching materials." On the other hand, some faculty members openly support one's efforts and look for guidance in the use of new pedagogical

methods. Some instructors understandably are hesitant to try unproven pedagogical methods.

An investment of resources is necessary to duplicate simulation materials. Many experiential exercises include forms or items that get consumed during the exercise. So, unlike case records, they often can be used only once and then must be replaced. Because of this, some administrations may not be supportive of the use of simulations in their educational programs.

Another required resource is physical space for several small groups to operate with comfort and minimal noise interference among the groups. The ideal room is large and flexible enough to allow for different groupings to occur.

With regard to equipment, movable tables and chairs are desirable. The project room had immovable tables. Different sized groupings were difficult to achieve without a loss of comfort and productivity.

In addition, there should be a chalkboard for debriefing and summarizing. Ideally, video equipment also should be available for taping group processes as needed for subsequent review, self-monitoring, and feedback from others.

The use of video-tape might prevent some unwanted behaviors during an exercise, could allow for the correction of distorted learning after an exercise, and could provide another measure of student achievement. Its use would require additional time for review of the recorded material

either in the class or out of it. Instructor monitoring of simulation processes is difficult without playback equipment. An instructor simply cannot relate to several groups or individuals at once.

Because of student independence from the instructor during most simulations, concern arises over the development by students of faulty understandings, attitudes, and skills. An example from this project of this kind of concern is the not infrequent requests from students for reassurance that their conclusions were appropriate. I suspect that instructors may have such misgivings too. Skillful design of the simulation and instructor monitoring are ways of preventing faulty learning. Adequate debriefing after an exercise helps to uncover and solve learning problems.

Students may carry-over negative feelings about someone from a simulation to the total school situation. Not unusual to hear outside of class are such comments as, "He's too pushy." Or, "She's awfully quiet." These opinions often have their foundation in classroom behavior. Again, adequate debriefing and advising may reduce this possibility or at least help students to appreciate differences among people.

Lastly, time for the simulation must be sufficient. As shown in this project, most notably in the supervisory task exercise, time reductions seem to cause simulations to fail. A reduction in allotted time does not necessarily lead to reduced learning but may lead instead to confusion

and to no learning at all. Time reductions cause resentment among students and this can turn students against structured experiential learning in the classroom.

In conclusion, the above statements on the use of simulations in social work educational programs for administration, while tentative, suggest that real value accrues to both educators and students from the use of experiential exercises in the classroom. Further study is essential to substantiate these impressions.

#### Further Studies

Developmentally in its infancy, simulation as a learning method has to grow a great deal before achieving its potential. Not fully explored, its promise for social work education for administrative practice is relatively unknown. But it has prospects as a pedagogical technique not only for communicating complex conceptualizations about concurrent, interacting organizational and administrative processes but also for enabling students to actually practice the skills of social service management logically, sequentially, accountably, and with little risk to service users and field personnel.

To realize the latent powers of simulation, particularly in educating social work students of administration, continued research into its foundations, its processes, and its outcomes is essential. The newness of this field of endeavor suggests that "virtually any well-thought-out evaluative research will make a genuine contribution to our knowledge" about simulation.<sup>3</sup>

This report is not inclusive in its recommendations for future studies because so much research is necessary. It offers only some substantive issues for further investigation.

Simulation Foundations. A simulation primarily builds upon two foundations of knowledge. One is knowledge of the real world which the simulation models and the other is knowledge of learning and teaching.

Here are selected questions that need to be answered about the real world. What are the attributes and processes of human service organizations and administration that should be modeled? Which characteristics are critical and which are of lesser importance? What constitutes ideal administrative performance in social work? Should simulations model normal or abnormal field conditions, or both? What guidelines can one use in selecting real world characteristics for a simulation?

Some questions about education for further study follow. What conditions stimulate learning in the classroom? What constitutes excellence in teaching, particularly in administration concentrations for social work students? What is best learned by direct practice, what by simulated practice, and what by an instructor's presentation?

Simulation Processes. Research into the design and implementation processes of simulation also is necessary. Here are a few examples of this type of research issue. What are the determinants for involving social work field

instructors, administrative students, and others in the design of simulations? What criteria should one use to set time limits for each phase of a simulation? Under which conditions should other communication forms be used with a simulation? Under which conditions might the instructor participate in a simulation?

Simulation Outcomes. Of utmost importance are studies on the effects and effectiveness both of simulation as an educational method and of single simulations that are especially designed or adapted for social work education for administration. The development of instruments for sophisticated data collection and measurement is essential. Questions for investigation are numerous. Some alternatives follow. What is the role of simulation in intuition building, in understanding a gestalt of complex, concurrent organizational and administrative actions and interactions, in conveying information about the design and operations of human service delivery systems, in stimulating dialogue about such complicated phenomena, in motivation, in serendipitous discovery, in problem solving? How does simulation compare with other pedagogical methods in social work education for administration in terms of amount of information learned, retention, application of concepts, analytical and interactional skill development, transfer of learning from the classroom? What are the effects of an observer on a simulation's outcomes? Can video-recording be utilized to improve simulation results? How much realism should a

simulation have? How many times should a simulation be tested with different audiences before it is considered reliable? Do simulations affect administration students differently than they do non-majors, graduate social work students differently than undergraduate students, workshop participants differently than full-time students?

### Summary

This final chapter concludes the report by criticizing the project, providing personal impressions on the use of simulations, and raising questions for future research on experiential exercises. There are many recognizable gaps in our knowledge about using a structured experiences in social work education for administrative practice. This is a new field of endeavor. It is imperative that professional efforts in the development and systematic testing of teaching materials proliferate. More effective administrators of social service organizations and programs may be the result.

## CHAPTER IV

### Notes and References

1. Gronlund, op. cit., pp. 448-449.
2. William A. Burian. "The Laboratory as an Element in Social Work Curriculum Design," Journal of Education for Social Work, Vol. 12, No. 1, Winter, 1976, pp. 36-43.
3. Sarane S. Boocock and E. O. Schild (editors). Simulation Games in Learning, Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1978, p. 266.

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APPENDIX A  
PRE-COURSE DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

PRE-COURSE DATA

I. STUDENT BACKGROUND INFORMATION. (Information which you provide will be kept confidential and will in no way affect your grade for this course.)

01. Name: \_\_\_\_\_

02. Age: \_\_\_\_\_

03. Birthdate: \_\_\_\_\_

04. Undergraduate major: \_\_\_\_\_

05. Graduate degrees: \_\_\_\_\_

06. Graduate areas of study: \_\_\_\_\_

07. Education or training in administration/management (describe amount and kind): \_\_\_\_\_

08. Work history (organizations, jobs, dates): \_\_\_\_\_

09. Number of years of administrative experience:

- 1. none \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. up to 1 year \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. up to 2 years \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. up to 3 years \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. up to 4 years \_\_\_\_\_
- 6. up to 5 years \_\_\_\_\_
- 7. up to 10 years \_\_\_\_\_
- 8. more than 10 years \_\_\_\_\_

10. I expect to learn the following in this introductory course:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

II. MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES. (Please circle the number that most closely corresponds to the level of ability you are **now** able to demonstrate.)

I believe my present administrative capacities are as follows:

A. Given an organizational situation in which the individuals involved have varying degrees of influence, I am able to:

1. Analyze my own and other's influence (i.e., power, authority) in terms of its source or base (legitimate, reward, coercive, referent, expert) and its rank (subordinate, equivalent, superordinate).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Anticipate the effects that using influence in the given situation will have on self, on others, and on the organization

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Use an influence posture (collaborative, mediative, or adversative) and a strategy (persuasion, inducement, coercion, or emotional appeal) appropriate to one's power source and rank, to the situational conditions, and to the interest of the organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

B. Given an organizational situation in which informal group forces adversely affect the organization, I am able to:

1. Identify the informal structure of the organization in terms of these attributes: relationships or affective ties, group values or norms, group leadership, membership roles, and the group's internal communication patterns.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Evaluate the effects of the informal structure on the organization's internal and external relationships, policies, leadership, role performance, and communication patterns.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Evaluate alternative strategies for using or influencing the informal organization to improve the formal organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

C. Given an organizational situation in which various styles of leadership are evident, I am able to:

1. Classify leadership according to autocratic, social, democratic and laissez-faire styles.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Analyze the effects of varying styles of leadership upon group morale, task completion, decision making, and thus upon fulfillment of leadership's task and socio-emotional functions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Identify the conditions for the appropriate use of each style of leadership.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

D. Given the general characteristics of an organization, I am able to:

1. Identify the particular set of assumptions that the manager might have regarding people and their behavior in organizations based upon four alternative sets of assumptions: 1) rational-economic man; 2) social man; 3) self-actualizing man; and 4) complex man.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Describe the effects that these assumptions have on that organization's objectives, communications systems, control systems, decision-making systems, structural characteristics, leadership styles, and reward and penalty systems.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

E. Given an organizational list of supervisory tasks, or a problem in program implementation or a task of delegation or appraisal, I am able to:

1. Identify priorities in supervision.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Respond purposefully to problems of program implementation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Delegate responsibility with clear, understandable directives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

4. Demonstrate mutual problem-solving with subordinates, not telling and selling.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

5. Provide appraisal feedback that is descriptive, "owned" by me, specific, relevant, desired, timely, usable, and verified for reception.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

F. Given a bargaining situation between union and agency, I am able to:

1. Plan a bargaining strategy with others based upon consideration of alternative gains and costs and upon anticipated needs/demands of opponents.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Identify bargaining styles (e.g., rigid/flexible, considerate/inconsiderate, competitive/cooperative).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Negotiate with an opponent to reduce both the cost of settlement and the cost of negotiation, and to increase the satisfaction of the group one represents.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

4. Analyze own and opponent's mistakes and successes in the pursuit of a favorable settlement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

5. Identify factors affecting negotiation processes and outcomes (e.g., planning time, group support, number of bargainers, strategy, nature of issues, concern for quick solution, environmental effects, costs of deadlock).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

- G. Given information about a social service organization, I am able to:

1. Describe the organization in terms of the attributes and processes of its subsystems and environment.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Analyze the interrelationships among the organization's subsystems.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Evaluate the effects of organizational-environmental interactions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

- H. Given an organizational goal, I am able to:

1. Write goal-related measurable objectives which state desired behaviors, behavioral contexts, and standards of behavioral performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Prepare program specifications to implement the goal and its objectives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

We appreciate the time and effort you have taken to complete this form. THANK YOU!

APPENDIX B  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES  
(POST-COURSE DATA QUESTIONNAIRE)

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES. (Please circle the number that most closely corresponds to the level of ability you are now able to demonstrate.)

I believe my present administrative capacities are as follows:

A. Given an organizational situation in which the individuals involved have varying degrees of influence, I am able to:

1. Analyze my own and other's influence (i.e., power, authority) in terms of its source or base (legitimate, reward, coercive, referent, expert) and its rank (subordinate, equivalent, superordinate).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Anticipate the effects that using influence in the given situation will have on self, on others, and on the organization

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Use an influence posture (collaborative, mediative, or adversative) and a strategy (persuasion, inducement, coercion, or emotional appeal) appropriate to one's power source and rank, to the situational conditions, and to the interest of the organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

B. Given an organizational situation in which informal group forces adversely affect the organization, I am able to:

1. Identify the informal structure of the organization in terms of these attributes: relationships or affective ties, group values or norms, group leadership, membership roles, and the group's internal communication patterns.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Evaluate the effects of the informal structure on the organization's internal and external relationships, policies, leadership, role performance, and communication patterns.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Evaluate alternative strategies for using or influencing the informal organization to improve the formal organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

C. Given an organizational situation in which various styles of leadership are evident, I am able to:

1. Classify leadership according to autocratic, social, democratic and laissez-faire styles.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Analyze the effects of varying styles of leadership upon group morale, task completion, decision making, and thus upon fulfillment of leadership's task and socio-emotional functions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Identify the conditions for the appropriate use of each style of leadership.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

D. Given the general characteristics of an organization, I am able to:

1. Identify the particular set of assumptions that the manager might have regarding people and their behavior in organizations based upon four alternative sets of assumptions: 1) rational-economic man; 2) social man; 3) self-actualizing man; and 4) complex man.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Describe the effects that these assumptions have on that organization's objectives, communications systems, control systems, decision-making systems, structural characteristics, leadership styles, and reward and penalty systems.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

E. Given an organizational list of supervisory tasks, or a problem in program implementation or a task of delegation or appraisal, I am able to:

1. Identify priorities in supervision.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Respond purposefully to problems of program implementation.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Delegate responsibility with clear, understandable directives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

4. Demonstrate mutual problem-solving with subordinates, not telling and selling.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

5. Provide appraisal feedback that is descriptive, "owned" by me, specific, relevant, desired, timely, usable, and verified for reception.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

F. Given a bargaining situation between union and agency, I am able to:

1. Plan a bargaining strategy with others based upon consideration of alternative gains and costs and upon anticipated needs/demands of opponents.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Identify bargaining styles (e.g., rigid/flexible, considerate/inconsiderate, competitive/cooperative).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Negotiate with an opponent to reduce both the cost of settlement and the cost of negotiation, and to increase the satisfaction of the group one represents.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

4. Analyze own and opponent's mistakes and successes in the pursuit of a favorable settlement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

4

5. Identify factors affecting negotiation processes and outcomes (e.g., planning time, group support, number of bargainers, strategy, nature of issues, concern for quick solution, environmental effects, costs of deadlock).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

- G. Given information about a social service organization, I am able to:

1. Describe the organization in terms of the attributes and processes of its subsystems and environment.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Analyze the interrelationships among the organization's subsystems.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

3. Evaluate the effects of organizational-environmental interactions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

- H. Given an organizational goal, I am able to:

1. Write goal-related measurable objectives which state desired behaviors, behavioral contexts, and standards of behavioral performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

2. Prepare program specifications to implement the goal and its objectives.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not at all	to a small degree or occasionally		moderately		to a large degree or frequently		totally or always

We appreciate the time and effort you have taken to complete this form. THANK YOU!

APPENDIX C  
ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING QUESTIONNAIRE

ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING

---

Program evaluation is essential in administration; so, too, in education. You can help in this endeavor by carefully completing this form with frankness and thoroughness. Your answers will be kept confidential and will in no way influence your grade.

The form is to be filled out individually by you after an exercise. Please submit the completed form to the instructor during the next fifteen minutes. Thank you.

---

Student Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Title of Exercise Being Evaluated: \_\_\_\_\_

Section I.

Reflect upon the experience that you have had in this exercise. Don't be concerned about what you think your instructor expected you to learn, or about what other people say they have learned, or about what you think you ought to have learned. Rather, consider what you really have learned and what it means.

01. I did learn something from this exercise. True \_\_\_\_\_ False \_\_\_\_\_.

I learned \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

02. The reasons why I did not learn anything are:

a.

b.

c.

d.

03. To make THIS exercise more of a learning experience, the following things could have been done:

a. By me;

b. By the instructor:

c. By others:

04. I liked these aspects of this exercise:

a.

b.

c.

d.

05. I would modify this exercise in the following ways:

a.

b.

c.

d.

Section II. Circle the ONE number that best expresses your opinion.

06. Did you take this simulation seriously?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very much		Somewhat			Not at all	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

07. To what extent did others take this simulation seriously?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very much		Somewhat			Not at all	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

08. Was the content of this exercise applicable to understanding your field agency as an organization?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Highly		Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

09. Did the simulation realistically describe features of a social welfare organization?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very realistic		Moderately			Minimally	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

Section III. Circle the ONE number that best expresses your opinion.

10. How stimulating was this exercise?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very		Somewhat			Minimally	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

11. How good a fit was there between the exercise and lecture content?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very close		Some			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

12. Were the exercise directions for participants clear?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Absolutely		Somewhat			Not at all	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

13. Did the exercise provide opportunities for self-directed learning?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very much		Moderate			None	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

14. In your opinion, how relevant was the exercise to learning needs of different students?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Highly		Moderately			Minimally	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

15. Did the exercise enable you to learn from others?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very much		Moderately			Minimally	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

16. How appropriate were the exercise's debriefing questions?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very		Somewhat			Not at all	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

17. Were students reinforced by others, either during or after the simulation, for good performance?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very adequately		Somewhat			Inadequately	Not apply
<u>Comments:</u>						

18. How would you rate your interest in the subject matter in the exercise?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very interested		Moderately			Uninterested	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>						

Section IV. Circle the ONE number which best expresses your opinion.

19. Did the exercise illustrate content from the unit lectures?  
 6      5      4      3      2      1      0  
 Very much                      Somewhat                      Not at all      Not apply  
Comment:

20. How adequately did the simulation enable you to practice an administrative skill?  
 6      5      4      3      2      1      0  
 Very adequately                      Somewhat                      Inadequately      Not apply  
Comment:

21. Did the exercise enable students to "use" information not yet applied in the field?  
 6      5      4      3      2      1      0  
 Greatly                      Moderately                      Not at all      Not apply  
Comment:

22. Did the simulation enable you to reflect upon your feelings and attitudes more than other classroom learning methods do?  
 6      5      4      3      2      1      0  
 Sufficiently                      Moderately                      Insufficiently      Not apply  
Comment:

23. Did the exercise lead to more relevant class inquiry than other classroom learning methods?  
 6      5      4      3      2      1      0  
 Greatly                      Somewhat                      Not at all      Not apply  
Comment:

Section V. Rank order.

Given a scale from 6 to 1, indicate the learning method most and least used to master the objectives of this unit of the course. Six means the most time, 1 the least time. Use any number only once.

- 24. Lecture-discussion \_\_\_\_\_
- 25. Readings \_\_\_\_\_
- 26. Student field tasks \_\_\_\_\_
- 27. Experiential exercises \_\_\_\_\_
- 28. Past experience \_\_\_\_\_
- 29. Other (identify) \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

Again, using the scale 6 to 1, indicate the learning methods in terms of the amount of time you would have PREFERRED spent on each. Six means the most time, 1 the least. Use any number only once.

- 30. Lecture-discussion \_\_\_\_\_
- 31. Readings \_\_\_\_\_
- 32. Student field tasks \_\_\_\_\_
- 33. Experiential exercises \_\_\_\_\_
- 34. Past experience \_\_\_\_\_
- 35. Other (identify) \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

Section VI. Circle the ONE number which best expresses your opinion.

36. To what extent did the simulation facilitate your achievement of learning objective #1? \_\_\_\_\_

	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Greatly			Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>							

37. To what extent did the simulation facilitate your achievement of learning objective #2? \_\_\_\_\_

	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Greatly			Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>							

38. To what extent did the simulation facilitate your achievement of learning objective #3? \_\_\_\_\_

	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Greatly			Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>							

39. To what extent did the simulation facilitate your achievement of learning objective #4? \_\_\_\_\_

	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Greatly			Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>							

40. To what extent did the simulation facilitate your achievement of learning objective #5? \_\_\_\_\_

	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Greatly			Moderately			Very little	Not apply
<u>Comment:</u>							

Section VII. Circle the ONE number which best expresses your opinion.

41. Did the exercise develop insights into administration and administrative problems?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very many		Some			None	Not apply
Comment:						

42. Was the exercise a stimulus for further learning?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Very much so		Somewhat			Not at all	Not apply
Comment:						

43. Did this exercise help to prepare you for future professional activity?

6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Much help		Some help			No help	Not apply
Comment:						

---

Your time and effort are very much appreciated. THANK YOU!

---

APPENDIX D  
THE EXERCISE OF INFLUENCE  
(POWER, AUTHORITY)  
IN HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

UNIT 1. THE EXERCISE OF INFLUENCE (POWER, AUTHORITY) IN HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS.

- A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given an organizational situation in which the individuals involved have varying degrees of influence:
1. Analyzes own and other's influence (power, authority) in terms of its source or base (legitimate, reward, coercive, referent, expert) and its rank (subordinate, equivalent, superordinate).
  2. Anticipates the effects that using influence in the given situation will have on self, on others, and on the organization.
  3. Uses an influence posture (collaborative, mediative, or adversative) and a strategy (persuasion, inducement, coercion, or emotional appeal) appropriate to one's power source and rank, to the situational conditions, and to the interests of the organization.
- B. Content. (NOTE: Content in all units is very limited as it is carefully selected to include only those concepts that directly apply to experiential exercises. Thus, for example, concepts such as centralization of authority and span of control are not included in Unit 1.)
1. Definition of influence (power, authority): the act or the capability of producing an effect; the ability to limit, reduce, restrict, or eliminate alternatives for action.
  2. Bases (sources) of influence: legitimate (formal authority, status), reward (resource), coercive (punish, threat), referent (attraction, charisma, popularity), and expert (knowledge, physical abilities).
  3. Types: formal and informal.
  4. Rank: subordinate, equivalent, and superordinate.
  5. Postures (approaches): collaborative, mediative, and adversative.
  6. Strategies: persuasion (use of expertise, knowledge and logic), inducement (use of rewards), coercion (use of threats, punishment), and emotional appeal (use of relationship, seduction).
- C. Exercise. "Influence (Power, Authority) in Organizations."

INFLUENCE (POWER, AUTHORITY) IN ORGANIZATIONS

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
10	Introduction
2	Group formation (8-10 persons per group)
5	Class discussion of experiential situation: election of a board president
1	Drawing of voting shares
1	Writing of name-votes form
1	Election of timekeeper for each group
15	Message writing period (NO TALKING)
5	Message reading period
15	Second message writing period (NO TALKING)
5	Second message reading period
20	Board meeting
5	Vote (MAJORITY NEEDED)
10*	*If necessary, continue board meeting
5*	*If necessary, vote again (MAJORITY NEEDED)
10*	*If necessary, continue board meeting
5*	*If necessary, vote again
40	Class discussion

## INFLUENCE (POWER, AUTHORITY) IN ORGANIZATIONS.

### Objectives

This exercise simulates a situation in which the individuals involved have varying degrees of influence (power, authority). Through involvement in this exercise, participants can:

1. Assess their own reactions to being placed in such a situation and thus gain a better understanding of the uses and effects of influence (power, authority).
2. Explore strategies for using influence in different organizational ranks.
3. Experience the results of differential influence in groups involved in decision making.

### PREMEETING ASSIGNMENT

Read the introduction and the procedure to be followed in this exercise. Bring enough paper on which to write messages.

### INTRODUCTION

This is an exercise dealing with influence (power, authority) in organizations. While we like to think that decisions in organizations are made on the basis of penetrating analysis of all the factors involved, many decisions are made by the boss simply because he is the person in a position of formal authority. Whether or not he makes the best decisions doesn't really matter. He makes the decision he likes because he has the formal power to do so.

There is a great deal of literature concerning power in organizations, much of it somewhat technical. Simply, however, power can be defined as the ability to limit alternatives for social action. Any person or group able to limit, reduce, restrict, or eliminate one or more alternatives that would otherwise be open to another person or group has power. This ability to limit choice may emanate from a variety of sources: superior physical capabilities, superior knowledge, money, weapons, position in the organization, and, in this exercise, a greater number of votes.

adapted from Harry R. Knudson, Robert T. Woodworth and Cecil H. Bell.  
Management: An Experiential Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill  
Book Company, 1973) pp. 315-327

The amount of power that an individual holds in a specific situation can be quite different from the amount held by others. For example, the chairman of a board of directors holds a great deal more power than social workers on the line in determining the future policies of the organization and the objectives toward which it will strive.

If any individual does not have formal authority--he may still play a very important part in the activities of the organization. He may do this by using his ability to persuade other people to modify their thinking or behavior. If he has power and he elects to use it, he can order people to do things. (While they may choose not to obey, there is a definite cost, determined by the one with power, for not obeying.) If an individual has no legitimate power, he must persuade others--he cannot order.

When an individual is recognized as having great powers of persuasion or has unusual opportunities to attempt to persuade those in formal authority, he is considered to be a more important person than his organizational position would suggest. Thus at a meeting of the executive committee the son of the owner of the company, although he might hold a relatively low ranking position in the company, may be more important than other members of the committee because of his unusual opportunities to influence those who do have legitimate power.

The person holding the greatest amount of legitimate power may or may not be best equipped to use it in terms of his intelligence, objectives, motivation, or understanding of the ramifications of power. He may or may not have the understanding or skill to make the best decision. But he does have the power and may choose to exercise it.

During this exercise verbal communication will be restricted at some times to highlight the characteristics of formal power and to decrease an individual's opportunity to exercise informal power by persuading or attempting to persuade others in the group.

#### PROCEDURE

Form into groups of eight, nine, or ten people. In this exercise each group will function independently.

Assume that each person in the group is an agency director and a member of the board of directors of the National Agency, a large social service organization. Because of the forthcoming retirement of the current president, the board must select in the very near future a new person to hold this important position. The new chief executive must be selected from the group of people who are currently members of the board.

The person selected as president will have great responsibilities as the National Agency is currently in a situation that requires a highly skilled and perceptive manager. For the past several years the agency

has been experiencing considerable financial losses and some positive actions must be taken to change this trend. In addition, competition from other professions has increased substantially and some program for coping with this situation must be devised. Several of the agency's actions have resulted in law suits being filed for "right-to-treatment" reasons and the agency has also been charged with discrimination against minority groups in its hiring practices.

In addition to having great responsibilities, however, the person elected to this position will have attractive prerequisites and will have a great deal to say about services to be provided, about rewarding members of the organization, about who makes what kinds of decisions, and about who will have reasonable job security. While the responsibilities of the job are great, the rewards are also substantial.

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Each member of the group will have a different number of votes. For each group of eight, nine, or ten people, tear out slips of paper noting votes as follows:

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	100 Votes
	200 Votes
	300 Votes
	400 Votes
	500 Votes
	600 Votes
	700 Votes
If <u>eight</u> -person group, remove slips 100 through 800	800 Votes
If <u>nine</u> -person group, remove slips 100 through 900	900 Votes
If <u>ten</u> -person group, remove all slips	1,000 Votes

After the appropriate number of slips have been prepared, have one member of the group mix them up and place them in a hat or in some other way randomly arrange them so that each person can blindly select a slip indicating the number of votes owned. Each person should now draw a slip.

After the drawing of votes has been completed, each person should tear out the following page and fold it so that he can stand it in front of him. On this page he should write clearly in large letters his name and the number of votes that he holds.

Each group should now form into a circle. Group members should place their signs in a visible place. Select one member of the group as a timekeeper.

MESSAGE WRITING PERIOD

MESSAGE WRITING PERIOD

Assume that because each member of the group is at a different agency location, and as these locations are widely dispersed, it will be impossible to talk with anyone else about the forthcoming election of the chief executive. However, for the next 15 minutes, each member of the group can communicate in writing with anyone else in the group. Your messages should contain anything that you feel will be helpful in getting your candidate for chief executive selected. Only written communication is permitted. There are no restrictions on the number of written messages you may send or receive or the number of individuals with whom you may communicate. If you desire, several messages may be sent to the same person.

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No verbal communication is permitted

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All messages should clearly indicate the name of the sender and the receiver. Completed messages should be delivered by placing them near the sign of the person to whom they are addressed. Delivery can be made after each message is completed or at the end of the message writing period, at the option of each sender.

MESSAGES ARE NOT TO BE READ until after the message writing period is over.

BEGIN AND END THE MESSAGE WRITING PERIOD at the timekeeper's signal. The timekeeper should signal the beginning and ending of each of the following periods.

Reading period (5 minutes). Messages are to be read, but not discussed. NO VERBAL COMMUNICATION PERMITTED.

Second message writing period (15 minutes). Follow the same procedure as before. NO VERBAL COMMUNICATION PERMITTED.

Second reading period (5 minutes). Follow the same procedure as before. NO VERBAL COMMUNICATION PERMITTED.

Discussion period (20 minutes). Assume that all members of the board of directors have arrived at the meeting and are physically present in the same room. Group members are free to talk with each other and to negotiate with each other regarding the vote to be taken. This is a time to express your views and to take whatever actions you feel are appropriate in assuring that your candidate for the position of chief executive is elected.

VOTING

After the discussion period is over a vote will be taken, Each member will publicly vote his shares. The timekeeper will call the roster of group members and record each individual's vote. Votes should be recorded on the following table. A person may split his vote, i.e., he does not have to vote all of his shares for one individual. For example, if he has 400 voting shares he may divide these votes among several group members as long as his total vote does not exceed 400 shares.

---

(Fold here - Place in front of you)

---

NAME \_\_\_\_\_

NUMBER  
OF  
VOTING  
SHARES

\_\_\_\_\_

---

If one person has received a majority of votes cast, he is the new chief executive.

If no one receives a majority, another 10-minute discussion period is held. At the close of this period, hold a second voting. Use the same procedure previously followed. Record the results of this vote on the form provided.

If no one receives a majority of the vote, hold another 10-minute discussion period, followed by a third vote. Record the results of this vote on the form provided.

If no one has been elected chief executive by the end of the third ballot, this part of the exercise is concluded.

Voting Summary-First Ballot

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Group members (Fill in names)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
----------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

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1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

7. \_\_\_\_\_

8. \_\_\_\_\_

9. \_\_\_\_\_

10. \_\_\_\_\_

Totals \_\_\_\_\_

NEW PRESIDENT \_\_\_\_\_

Voting Summary-Second Ballot

Group members (Fill in names)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
----------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

7. \_\_\_\_\_

8. \_\_\_\_\_

9. \_\_\_\_\_

10. \_\_\_\_\_

Totals

\_\_\_\_\_

NEW PRESIDENT \_\_\_\_\_

Voting Summary-Third Ballot

Group members (Fill in names)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										
7.										
8.										
9.										
10.										
Totals										

NEW PRESIDENT \_\_\_\_\_

DISCUSSION

Spend 40 minutes discussing this exercise with your group. You might wish to consider the following kinds of questions during your discussion:

1. How did the people with a large number of votes behave?
  
2. How did the people with a small number of votes behave?
  
3. How many and what kinds of notes were written?
  
4. How would you characterize the contents of the notes-  
Logical?  
Emotional?  
Inducing?  
Coercive?
  
5. Who got the most votes-a high power person or a low power person?

Was the person elected a "reasonable" choice in your opinion?

6. Who wrote the most notes? Who received the most notes? What conclusions do you draw from that?

7. How did the nonverbal aspects of the exercise affect the outcome? Would the outcome have been different if all communication had been done verbally? Why?
  
8. Why was your group successful or unsuccessful in selecting a new president?
  
9. Was an adversative posture (approach) used? If so, by whom, and with what effects?
  
10. Was a collaborative posture (approach) used? If so, by whom, and with what effects?
  
11. Was a mediative posture (approach) used? If so, by whom, and with what effects?
  
12. What strategies (persuasion, inducement, coercion, emotional appeal) would be useful for a manager in a low ranking position? In a high rank position?
  
13. What examples of effective uses of power (from a manager's point of view) did you see in your group?
  
14. What examples of ineffective uses of power did you observe?

15. What are some of the results of great power differentiation in a group of managers such as this?

Positive results

Negative results

16. How did you use the information available to you about the current position of National Agency in electing a new president? If you did not use this information, consider why you did not.

17. What other kinds of power, in addition to numbers of votes, did you see in this exercise?

INDIVIDUAL ANALYSIS (Suggested time 10 to 15 minutes)

1. Briefly state your reactions to the exercise.
2. Were you in a high power or a low power position?
3. What effect did this have on your behavior?

APPENDIX E  
INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

UNIT 2.      INFORMAL ORGANIZATION

- A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given an organizational situation in which informal group forces adversely affect the organization:
1. Identifies the informal structure of that organization in terms of these attributes: relationships or affective ties, group values or norms, group leadership, membership roles, and the group's internal communication patterns.
  2. Evaluates the effects of the informal structure on the organization's internal and external relationships, policies, leadership, role performance, and communication patterns.
  3. Evaluates alternative strategies for using or influencing the informal organization to improve the formal organization.
- B. Content.
1. Definition of informal organization: "those aspects of the system that are not formally planned but arise spontaneously out of the activities and interactions of participants." (Kast/Rosenzweig, Organization and Management (N.Y.: McGraw Hill, p. 208).
  2. Relationship between the formal and informal components of the organization.
  3. Informal structure.
    - a. Leadership (persons with influence over a group).
    - b. Roles (sets of expected behaviors for each group member).
    - c. Norms (valued behaviors, activities and attitudes; positive and negative sanctions for acquiescence or deviancy).
    - d. Communications (direction and nature of verbal and non-verbal exchanges).
    - e. Affective ties (sociometry or alliances).
  4. Positive and negative aspects of informal structure.
  5. Influencing (using and changing) the informal structure.
    - a. Changing group composition (job reassignments, etc.).
    - b. Breaking up a group (isolating individuals, etc.).
    - c. Feeding the "grapevine."
    - d. Developing a control or spy system.
    - e. Screening applicants more thoroughly.
    - f. Providing financial incentives.
    - g. Training.
    - h. Promoting alternative groups.
    - i. Promoting alternative values.
- C. Exercise. "The Bad Cop."

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION: THE BAD COP

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
10	Introduction
50	Discuss Bad Cops and prepare for council meeting
	Council meeting:
15	Police proposal
10	Small group discussions of police proposal
10	Citizens committee response and recommendations
10	Mayor's evaluation and plan
10	City council's specification of criteria for evaluating police proposal, assessment of proposal, and ratification of commissioner and proposal
5	Bad cops' observations and recommendations
30	Class discussion

SOURCE: Harry R. Knudson, Robert T. Woodworth, and Cecil H. Bell.  
Management: An Experiential Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1973) pp. 135-150.

## I N F O R M A L   O R G A N I Z A T I O N

### THE BAD COP

#### OBJECTIVES

1. To identify some of the informal group forces, norms, processes, and influences operating in organizations
2. To use these forces in a positive way in designing and developing an effective, healthy organization

#### PREMEETING ASSIGNMENT

Read the following material on "What Makes a Bad Cop."

Ex-Policeman Tells What Makes  
A "Bad Cop"\*

What makes a policeman go sour? I can tell you. I was a Denver policeman until not so long ago. Then I quit so I could hold my head up.

Don't get me wrong. I'm not trying to shift the burden of responsibility for the burglaries, break-ins, safe jobs and that sort of thing. That is bad, very bad. But I will leave it to the big shots and the newspapers and the courts to say

\*Reprinted by permission of The Denver Post.

and do what needs to be said and done about that.

My concern is about the individual officer, the ordinary, hard-working, basically honest but awfully hard-pressed guy who is really suffering now.

Young fellows don't put on those blue uniforms to be crooks. There are a lot of reasons, but for most of the guys it adds up to the fact they thought it was an honorable, decent way of making a living.

Somewhere along the line a guy's disillusioned. Along the way the pressures mount up. Somewhere along the way he may decide to quit fighting them and make the conscious decisions to try to "beat" society instead.

But long before he gets to that point, almost as soon as he dons the uniform in fact, he is taking the first little steps down the road that does, for some, eventually lead to the penitentiary.

Let me back up a little. I want to talk about how you get to be a policeman, because this is where the trouble really starts.

Almost any able-bodied man can become a policeman in Denver. If he is within the age brackets, if he is a high school graduate, if he has no criminal record, he is a cinch.

There isn't much to getting through the screening, and some bad ones do get through. There are the usual examinations and questionnaires. Then there is the interview. A few command officers ask questions. There is a representative of civil service and a psychiatrist present.

They ask the predictable questions and just about everybody gives the predictable answers: "Why do you want to become a policeman?" "I've always wanted to be a policeman. I want to help people." Five or ten minutes and it is over.

Five or ten minutes to spot the sadist, the psychopath-- or the guy with an eye for an easy buck. I guess they weed some out. Some others they get at the Police Academy. But some get through.

Along with those few bad ones, there are more good ones, and a lot of average, ordinary human beings who have this in common: They want to be policemen.

The job has (or had) some glamour for the young man who likes authority, who finds appeal in making a career of public service, who is extroverted or aggressive.

Before you knock those qualities, remember two things: First, they are the same qualities we admire in a business executive. Second, if it weren't for men with these qualities, you wouldn't have any police protection.

The Police Academy is point No. 2 in my bill of particulars. It is a fine thing, in a way. You meet the cream of the Police Department. Your expectations soar. You know you are going to make the grade and be a good officer. But how well are you really prepared?

There are six weeks at the academy--four weeks in my time. Six hectic weeks in which to learn all about the criminal laws

you have sworn to enforce, to assimilate the rules of evidence, methods of arbitration, use of fire-arms, mob and riot control, first aid (including, if you please, some basic obstetrics), public relations, and so on.

There is an intangible something else that is not on the formal agenda. You begin to learn that this is a fraternity into which you are not automatically accepted by your fellows. You have to earn your way in; you have to establish that you are "all right."

And even this early there is a slight sour note. You knew, of course, that you had to provide your own uniforms, your own hat, shoes, shirts, pistol and bullets out of your \$393 a month.

You knew the city would generously provide you with the cloth for two pair of trousers and a uniform blouse.

What you didn't know was that you don't just choose a tailor shop for price and get the job done.

You are sent to a place by the Police Department to get the tailoring done. You pay the price even though the work may be ill-fitting. It seems a little odd to you that it is always the same establishment. But it is a small point and you have other things on your mind.

So the rookie, full of pride and high spirit, his head full of partly learned information, is turned over to a more experienced man for breaking in. He is on "probation" for six months.

The rookie knows he is being watched by all the older hands around him. He is eager to be accepted. He accepts advice gratefully.

Then he gets little signs that he has been making a good impression. It may happen like this: The older man stops at a bar, comes out with some packages of cigarets. He does this several times. He explains that this is part of the job, getting cigarets free from proprietors to resell, and that as a part of the rookie's training it is his turn to "make the butts."

So he goes into a skid-road bar and stands uncomfortably at the end waiting for the bartender to acknowledge his presence and disdainfully toss him two packages of butts.

The feeling of pride slips away and a hint of shame takes hold. But he tells himself this is unusual, that he will say nothing that will upset his probation standing. In six months, after he gets his commission, he will be the upright officer he meant to be.

One thing leads to another for the rookies. After six months they have become conditioned to accept free meals, a few packages of cigarets, turkeys at Thanksgiving and liquor at Christmas from the respectable people in their district.

The rule book forbids all this. But it isn't enforced. It is winked at at all levels.

So the rookies say to themselves that this is O.K., that this is a far cry from stealing and they still can be good policemen. Besides, they are becoming accepted as "good guys" by their fellow officers.

This becomes more and more important as the young policeman begins to sense a hostility toward him in the community. This is fostered to a degree by some of the saltier old hands in the department. But the public plays its part.

Americans are funny. They have a resentment for authority. And the policeman is authority in person. The respectable person may soon forget that a policeman found his lost youngster in the park, but he remembers that a policeman gave him a traffic ticket.

The negative aspect of the job builds up. The majority of the people he comes in contact with during his working hours are thieves, con men, narcotics addicts and out and out nuts.

Off the job his associations narrow. Part of the time when he isn't working, he is sleeping. His waking, off-duty hours are such as to make him not much of a neighbor. And then he wants to spend as much time as he can with his family.

Sometimes, when he tries to mix with his neighbors, he senses a kind of strain. When he is introduced to someone, it is not likely to be, "This is John Jones, my friend," or "my neighbor"; it is more likely to be, "This is John Jones. He's a policeman."

And the other fellow, he takes it up, too. He is likely to tell you that he has always supported pay increases for policemen, that he likes policemen as a whole, but that there are just a few guys in uniform he hates.

No wonder the officer begins to think of himself as a member of the smallest minority group in the community. The idea gradually sinks into him that the only people who understand him, that he can be close to, are his fellow officers.

It is in this kind of atmosphere that you find the young policeman trying to make the grade in the fraternity. But that is not the whole story.

A policeman lives with tensions, and with fears.

Part of the tensions come from the incredible monotony. He is cooped up with another man, day after day, doing routine things over and over. The excitement that most people think of as the constant occupation of policemen is so infrequent as to come as a relief.

Part of the tensions come from the manifold fears. I don't mean that these men are cowards. This is no place for cowards. But they are human beings. And fears work on all human beings.

Paramount is the physical fear that he will get hurt to the point where he can't go on working, or the fear that he will be killed. The fear for his family.

There is the fear that he will make a wrong decision in a crucial moment, a life-and-death decision. A man has been in a fight. Should he call the paddy wagon or the ambulance? A man aims a pistol at him. Should he try to talk to him, or shoot him?

But the biggest fear he has is that he will show fear to some of his fellow officers. This is the reason he will rush heedlessly in on a cornered burglar or armed maniac if a couple of officers are present--something he wouldn't do if he were alone. He is tormented by his fears and he doesn't dare show them. He knows he has to present a cool, calm front to the public.

As a group, policemen have a very high rate of ulcers, heart attacks, suicides, and divorces. These things torment him, too. Divorce is a big problem to policemen. A man can't be a policeman for eight hours and then just turn it off and go home and be a loving father and husband--particularly if he has just had somebody die in the back of his police car.

So once again, the pressure is on him to belong, to be accepted and welcomed into the only group that knows what is going on inside him.

If the influences aren't right, he can be hooked.

So he is at the stage where he wants to be one of the guys. And then this kind of thing may happen: One night his car is sent to check in a "Code 26"--a burglar alarm.

The officer and his partner go in to investigate. The burglar is gone. They call the proprietor. He comes down to look things over. And maybe he says, "Boys, this is covered by insurance, so why don't you take a jacket for your wife, or a pair of shoes?" And maybe he does, maybe just because his partner does, and he says to himself, "What the hell, who has been hurt?"

Or maybe the proprietor didn't come down. But after they get back in the car his partner pulls out four \$10 bills and hands him two. "Burglar got careless," says the partner.

The young officer who isn't involved soon learns that this kind of thing goes on. He even may find himself checking on a burglary call, say to a drugstore, and see some officers there eyeing him peculiarly.

Maybe at this point the young officer feels the pressure to belong so strongly that he reaches over and picks up something, cigars perhaps. Then he is "in," and the others can do what they wish.

Mind you, not all officers will do this. Somewhere along the line all of them have to make a decision, and it is at that point where the stuff they are made of shows through. But the past experience of the handouts, the official indifference to them, and the pressures and tensions of the job don't make the decision any easier.

And neither he nor the department has had any advance warning, such as might come from thorough psychiatric screening, as to what his decision will be.

Some men may go this far and no further. They might rationalize that they have not done anything that isn't really accepted by smart people in society.

This is no doubt where the hard-core guy, the one who is a thief already, steps in. A policeman is a trained observer and he is smart in back-alley psychology. This is especially true of the hard-core guy and he has been watching the young fellows come along.

When he and his cronies in a burglary ring spot a guy who may have what it takes to be one of them, they may approach him and try him out as a lookout. From then on it is just short steps to the actual participation in and planning of crimes.

Bear in mind that by this stage we have left all but a few policemen behind. But all of them figure in the story at one stage or another. And what has happened to a few could happen to others. I suppose that is the main point I am trying to make.

#### ADDENDUM

The following item appeared in the Tax Report column of the May 2, 1962, issue of The Wall Street Journal:

Denver police salaries would be raised out of a \$2.7 million yearly hike in revenues from a proposed boost in the city's sales tax from 1% to 2%. The proposal comes before Denver voters June 5. Officers' low pay has been blamed in part for a recent scandal involving the arrest of 57 Denver policemen on burglary charges. A 2% retail sales tax is levied by the state.<sup>1</sup>

#### INTRODUCTION

The impact of small informal groups on the functioning of an organization is often very significant. The "Bad Cop" situation is a striking example of the power of such group forces. Not only do the bad cops act in a way that is dysfunctional to the purposes and goals of the larger organization, but they act in ways that are even legally recognized as diametrically opposed to the goals of the organization. Individuals who joined the police department with a clear understanding of the crime prevention and control objectives of the organization are in a very short time actually committing some of the crimes they agreed to control.

It is not unusual that parts of an organization function in ways that are not exactly in accord with the organization's goals. But, the situation is unique in the Denver Police Department (and as even a casual reader of the national press realizes, in other public agencies in cities throughout the United States and other countries) because of its severity and the complete lack of congruence between goals of the small groups of bad cops, and the overall goals of the

<sup>1</sup>Reprinted by permission of Dow Jones & Company, Inc.

total organization. Individuals who joined the department for the express purpose of eliminating crime find that the group pressures are so irresistible that they actually engage in criminal activities. A complete departure from their initial intentions occurs because of the strength of these group dynamics.

In this example, the group forces have had a negative effect. It is also possible for group forces to have a positive effect. In many organizations group forces result in behavior that is very beneficial to the organization. In many volunteer organizations--for instance, student tutoring of minority children--the forces and pressures developed by informal groups usually result in positive emergent behavior. In competitive athletic situations, too, it is not unusual for a group (team) to do things in addition to those formally required by the organization. Such activities, perhaps extra practices and closer association off the field, may have a very positive effect on the team's performance and their willingness to work toward the goals of the organization. Production groups working in very poor conditions sometimes develop an esprit de corps simply because of these conditions that results in higher output. Thus, group pressures can produce good results from the organization's point of view, as well as bad results. While there are many factors that will influence the outcome of group activities, the understanding that a manager has of the functioning of informal groups, his attitude concerning their desirability or lack of it in his situation, and his skills in identifying and working with small groups are extremely important.

This project gives you the opportunity to apply your skills in developing an organization that uses group forces in a positive way.

#### PROCEDURE

1. Form into five groups, four groups roughly equal in size and one group of three persons.
2. Discuss the "Bad Cop" case for 10 minutes. The following questions may be useful in your discussions.
  - a. Precisely, what is the nature of the group pressures brought to bear on a new policeman?
  - b. What characteristics of the Denver Police Department encourage such pressures? Discourage such pressures? How are other organizations similar to or different from the Denver Police Department?
  - c. How can organizations reduce such negative pressures.
  - d. How can the characteristics and patterns of behavior of informal groups be influenced to the advantage of an organization? What are the problems involved in attempting to do so? Specifically, what, if anything, can a manager do?
  - e. What is the implication of the "addendum" to this case? Is this a valid implication?
3. Read "What Makes a Good Cop."

WHAT MAKES A GOOD COP?  
(BY A STUDENT POLICEMAN)

To look at this statement properly one should know why one becomes a cop or policeman. Is it the pay? Certainly not, most policemen hold down two jobs to make ends meet. The hours? By all means no. The average policeman changes shifts periodically. This means that the hours are rotated eight hours. Those working day shift are transferred to the night shift. If you are married, this will mean a change for your wife, and kids if you have any. This adjustment is sometimes too much, which accounts for the high percentage of divorces in the department.

The next idea may be that of status or image. Why would a person with a college education become a policeman when he could attain the status and image in outside business? Maybe a person wants to become a cop because he wants to. He feels that this is where he belongs. The money, hours, hardships, and dangers are all put into the back of his mind because this is what he wants to do.

The main feeling of the cop is a sense of duty. He feels great satisfaction when a thankful mother thanks him for rushing her child to the hospital, or a person needing assistance gives him thanks for the job done. All these are a sense of pride for the uniform that he wears and strives to represent in the best manner.

Then a scandal unfolded in his department. Immediately someone is labeled "bad cop." This name sticks to the whole force. Every policeman carries this name wherever he goes.

The good cop takes this very hard, because he has been labeled for something he hasn't done. Suddenly he finds himself faced with people that remember all the bad things that have happened to them on account of the police force. Things get blown out of proportion and the whole scandal becomes a mess.

The good cop looks at himself and thinks "What makes a good cop" A good cop is a credit to the uniform the he wears. He feels that certain sense of pride. His duty is to enforce the law and protect the public. He can think back that he is actually risking his life to make the city safer for others. Theoretically this is just fine, but how does a good cop act?

One of the situations that is most commonly challenged is payoff to the police. What is the difference between payoff and a gift? A good cop considers payoff something that is given for a favor that may be shading the law. An example is a fifth of booze because the traffic cop did not write parking tickets for the storeowner's car that was parked in a limited parking zone in front of his shop. A gift or a show of appreciation would be the shop owner that closes late at night and must deposit large sums of money. He gives the policeman a free meal for escorting the owner to the deposit box. One might say that the cop is receiving extras for doing his duty. I do not agree. The shopowner is showing his appreciation for the added help, not paying-off for the cop being there.

A good cop takes pride in his job. He is always thinking of ways of helping others. Participating in traffic safety programs with the schools is a good example. A good cop does more than just a "9-5" job. He spends extra hours helping with boys' clubs and other youth activities throughout the city. He usually takes an active part in the community activities.

There is one main factor that a good cop is and that is honest. He knows that he is being watched so he makes himself an example for others to follow. With low wages, honesty may be hard to stick by, but the good cop will not stray to the wrong side.

Basically one could say that there is little difference between a good and bad cop. The good cop is honest and is an example for others to follow. He wears his uniform with pride as a symbol for protection not as a cover for a wrongful act such as robbery. He suffers badly when the uniform and not the man is labeled bad. A good cop has a drive and initiative that he applies to his job. He tries to act fairly and in the right manner at all times. He does not take advantage of the uniform, he upholds it.

This statement was written by a senior university student who was in the training program of a metropolitan police force at the same time he was attending school. His intention after completing his degree was to join the police force on a permanent basis. During the class discussion of the "Bad Cop" case, the student played a very active role, a large part of which involved his stating that there were a lot of good cops. He volunteered to write a statement concerning his impressions of what makes a good cop, and that statement is reproduced in its entirety.

4. Each of the groups you have formed should assume one of the following roles:

- a. New police commissioner and staff
- b. Citizens Committee for Better Government
- c. City council
- d. Mayor and staff
- e. Bad cops (limit of three people)

#### GENERAL SITUATION

Assume that you live in a city in which events exactly like those detailed in the "Bad Cop" case have occurred. The police commissioner has resigned, and the city council must evaluate the proposals of a new police commissioner who has been appointed by a special commission established for this specific purpose but whose appointment has not received the necessary ratification.

The city council is charged with the responsibility of ratifying the appointment of the new police commissioner and his staff. The primary basis on which they will make this judgment is their evaluation of the commissioner's plans for the department. Obviously, the recent events have been very upsetting and the council is determined that in the future the city will have an outstanding police department. If the members of the council are not pleased with the proposal of the new commissioner, they will refuse to ratify his appointment. The council plans a meeting

in the near future at which the new commissioner will have the opportunity to present his plan. Other interested groups will also have a chance to speak at the meeting.

Each group has about 40 minutes to prepare.

#### SPECIFIC ASSIGNMENTS

City Council. Your responsibilities are to:

1. Develop specific, written criteria which you will use to evaluate the commissioner's proposal
2. Organize and run the meeting
3. Openly determine if the commissioner's appointment will be ratified or not. This judgment cannot be made privately, but must be made in open session. While all present will be privy to your deliberations, only members of the city council may participate in these discussions.

While the format for the meeting is up to you, all interested parties must have at least 10 minutes during the meeting to present their viewpoints. A suggested format is:

- 15 minutes - police commissioner's proposal
- 10 minutes - intermission (groups should use this time for discussion of the commissioner's proposal)
- 10 minutes - comments by the Citizens Committee for Better Government
- 10 minutes - comments by the mayor
- 10 minutes - discussion and ratification decision by city council (only members of the city council may participate in this decision.)
- 5 minutes - comments by bad cops

Select a chairman of the council who will be responsible for running the meeting.

Police commissioner and staff. Your responsibility is to prepare a report detailing your plans for administering the police department. You have been recruited for this position because of your reputation of expertise in understanding how organizations really work and because of your ability to put this understanding into action. Your staff is composed of various management experts whom you have brought together for this specific assignment. They are available to help you in any way possible.

You have been told that all the "bad cops" have been removed from the department and that they have been replaced with inexperienced policemen who are presumed to be honest. Thus you do not have to be concerned with immediately hiring a large number of policemen to bring the force up to full strength.

Select one individual to be the police commissioner.

You will have a maximum of 15 minutes in which to present your report.

Citizens Committee for Better Government. You are a committee of concerned citizens who are appalled at the recent events that have transpired in the local government. You have broad citizen support and if the city council does not come up with a commissioner who has a practical plan that shows real promise of not only eliminating the conditions that led to the past scandal but also providing the base for sound progress in the future, you plan to take the situation directly to the voters in the next election, supporting new members in city government.

You have on your committee people who have a variety of managerial skills and plan to go to the next city council meeting prepared to present your own plan if the plan presented by the new police commissioner doesn't seem to be good enough for you to support it.

Your prime concern is that the city has an effective police force that operates at maximum efficiency, and you aren't concerned about the politicians at city hall and their problems.

Select one individual as chairman of the committee.

Your group will have about 10 minutes at the meeting in which to present your ideas.

Mayor and staff. The police department is under your general control, and the recent scandals have not been helpful to your political aspirations. The elections will be coming up before too long and you feel that the situation in the police department will be a major issue. You desire to be re-elected.

You were shocked and completely surprised at what had happened in the police department and vow that it won't happen again. You are going to take a much closer interest in the functioning of the department and will develop--with the help of your talented staff--a specific plan incorporating the best ideas of how a police department should be organized and administered.

The city council has scheduled a meeting in the near future to hear the plans of the new police commissioner. If the plans are not acceptable to the council, it will refuse to ratify his appointment. You have received permission from the council to speak briefly at the meeting. You intend to present your own plan for the department or support the plan of the new commissioner, whichever seems appropriate after you have heard his plan.

You feel that this meeting will be important to you and your creditability. Even if you support the new commissioner's plan, you want to do it in such a way that displays your considerable knowledge about effective management of a police department.

Select one individual to be the mayor.

You will have about 10 minutes at the meeting in which to present your idea.

Bad cops. Your group should consider yourselves to be "bad cops." You have been given reduced prison sentences because of your cooperation with the recent investigations. Part of your responsibility includes advising the city council how even the best plans will have little effect upon the intentions of a policeman who wants to be dishonest. You know that when an organization faces significant change, confusion provides opportunities for someone with a specific plan to accomplish just about anything desired.

Your assignment is to devise ways by which illegal operations could be continued under the new system. At the end of the city council meeting, your group will have about 10 minutes in which to explain in detail the specific actions you could take to get illegal operations under way within a year from the time a new program is instituted.

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SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS

Bad Cops may attend meetings of all other groups to listen.  
Bad Cops may not participate in the discussions of other groups.

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SOME OBSERVATIONS

This is a most difficult and challenging assignment. Groups who have worked with it before have taken a wide variety of approaches. Some of the approaches judged less effective have concentrated on:

**Control.** Developing either a very close system of control (one supervisor per patrolman in extreme cases) or a secret spy system of one kind or another.

**Selection.** Developing some screening system which will distinguish honest from dishonest applicants. (Usually the groups themselves don't develop the system, but assume that some knowledgeable expert will do so.)

**Financial incentives.** Develop a system that provides more monetary rewards. (Look at the addendum to the Bad Cop case and make some judgments about how much of an increase this would mean for each policeman. Groups often make the unrealistic assumption that unlimited amounts of money are available.)

**Training.** Extend the academy for x number of weeks, without giving much thought to how this additional time would be used. Rather than spending too much time considering these approaches, it might be useful to look at some of the relationships and group issues involved, such as:

1. Relationship between rookies and experienced cops.
2. Patrol assignments
3. Isolation and the necessity for individual judgment and action
4. Factors in the situation promoting group formation
5. Development of group values

As noted before, your group has 40 minutes during which to prepare for the meeting. The city council will announce a time at which the meeting will start.

During the meeting, use the following forms to record the important aspects.

**Presentation of Police Commissioner**

**Main points**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

**Your reactions to this proposal:**

**Presentation of Citizens Committee for Better Government**

**Main points**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

**Did the Citizens Committee support the police commissioner's proposal?**

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

**Your reactions to this presentation:**

**Presentation of Mayor and Staff**

**Main points**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

**Did the mayor support the police commissioner's proposal?**

**Yes** \_\_\_\_\_ **No** \_\_\_\_\_

**Your reactions to this presentation:**

**Decision and Presentation by City Council**

**Criteria developed by the city council to use in evaluating the police commissioner's proposal:**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

**Did the council ratify the commissioner's appointment? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_**

**Did you agree with this decision? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_**

**Why?**

**Presentation of Bad Cops**

**Main Points**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

**Do you think that the Bad Cops can really circumvent the new system?**

**How could this be prevented?**

DISCUSSION. (Approximately 30 - 40 minutes.)

1. Are there Bad Social Workers too? Support your conclusion.
2. Identify the informal groups in your agency. Identify its members.
3. For the Bad Cops and for each informal group in your agency, identify two or three things important to it.
4. How typical is it for informal groups within social service organizations to engage in activities that are in opposition to organizational goals or objectives? Exemplify oppositional activities in a social service organization.
5. For the Bad Cops and for each informal group in your agency, identify group leaders and followers. Are there different roles for the followers? How did the leaders achieve their positions?
6. For the Bad Cops and for each agency group, identify the exchange relationships among members. Consider affective ties, communications, quid-pro-quo or something given for something obtained, leader and follower needs.
7. For the Bad Cops and for each agency group, identify the group norms, that is, both the acceptable and unacceptable ways of behaving, from the standpoint of the group. How do these norms relate to organizational and group productivity?
8. What should be the social work administrator's stance toward an agency's informal organization? How can the administrator use or influence the informal organization?
9. What conclusions for social work administration do you draw from this exercise? Consider, for example, the informal organization's power, visibility, official recognition, impact on the organization and its individuals, vulnerability to administrative influence, environmental influences, age, ability to meet personal needs, importance in managerial planning for task assignments, etc.
10. How would you change this exercise (objectives, format, directions, timing, relevancy, realism, etc.) in order to make it more of a learning experience?

APPENDIX F  
LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AND STYLES

UNIT 3. LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AND STYLES.

- A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given an organizational situation in which various styles of leadership are evident:
1. Classifies leadership according to autocratic, social, democratic, and laissez-faire styles.
  2. Analyzes the effects of varying styles of leadership upon group morale, task completion, decision making, and thus upon fulfillment of leadership's task and socio-emotional functions.
  3. Identifies the conditions for the appropriate use of each style of leadership.
- B. Content.
1. Leadership definition: the provision of guidance and direction in action, thought, opinion.
  2. Leadership functions: task and socio-emotional (process).
  3. Leadership styles: autocratic, social, democratic, laissez-faire (abdication).
- C. Exercise. "Leadership Functions and Styles."

LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AND STYLES

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
5	Introduction
5	Role assignments
20	Planning and experimenting
20	Construction
15	Inspection
45	Discussion

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## LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AND STYLES

### OBJECTIVES

1. To observe the effects of varying styles of leadership upon group performance and morale.
2. To observe the functions of leadership: task and socio-emotional.

### PREMEETING ASSIGNMENT

Bring a supply of paper suitable for constructing paper airplanes.

### INTRODUCTION

The concept of leadership is one of the most important from the point of view of the practicing manager. It is through the exercise of leadership that the manager becomes involved in implementing the plans and strategies which have been established and in assuring that the organization is functioning as it is supposed to be. Once the "planning" phase of the manager's responsibilities has been completed, and the "doing" phase begins, the leadership style and capabilities of the manager become of critical importance.

While the importance of leadership is widely recognized, there seems to be very little really known about leadership. What makes a good leader? What kind of behavior patterns should he follow? Should he set goals and let his people determine the best ways to meet them, or should he provide specific instructions for each step? How does he make the trade offs between accomplishment of the organization's goals and satisfaction of the needs of the members of the organization? Why is he overly accommodating to the desires of his subordinates? When should he pay more attention to these desires? Do different kinds of situations require different behavior from the leader?

Adapted from Henry R. Knudson, Robert T. Woodworth, and Cecil H. Bell.  
Management: An Experiential Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill  
Book Company, 1973) pp. 329-338.

All of the research in the area of leadership notwithstanding, these are still the kinds of questions that are troublesome to the manager held responsible for accomplishing specific objectives.

This exercise will emphasize how various styles of leadership affect group performance, and provide you with the opportunity to consider for yourself some of the above kinds of questions in a dynamic situation.

#### PROCEDURE

Select a coordinator for the exercise.

Form into four groups of roughly equal size.

Each group should quickly select a leader.

The leader of each group should meet with the coordinator immediately after he has been selected. Special instructions for the leaders and the coordinator will be given later.

While the leaders are meeting with the coordinator, group members should be planning how they will accomplish the following task:

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#### TASK ASSIGNMENT

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- A. Each group is to build as many acceptable paper airplanes as possible in a twenty-minute period. The airplanes constructed by each group must meet the following specifications:
1. Be of three distinctive designs, i.e., three types of airplanes each obviously different in appearance than the others must be constructed.
  2. Each type must be of an obviously different size than the other types.
  3. Each member of the group must be able to construct airplanes of each design.
  4. An equal number of each design must be produced.
  5. Any particular airplane must be able to pass air certification tasks as determined by the coordinator. Included in these tests is the requirement that any airplane must be able to fly a minimum of fifteen feet.

You have twenty minutes in which to complete your planning for this assignment. Your leader may have special instructions or information for you when he returns from meeting with the exercise coordinator.

Do not start to construct any airplanes (except on an experimental basis) until the coordinator tells you to go ahead. Airplanes constructed during the planning period cannot be included in the final construction count.

- B. Each member is to observe the behavior of the leader. Cite instances of the leader's fulfilling task functions and socio-emotional (process) functions.

**TASK FUNCTIONS:** initiating, elaborating, clarifying,  
coordinating, summarizing, recording.

**SOCIO-EMOTIONAL FUNCTIONS:** encouraging, supporting,  
(PROCESS FUNCTIONS) harmonizing, reducing  
tension, gatekeeping,  
process observing,  
following.

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#### INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE COORDINATOR

Your responsibilities are to:

1. Signal the beginning and the ending of the planning phase of the exercise.
2. Conduct the meeting of the selected leaders of the four groups. At this meeting you should assign one of the four leadership styles to each of the leaders. He is to follow this style as closely as possible during the entire time he is with his group. Impress upon the leaders the importance of doing this.
3. As soon as you have assigned leadership styles, instruct the leaders to return to their groups and participate in the planning phase.
4. After the groups have had 20 minutes in which to plan and experiment, signal the beginning of the construction period.
5. After 20 minutes have elapsed, signal the end of the construction period.
6. As soon as the construction period is over, inspect the output of each group in turn and indicate its acceptability or unacceptability according to the criteria outlined and any other you choose to use. Do not spend more than 5 minutes inspecting any single group.

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The coordinator will assign you one of the four following leadership roles. Match your behavior as closely as you can to this role the entire time you are working with your group. As soon as you have received your role, return to your group and assume your responsibilities as leader.

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GROUP LEADER NO. 1

YOU ARE NOT TO REVEAL THESE GUIDELINES  
TO YOUR GROUP UNTIL THE TOTAL EXERCISE  
IS COMPLETED

You are to manage your group at the extreme of DEMOCRATIC procedure. That is, all important decisions such as approval of designs, etc., are to be made by total group vote, no matter how much time this takes.

Take a sort of paternal orientation, one which appears to show that you want everyone to have a voice in everything. Your concern is more with the total involvement of everyone than it is in getting the task done. So, push and insist on majority or even total agreement on all decisions and actions.

Keep everyone involved in everything.

Hold as many meetings of the entire group as possible.

Include everyone in on all plans and actions.

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GROUP LEADER NO. 2

YOU ARE NOT TO REVEAL THESE GUIDELINES  
TO YOUR GROUP UNTIL THE TOTAL EXERCISE  
IS COMPLETED

You are to manage your group in a highly  
AUTOCRATIC style.

You are to be dominant and aggressive.

No one is to do anything without your  
explicit instruction.

No one but you is to make a decision

You are to give orders and make others  
obey.

BE HARSH

KEEP ORDER

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GROUP LEADER NO. 3

YOU ARE NOT TO REVEAL THESE GUIDELINES  
TO YOUR GROUP UNTIL THE TOTAL EXERCISE  
IS COMPLETED

You are to manage your group in a SOCIAL style. That is, keep everybody happy.

Make a joke out of everything you can.

Be a good natured person, let them know that you like them.

Do not be concerned about the task yourself.

When they show concern about the task, say things like:

"Oh, let's don't let it upset us."

"Look, it's really not that important."

"Let's just enjoy this."

BE JOLLY

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GROUP LEADER NO. 4

YOU ARE NOT TO REVEAL THESE GUIDELINES  
TO YOUR GROUP UNTIL THE TOTAL EXERCISE  
IS COMPLETED

You are to manage your group as an ABDICATOR. This means, in effect, that you do not manage at all.

Continuously, throw questions back to others:

"I don't know, what do you think?"

Whatever others want to do is OK by you except you are not to take any action yourself even if they want you to.

Take the position that inside yourself you are scared of this whole thing and want to turn it over to the others.

DO NOT BECOME INVOLVED

"Whatever you think best is OK with me."

"Why don't you guys decide about that."

"I really don't know what we should do."

"Go ahead and settle this thing anyway you want."

Being as silent as possible is a good tactic for you.

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INSPECTION PHASE

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After the construction phase of the exercise has been completed and the inspection conducted, record the results on the following form:

CONSTRUCTION RESULTS

	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Acceptability (determined by coordinator)	Comments
Group No. 1					
Group No. 2					
Group No. 3					
Group No. 4					

After the coordinator has inspected the results of each team's efforts and that information has been recorded, the total group should meet for discussion.

DISCUSSION (Suggested time 40 minutes)

The discussion should start with each leader in turn reading his instructions and describing the leadership role that he has been using during the exercise.

Following this, members of the teams should respond to the general question:

What impact did the leadership style used by your leader have on the effectiveness of your team?

Specific questions that might be helpful include:

1. What are the primary characteristics of each of the four styles of leadership used in this exercise?

Autocratic style--

Democratic style--

Social style--

Laissez-faire (abdication) style--

2. Which task and socio-emotional (process) functions were carried out by each leader?
3. Does there seem to be any relationship between function and style?

4. Which of the styles is best in terms of the number of acceptable airplanes completed?
5. Which of the styles is best in terms of satisfaction of team members?
6. Which of the styles is best in terms of decision-making effectiveness?
7. Under what kind of conditions would each of the four styles of leadership be most effective?  
Autocratic style--

Democratic style--

Social style--

Laissez-faire (abdication) style--

8. Did any of the styles seem to provide opportunities peculiar only to that style? If so, what were these opportunities?
9. Can both task and socio-emotional functions be carried out by leaders representing each leadership style?

APPENDIX G  
SUPERVISION AND SUPERVISORY TASK ANALYSIS

UNIT 5. SUPERVISION.

- A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given an organizational list of supervisory tasks, or a problem in program implementation or a task of delegation or appraisal:
1. Identifies priorities in supervision.
  2. Responds purposefully to problems of program implementation.
  3. Delegates responsibility with clear, understandable directives.
  4. Demonstrates mutual problem-solving with subordinates, not telling and selling.
  5. Provides appraisal feedback that is descriptive, "owned" by sender, specific, relevant, desired, timely, usable, and verified for reception.
- B. Content.
1. Supervisory goals: organization enhancement and staff development.
  2. Supervisory role expectations: planning, delegating, directing, overseeing, and providing feedback.
  3. Planning or designing the tasks--considerations of outcomes and processes, target persons, resources and constraints.
  4. Delegating or communicating clear, understandable directions.
  5. Directing and overseeing the delegated work and the delegee.
    - a. Facilitating effective and efficient task completion.
    - b. Tuning-in to supervisees' perceptions and feelings about an assignment before, during and after its completion.
    - c. Handling problems in implementation (e.g., communication, relationship, skill).
  6. Giving feedback.
    - a. Descriptive, not evaluative.
    - b. "Owned" by the sender.
    - c. Specific, not general.
    - d. Relevant to the self-perceived needs of the receiver.
    - e. Desired by the receiver, not imposed.
    - f. Timely and in context.
    - g. Usable, concerned with behavior over which the receiver has some control.
    - h. Confirmed by receiver for clear reception.
  7. Supervision based upon mutual problem solving, not telling and selling.
- C. Exercises. "Supervisory Task Analysis," "Developing Effective Managers: Performance Appraisal."

NOTE: For the exercise, "Supervisory Task Analysis," objectives one, two, and three are relevant, as are content areas one, two, three, and four.

SUPERVISION AND SUPERVISORY TASK ANALYSIS

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
10	Introduction
10	Individual task ranking
10	Class comparisons (NO DISCUSSION)
60	In-basket experience
10	Small group debriefing
20	Class discussion

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THE COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH CENTER

Supervisory Task Analysis

Participants will individually complete a process of prioritizing selected supervisory tasks which make up part of the job of a director of a community health center. Through group discussion, these tasks will be reassessed based upon alternative rankings by other. This process provides the participant with the opportunity to seek, accept and reject the views of others which reflects a simulated consultation process whereby effective supervisory performance rests, in part, on the ability to solicit the views of others, especially staff members.

Step 1 - Individual Task Ranking (10minutes)

The following list of tasks were selected from a variety of tasks performed by a center director. Working individually, rank the tasks from the most important (1) to the least important (10).

- A. \_\_\_\_\_ Plans details of new service program (occasionally with others) in order to develop program proposal ( or expansion).
- B. \_\_\_\_\_ Drafts policy, objective, or procedural statements (occasionally with others) in order to provide/develop SOP.\*
- C. \_\_\_\_\_ Examines incoming paperwork (mail, assignments, letters, operations letters, memos, etc.) setting priorities, acting as necessary in order to respond appropriately.
- D. \_\_\_\_\_ Reviews grant proposals, re: legality, impact, implications, in order to forward to funding source.
- E. \_\_\_\_\_ Interviews job applicant (or committee applicant), using knowledge of position requirements, in order to select appropriate individual.
- F. \_\_\_\_\_ Evaluates performance of employees.
- G. \_\_\_\_\_ Discusses grievance (or personnel problem) with employee (s) determining solutions to said problems in order to resolve issue.
- H. \_\_\_\_\_ Discusses discordant staff relationships with employee (s) in order to resolve internal problems.
- I. \_\_\_\_\_ Delegates assignments to subordinates appropriately (indicating priority work) in order to distribute work.
- J. \_\_\_\_\_ Discusses job expectations with new employee, evaluating experience and training, in order to plan for appropriate assignment of new employee.

\*SOP is standard operating procedures.

Step 2 - Group Task Comparisons (10 minutes)

As a total group share with each other your rankings. This sharing provides for different perspectives on assessing executive functioning. Simply share your work but do not discuss.

Step 3 - Task Realignment (60 minutes)

The total group will now engage in an in-basket experience in which the group members should assign themselves a number from one (1) to six (6). Then turn to the in-basket items on the next few pages according to your number (starting with the person who selected the number "1").

Each group participant should take 5 minutes to:

1. Read the in-basket item
2. Indicate how he/she would handle the situation
3. State the 3 tasks to which you gave top priority in the last frame
4. Field comments from group members about the fit or lack of fit between your in-basket response and your top priority tasks

Other group participants should write what is being said about the particular in-basket which is being discussed.

Move around the group until each participant has had an opportunity to respond to one in-basket item.

IN-BASKET #1

Outpatient team members are complaining that they never receive the patient records on patients transferred from the inpatient to outpatient service in sufficient time to do effective case planning. What say you?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone, except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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IN-BASKET #2

In a meeting of outpatient team leaders you learn that there is much anxiety among the teams about the no waiting list policy and the procedure of seeing all persons who call for help within two days. What you say?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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IN-BASKET #3

Representatives of the nurses and social workers have come to see you about the heavy-handed and part-time involvement of psychiatrists on the outpatient teams. What say you?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone, except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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IN-BASKET #4

The psychiatrists on the outpatient teams have sent you a memo in which they claim that consultation with other agencies and public education speeches are a waste of their valuable time. What say you?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone, except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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IN-BASKET #5

In a staff meeting with the staff of the inpatient team you learn that much confusion exists regarding the need for someone to take responsibility for treatment plans for each patient on the ward and for those in the day program. What say you?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone, except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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IN-BASKET #6

The superintendant of the nearby state hospital is on the phone complaining about the outpatient team social workers who have liaison responsibilities with the state hospital claiming that they are failing to follow-up on released state hospital patients within the 10 days specified in the original procedure agreed upon last year. What say you?

What additional information is needed? (Everyone, except the person speaking, should fill in the blanks in writing.)

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What options do you have?

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What is the cost-benefit of these options?

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What is your recommendation?

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Step 4 - Debriefing (10 minutes)

Each participant should have experienced a lack of fit between their response to in-basket items and their top priority tasks. The in-basket items reflect a range of problems that staff bring to the director or supervisor. The supervisory tasks represent some of the activities required of management to maintain the administrative machinery of a community mental health center and to plan for the future.

1. Do you think that the supervisory tasks were realistic or unrealistic? Explain.

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2. Do you think that the in-basket items were realistic or unrealistic? Explain.

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3. How much control should mental health center managers exercise over daily administrative demands? Explain.

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4. How should the supervisory functions of planning, delegation, direction, oversight, and feedback generally be structured in a mental health center?

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**SUPERVISORY TASK ANALYSIS: DISCUSSION QUESTIONS**

1. Are the supervisory tasks for which you set priorities typical of supervisory tasks in your own agency? How are they alike? How are they different?
2. How did you handle each in-basket item?
3. Were your priorities generally congruent with the actions you took on your in-basket items? Why?
4. What other factors, besides priorities, influenced your actions on each in-basket item?
5. Which of these following dilemmas did you face? When?
  - a. Planning versus implementation?
  - b. Development versus control?
  - c. Organization (productivity, tasks) versus staff (morale, maintenance)?

**APPENDIX H**  
**SUPERVISION AND DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE MANAGERS:**  
**PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL**

UNIT 5. SUPERVISION.

- A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given an organizational list of supervisory tasks, or a problem in program implementation or a task of delegation or appraisal:
1. Identifies priorities in supervision.
  2. Responds purposefully to problems of program implementation.
  3. Delegates responsibility with clear, understandable directives.
  4. Demonstrates mutual problem-solving with subordinates, not telling and selling.
  5. Provides appraisal feedback that is descriptive, "owned" by sender, specific, relevant, desired, timely, usable, and verified for reception.
- B. Content.
1. Supervisory goals: organization enhancement and staff development.
  2. Supervisory role expectations: planning, delegating, directing, overseeing, and providing feedback.
  3. Planning or designing the tasks--considerations of outcomes and processes, target persons, resources and constraints.
  4. Delegating or communicating clear, understandable directions.
  5. Directing and overseeing the delegated work and the delegee.
    - a. Facilitating effective and efficient task completion.
    - b. Tuning-in to supervisees' perceptions and feelings about an assignment before, during and after its completion.
    - c. Handling problems in implementation (e.g., communication, relationship, skill).
  6. Giving feedback.
    - a. Descriptive, not evaluative.
    - b. "Owned" by the sender.
    - c. Specific, not general.
    - d. Relevant to the self-perceived needs of the receiver.
    - e. Desired by the receiver, not imposed.
    - f. Timely and in context.
    - g. Usable, concerned with behavior over which the receiver has some control.
    - h. Confirmed by receiver for clear reception.
  7. Supervision based upon mutual problem solving, not telling and selling.
- C. Exercises. "Supervisory Task Analysis," "Developing Effective Managers: Performance Appraisal."

NOTE: For the exercise, "Developing Effective Managers: Performance Appraisal," objectives four and five are relevant, as are content areas five, six, and seven.

**SUPERVISION AND DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE MANAGERS:**

**PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL**

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
5	Introduction and assignments
5	Role play #1
10	Small group discussion of role play #1
5	Role play #2
10	Small group discussion of role play #2
5	Role play #3
10	Small group discussion of role play #3
40-60	Class discussion

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90-110

DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE MANAGERS: PERFORMANCE  
APPRAISALS

PURPOSE: (1) To practice skills in performance appraisal and supervision of subordinates. (2) To develop skills in communication and problem solving.

ADVANCE PREPARATION: Read the "Introduction" below.

GROUP SIZE: Any size

TIME REQUIRED: ~~90~~-110 minutes

SPECIAL MATERIALS: None

SPECIAL PHYSICAL REQUIREMENTS: Groups of three persons.

RELATED TOPICS: Leadership, Group decision making and problem solving, Power, Interpersonal communication, Organizational communication, Life, work, and career roles.

INTRODUCTION

Any kind of system, whether it be a person, organization, or a spacecraft, needs feedback from its environment to tell how close it is to being "on target" in achieving its objectives. One of the most important and useful sources of feedback to an employee is his supervisor. However, in the day-to-day course of our work experiences, we usually obtain little direct feedback on our performance from our supervisors--and we give an equal amount to our own subordinates.

One of the most common mechanisms for feedback between supervisors and subordinates is the performance appraisal discussion. In many organizations this is a formal process in which the supervisor fills out a standard form describing the employee's work, they discuss it, and the employee signs it. Then it is sent to higher-level managers, and is finally placed in the employee's personnel file.

Senior managers in most organizations will describe their performance appraisal system in detail, stressing the requirements, such as the employee's signature, which insures that the appraisal will, in fact, be conducted. However, when employees are asked about their performance appraisals, the response is often a blank stare. Many employees do not

Developed by Donald D. Bowen, inspired by a class demonstration used by Chris Argyris (who denies any memory of the exercise whatsoever). This exercise is, therefore, dedicated to Chris Argyris who has inspired all of us more than he knows (or at least more than he will admit).

Adapted by Douglas T. Hall.

Adapted from Douglas T. Hall, et al. Experiences in Management and Organizational Behavior (Chicago: St. Clair Press, 1975) pp. 48-50 & 231-232.

even know what a performance appraisal is. Others report that it is conducted in a cursory manner; many seem to be "conducted" in brief encounters in the hallway or by the coffee pot. Thus, there is a mysterious process whereby the performance appraisal is there when we talk to senior managers, but its gone when we talk to employees. For this reason, the process has been dubbed the "vanishing performance appraisal" (Hall and Lawler, 1969).

One of the reasons that performance appraisals disappear is that supervisors feel uncomfortable giving feedback in a one-to-one encounter. One reason they feel uncomfortable about it is that they have never developed the necessary skills. The purpose of this exercise is for you to begin to develop performance appraisal skills.

First, let us consider two different approaches to performance appraisal. Let us say you agree with Douglas McGregor (1967) on the following seven propositions:

#### Human growth potential

1. People are capable of growing in a social climate which permits and encourages growth.
2. People tend to grow when they can achieve their own goals by achieving those of the organization.

#### The role of communication and feedback

3. Feedback is necessary for the survival and growth of any system.
4. Effective problem-solving requires open exchange of information.
5. Transactional management (where power is shared) facilitates communication.

#### Effective versus ineffective communication

6. People tend to become defensive when threatened: that is, hostile, protective behavior, overt compliance, and selective or distorted perception result.
7. People will use information if they find it helpful in achieving their goals.

What then, are the implications of these propositions for performance appraisal and the supervision of subordinates?

One important implication is that a problem-solving approach to performance appraisal is probably going to get more results than the tell-and-sell method. These two approaches are identified by Maier (1958), who describes the objectives, assumptions, employee reactions, and supervisor skills associated with each method.

The tell-and-sell method, which is the more commonly applied of the two, has two objectives: (1) to communicate evaluation, and (2) to persuade the employee to improve. It is based upon four assumptions: (1) the employee desires to correct weaknesses if he or she knows them, (2) any person can improve if she or he so chooses, (3) a superior is qualified to evaluate a subordinate, and (4) people profit from criticism and appreciate help.

The skills required on the part of the supervisor are salesmanship and patience. The employee usually reacts in three ways: (1) suppressed defensive behavior, (2) attempts to cover hostility, and (3) discussion develops new ideas and mutual interests.

The skills required of the supervisor are: (1) listening and reflecting feelings, (2) reflecting ideas, (3) using exploratory questions, and (4) summarizing. The reaction is often problem-solving behavior and employee commitment to the changes or objectives discussed (because they are his or her ideas).

## PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL: PROCEDURES

### Step 1. (5 minutes)

The instructor divides the class into groups of three. If one or two students remain, each is asked to be an observer/consultant of the total exercise and of specific triads viewed on rotation. These outside observer/consultants should have copies of all the roles.

In the triads GROUP MEMBER #1 plays the role of C. Marshall in Round One, L. Kregar in Round Two, and the consultant in Round Three. GROUP MEMBER #2 plays D. Jones in Round One, is the consultant in Round Two, and plays C.W. in Round Three. GROUP MEMBER #3 is the consultant in Round One, plays J. Corwin in Round Two, and plays the field representative in Round Three.

The instructor passes out the appropriate roles to each group member. An observation form is also distributed to participants for their use in the consultant role.

### Step 2. Round One. (15 minutes)

The role playing of C. Marshall (GROUP MEMBER #1) and D. Jones (GROUP MEMBER #2) takes place for about five minutes. The CONSULTANT (GROUP MEMBER #3) then reviews the report prepared during the role play and involves the two actors in a discussion about how the supervisor might improve his/her appraisal interviews.

### Step 3. Round Two. (15 minutes)

GROUP MEMBER #1 plays L. Kregar and GROUP MEMBER #3 plays J. Corwin for about five minutes. Then GROUP MEMBER #2 involves the actors in a discussion of observations made during the role play, giving consultation to L. Kregar.

### Step 4. Round Three. (15 minutes)

C.W. (GROUP MEMBER #2) and the field representative (GROUP MEMBER #3) act out their roles for about five minutes. Then GROUP MEMBER #1 offers consultation for about ten minutes.

### Step 5. Discussion. (40-60 minutes)

Answer the questions provided to you. Your answers will facilitate and focus class discussion.

THE ROLE OF THE CONSULTANT: exemplify each item below.

OBSERVATION GUIDELINES

1. Is the supervisor's feedback DESCRIPTIVE or JUDGEMENTAL?
2. Is the supervisor's feedback SPECIFIC or GENERAL?
3. Does the supervisor "OWN" the feedback or "PLACE" it on others?
4. Is the feedback RELEVANT to the needs of the receiver?
5. Is the feedback APPROPRIATE for the receiver's capacity to do something with it?
6. Did the sender check to see if the receiver WANTED feedback?
7. Was the TIMING of the feedback appropriate, that is, in the context of the discussion?
8. Did the supervisor check with the supervisee to make sure that the supervisee heard and UNDERSTOOD what the supervisor was saying?
9. How could the supervisor's verbal and non-verbal COMMUNICATIONS be improved?
10. How could the MUTUAL PROBLEM SOLVING be improved (e.g., concrete suggestions, specific alternatives, helpful attitude, etc.)?

ROLE PLAY #1. D. JONES AND C. MARSHALL.

NOT TO BE CONSULTED  
UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO

Role of "C. Marshall," Supervisor of Volunteer and Paraprofessional Program

You have just been notified that your boss, D. Jones, the director of the agency, wants to see you in his office. As you walk to his office, you wonder what D. wants to see you about. It might be one of two things.

Maybe D. is going to promote you to chief supervisor. Several times in the past year he has indicated he was thinking along these lines. As D. put it, if you could prove yourself as supervisor, the job would be yours. Well, your record certainly indicates you deserve the promotion! Productivity has never been higher and you have guided the agency to an effective solution of every problem which has come up. You are damn proud of your many accomplishments.

Or D. might want to respond to your memorandum of last week on recruitment of volunteers and paraprofessional trainees. You have recommended:

1. offering substantially higher salaries and expense reimbursements in hopes of attracting better quality personnel;
2. instituting a personnel testing program to weed out incompetent and irresponsible applicants.

Although you are very proud of your accomplishments, the one problem that bothers you is the quality of volunteers and paraprofessionals in your department. You have lost several of these people lately, but you were glad to see most of them go. Most of them were sullen, irresponsible, and not very bright. Most were already in jobs over their heads, and none had potential for promotion.

It has been a constant drain on your energies trying to improve the performance of these subordinates. No matter how much coaching, pleading, encouraging, and threatening you do, it seems as if you have to double-check all of their work to be sure it is done correctly. Through your watchfulness you have corrected mistakes that would have cost the agency many dollars and much embarrassment.

D. Jones is an old personal friend, and you have enjoyed working for him.

At this point you enter D.'s office.

ROLE PLAY #1. D. JONES AND C. MARSHALL

NOT TO BE CONSULTED  
UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO

Role of "D. Jones," Director

You have just asked C. Marshall to come to your office for a conference. Marshall is the supervisor of the volunteer and paraprofessional program. In most respects, you regard Marshall as an ideal supervisor. C. is cost-conscious and efficient, intelligent and displays great initiative and unquestionable integrity. Under Marshall's guidance, output has increased steadily. Moreover, C. is a personal friend.

You have called C. to your office to discuss a problem which has been bothering you for the last year and a half. Despite C.'s many virtues, there is one major problem. Younger personnel in the program refuse to work for Marshall. No volunteer or paraprofessional will stay with the agency more than six months. They complain that C. is authoritarian and never allows them to handle any problem on their own. Marshall is constantly looking over their shoulder and tells them exactly how to conduct even the most trivial aspects of their job.

You would like to appoint Marshall to the vacant position of chief supervisor of the agency. At the same time, you are afraid that you may have to terminate Marshall for the good of the agency. You have spoken to C. several times in the past about this problem, and you feel that you have made it clear that the promotion depends upon C.'s having trained a successor-- someone to take over the volunteer and paraprofessional program when C. is promoted.

Recently, so many bright young people have left the agency, you are determined that C. must either reverse this trend or leave the agency himself.

(You are a little behind in your paperwork and you are not aware of any memoranda C. may have sent you lately. If C. mentions a memo, say that you have not had a chance to read it yet.)

At this point, C. enters your office in answer to your call.

ROLE PLAY #2. J. CORWIN AND L. KREGAR.

Not to be consulted until  
instructed to do so

The Role of J. Corwin, Director

BACKGROUND: J. Corwin is director of a small family services agency that was organized about two years ago. Three others work with Corwin in providing family counseling services to residents of a moderate-sized, middle-class community. Due to certain organizational problems that Corwin perceived, Corwin asked for help from L. Kregar, a board member. Kregar is an experienced consultant with an MSW in administration from Hunter College. Kregar has been talking to the staff and observing some meetings over the past month. A staff meeting, with Kregar attending, has just ended and Kregar and Corwin are walking out of the room.

ROLE: You are director of a small private agency that offers family counseling services to the residents of your community. You have an MSW in social treatment from Western Michigan University. You have attended several institutes on administration and management.

Your staff consists of three salaried counselors, all with master degrees in social work, and a small office staff (one secretary, one clerical worker). You have been director now for almost two years and have been doing quite well. Your biggest problem, lately, seems to be the inability of the other three staff members to carry out team decisions. The staff does not follow through on your agreements and this, of course, makes you angrier and angrier. You, therefore, asked a board member, L. Kregar, to help work with your group on this issue.

The board member has interviewed all of the agency personnel and has attended three staff meetings, including one you just adjourned. You're feeling pretty good about this meeting; a lot got accomplished. It is puzzling, though; in only an hour you had the week's case assignments clear. Your meetings with the staff seem to go more smoothly over time, yet this coordination problem keeps getting worse. You feel it's about time that the board member and you reviewed the organization's problems. Also, you want to discuss the possibility of firing one of the social workers with Kregar. Kregar should have had enough time, by now, to get a good fix on the situation and make some recommendations.

ROLE PLAY #2. J. CORWIN AND L. KREGAR.

Not to be consulted until  
instructed to do so

The Role of L. Kregar, Board Member

BACKGROUND: J. Corwin is director of a small family services agency that was organized about two years ago. Three others work with Corwin in providing family counseling services to residents of a moderate-sized, middle-class community. Due to certain organizational problems that Corwin perceived, Corwin asked for help from L. Kregar, a board member. Kregar is an experienced consultant with an MSW in administration from Hunter College. Kregar has been talking to the staff and observing some meetings over the past month. A staff meeting, with Kregar attending, has just ended and Kregar and Corwin are walking out of the room.

ROLE: You were asked for help by J. Corwin, director of a family services agency of which you are a board member. There are three staff social workers in addition to the director, a secretary, and one clerical worker. Corwin felt that there were problems with their coordination and decision making and asked if you would help. You've interviewed all personnel and attended three staff meetings, including the one that has just ended. The basic problem seems to be centered around Corwin's rather authoritarian leadership style. While the director's leadership does have the effect of producing logically sound decisions with a minimum of meeting time, resentment seems to have built up among the other three counselors, who are less and less committed to Corwin's decisions.

The meeting you just observed was typical: in less than an hour Corwin reviewed client cases for the upcoming month and assigned specific cases to the individuals and, in some cases, teams. The decisions seemed good, but it was clear that the others resented the way Corwin went about it.

You doubt that the teams Corwin appointed will coordinate their efforts effectively. You are now faced with the task of providing the director with some feedback on the nature of the problems you have uncovered

ROLE PLAY #3. C.W. AND THE FIELD REPRESENTATIVE.

Not to be consulted until  
instructed to do so

The Role of C.W.

You are C.W. You are a graduate social worker with educational concentration in casework. You were considered by school faculty to have "promise". You demonstrated skill and competence in your first casework job at a large family service agency in an industrial urban center.

You were born and raised in a very small rural community. Within your family and in your close circle of friends, formal education beyond high school is unusual. You were the only person in your family to attend college. During your brief vacation at home after graduation from graduate school, your status as a "professional" person was viewed with awe by your former associates.

You could not comfortably accept a "professional" position. The reputation you had acquired as an outstanding young adult made you uneasy and created anxiety. Your self-image is that of a "farmer" in competition for survival with a lot of professional associates whom you believe are superior in knowledge, skill, and competence.

Out of school a little over three years now, you were appointed a month ago to the position of director of an urban public welfare agency. Winning the position of director was quite an achievement, since you were chosen over several applicants who were your seniors in years and whose experiences were considerably broader than yours. While annoyed at the magnitude of your new responsibilities, you are energetic and determined to meet all the expectations with excellence no matter how difficult or arduous the task might be.

Since beginning your new job, you have organized a reporting routine by which you are currently informed on program details. You receive worker reports, statistical day sheets, and supervisor's summaries. You review and sign all outgoing mail. You receive information about case assignments and intake activities from a senior supervisor. You try to keep on top of all agency work.

You are meeting with your supervisor, the Field Representative, for your periodic meeting. You are proud of your accomplishments and intend to tell your supervisor about them. You are finally beginning to feel good about the job.

ROLE PLAY #3. C.W. AND THE FIELD REPRESENTATIVE.

Not to be consulted until  
instructed to do so

The Role of the Field Representative

You are meeting with your new supervisee, C.W., who directs the CITY PUBLIC WELFARE AGENCY.

You are pleased with your choice of C.W. as director. C.W. is sensitive, honest, energetic, highly motivated, and very conscientious. You also like C.W.'s mid-Western outlook.

You are, however, concerned with the amount of paperwork which terminates at C.W.'s desk. You think the director is assuming too much responsibility and not delegating enough responsibility. You suspect that the staff may begin to resent the control being exercised by C.W.

You were told, for example, that C.W. is becoming a "lone" operations director who keeps a personal check on practically every phase of the agency's program. C.W. told the senior supervisor, so that supervisor says, "How can I be responsible for the agency programs unless I know everything that is happening!" Another staff member said over coffee that the effectiveness of C.W.'s staff is decreasing because of delays encountered waiting for C.W. to reach decisions on practically all matters.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL EXERCISE

1. What is your reaction to the roles you played? Was each role easy or difficult for you? Why?
2. Which role play situation was the most interesting? The least interesting? Why?
3. What, if anything, did you learn about yourself?
4. What did your group members do in the role plays to facilitate the discussion? To hinder the discussion?
5. What could the consultant have done to help you more in your role as supervisor?
6. What evidence did you see of the "tell-and-sell" supervisory method? Of the problem solving method?
7. How did the supervisee react to the appraisal techniques of his/her superior?
8. What could each actor in each role play have done differently to help the interview? To help the consultation?
9. What method of performance appraisal is most likely to occur in the real world? Why? What method is mostly used in your agency?
10. What steps can the supervisor take to encourage a problem solving discussion? What steps can an agency take to do the same?
11. What principles of performance appraisal, if any, might be drawn from this exercise?
12. What else did you learn from this exercise?

APPENDIX I  
STUDYING THE FORMAL ORGANIZATION

UNIT 7. STUDYING THE FORMAL ORGANIZATION.

A. Student Behavioral Objectives. Given information about a social service organization:

1. Describes the organization in terms of the attributes and processes of its subsystems and environment.
2. Analyzes the interrelationships among the organization's subsystems.
3. Evaluates the effects of organizational-environmental interactions.

B. Content.

1. Definition: the planned entity or social unit "deliberately constructed to seek specific goals" (Parsons); an organization represents a deliberate attempt to establish patterned relationships among human beings in order to achieve externally defined goals.
2. Environmental suprasystem: general nature, key elements, predictability, boundary relationships.
3. Normative subsystem: organizational goals and goal sets, policies, procedural guides, rules, pervasive values, involvement in goal-setting.
4. Technical subsystem: general nature of tasks, nature of inputs, nature of outputs, methods.
5. Structural subsystem: formalization of relationships and procedures for integrative purposes, authority concentration.
6. Psychosocial subsystem: individual and group behavior, status structure, role definitions, motivational factors, leadership style, power system.
7. Managerial subsystem: general nature, decision-making techniques, planning process, control structure, means of conflict resolution.

C. Exercise. "Comparative Organizational Analysis: Hard Rock Prison and Sweet Joint Correctional Center."

COMPARATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL ANALYSIS: HARD ROCK PRISON  
AND SWEET JOINT CORRECTIONAL CENTER

<u>Minutes:</u>	<u>Activities:</u>
30	Read and individually complete preliminary forms
30	Small groups complete final form
30	Group reports and class discussion
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90	

SOURCE: Fremont E. Kast and James E. Rosenzweig. Experiential Exercises and Cases in Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976) pp. 291-308.

### Comparative Organizational

Analysis: Hard Rock Prison and

Sweet Joint Correctional Center

### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

1. To improve our ability to use a systems approach in the comparative analysis of organizations.
2. To increase our understanding of organizations in the correctional field, including the major problems they face.
3. To develop and refine your own conceptual model for studying different types of organizations in our society.

### ADVANCE PREPARATION

Read the Overview and the Procedure. Then complete the forms entitled: My Analysis of Hard Rock Prison (page ) and My Analysis of Sweet Joint Correctional Center (page ). You may also want to do some outside reading to help you in your analysis. If so, you will find a great deal of discussion of correctional institutions in current newspapers, popular periodicals, and paperbacks.

### OVERVIEW

To the outsider, all jails, prisons, and correctional institutions might be assumed to be the same. To the insider and to professionals in the field, there are significant differences. A vast array of correctional organizations comes under the direction of federal, state, and local authorities. They may be differentiated in terms of types of inmates and seriousness of crimes committed and vary according to maximum, medium, and minimum security. They range in size from the massive prison confining thousands of inmates to the small half-way houses with only

30 or 40 members.

In this exercise we will look at two representative types - Hard Rock Prison and Sweet Joint Correctional Center - but we should recognize that they represent only two types among many. But before we make this comparison, it will be helpful to review the historical development of correctional institutions, to look at some current data on the cost of maintaining the system, and to consider the role of prisons in society.

Historical development of correctional institutions. In earlier times, prisons were used to confine the accused. If found guilty, they were punished immediately - beheaded or hanged. For lesser crimes, they might be flogged, whipped, maimed, subjected to the stock and public ridicule, or banished. Punishment was direct and immediate in the form of death or pain, and those who survived were set free.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century there were reform movements, particularly among the Quakers in Pennsylvania, that substituted imprisonment for capital and physical punishment. This idea was the foundation for the development of the concept of imprisonment as punishment and led to the creation of the massive prisons in the United States and many other countries. The Quaker reformers met in the home of Benjamin Franklin to listen to a paper, presented by Benjamin Rush, which outlined the new program for the treatment of prisoners. Although humanitarian in its proposals, it did lead to rather harsh treatment of prisoners.

It was Quaker belief that a man who had done wrong, and had been convicted of it, must be brought to realize that he had done wrong, and desire to do better; he must become penitent before he could be helped. To accomplish this the Quakers established solitary cells in the Walnut Street Jail of Philadelphia (1790) where the evildoers were confined alone to meditate over their sins and wrongdoings. This jail has been called the "birthplace" of the prison system, in its present meaning, not only in the United States but throughout the world.<sup>1</sup>

The very word "penitentiary" reflects this view of doing penance for the crime committed. Rehabilitation came through solitary meditation and seeking forgiveness and salvation from God.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, this concept of solitary confinement gradually gave way to the congregate system, first adopted at Auburn State Prison and Sing Sing in New York, where prisoners were allowed to work and eat together during the day but were confined to solitary cells at night. They were generally forbidden to converse with fellow inmates while working and eating. This system became the standard approach for most prisons and existed without substantial modification for the next 150 years. The high walls, rows of cell blocks, work areas, and other physical manifestations of this system remain in many prisons today.

<sup>1</sup>Karl Menninger, *The Crime of Punishment*, Viking, New York, 1968, p. 222.

During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries there have been trends toward more humane treatment of prisoners. In the earlier period, physical punishment was by no means lacking. Walking the treadmill, being flogged, carrying chains and cannonballs, and other inducements of physical pain were used. Gradually, punishments within the prison became less physical and more psychological. The threat of solitary confinement in a black hole with only bread and water was ever present for deviants. Even though there were reform movements for more humane treatment, the system remained basically the same with the emphasis on confinement and punishment.

There has been a gradual trend toward the establishment of differentiated institutions; maximum security prisons for hardened criminals who commit major crimes, minimum security prisons and work farms for lesser criminals, and juvenile correctional centers. Correctional systems have become much more complex, with a wide diversity of types. Slowly, emphasis has shifted from pure confinement and punishment toward treatment and rehabilitation of inmates.

Current data on corrections. Correctional institutions (ranging from prisons through half-way houses to probation and parole activities) are a part of the criminal justice system that is substantially hidden from public view. It rarely gets much publicity unless we have an Attica type of riot. Many of the major prisons are located in remote rural areas out of sight. "Its invisibility belies the system's size, complexity, and crucial importance to the control of crime. Corrections consists of scores of different kinds of institutions and programs of utmost diversity in approach, facilities, and quality."<sup>2</sup>

Approximately 1.5 million persons are under correctional authority in the United States. Of this one-third or 500,000, are in institutions—federal and state prisons, jails, juvenile training centers, etc., and the other million are supervised in the community on probation or parole. Approximately 2 percent of our male population is under some form of correctional authority. In the course of a year, our correctional system handles 2.5 million admissions and involves expenditures of \$3 billion. But these expenditures are not evenly distributed between those in institutions and those in the community. Some 80 percent of the total expenditure is related to the one-third of the offenders who are incarcerated in institutions, while only 20 percent is expended in dealing with those who are on probation or parole. Society's costs of warehousing prisoners in institutions is very high indeed! It costs about one-tenth as much to supervise a person under probation or parole as it does to confine that person to an institution. Of the more than 120,000 people employed in corrections, only 24,000 have any connection with rehabilitation. The other 80 percent are involved with guard duty and custodial care of the 500,000 prisoners.

<sup>2</sup>The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1967, p. 159.

Responsibility for the administration of correction is very diffused in the United States. The federal government, all 50 states, the District of Columbia, and almost all cities engage in correctional activities. Typically, each level of government acts independently of the others. The federal government has no overall control over state corrections agencies. Although the states generally have responsibility for prisons and parole programs, probation is most frequently tied to court administration as a county or city operation. Counties generally do not have jurisdiction over the jails operated by cities and towns. Thus, the whole system of corrections is made up of relatively autonomous units that are not very well integrated. This lack of integration creates major problems of organization and administration.

The prison and society. Donald R. Cressey suggests that "the variety of organizational patterns characterizing modern prisons has grown out of changing conceptions, in the society as a whole, of what ought to be done to, with, and for criminals. . . .In contemporary American society, there are at least four distinguishable attitudes toward the control of crime, and each of them incorporates a program of action for correctional agencies and institutions."<sup>3</sup>

First there is the desire for retribution. Taking individual revenge is usually illegal, but we can act collectively to make the criminal suffer. It is hoped that such treatment will reinforce anticriminal values.

Second, society desires that the suffering imposed on criminals act as a deterrent to potential criminals. Swift and sure punishment will arouse in noncriminals a fear of transgression.

Third, there is the obvious desire for protection against the lawbreaker. The criminal must be physically isolated from the rest of the community for its own safety.

Finally, there is the social desire to reduce crime rates through rehabilitation or changing the antisocial behavior of criminals.

We can see these broad social values represented in our contemporary society, and they serve as primary determinants of the actual design and administration of our correctional institutions.

Two types of prison systems. Now that you have some historical background on the development of correctional institutions and a broader theoretical framework for looking at prison systems, we can turn to a more specific consideration of two alternative types for comparative purposes:

<sup>3</sup>Donald R. Cressey, "Prison Organizations: in James G. March (ed.), Handbook of Organizations, Chicago, Rand McNally, 1965, p. 1025.

The punitive-custodial type characterized by the maximum security prison that emphasizes the goals of punishment and confinement. We will identify this type as Hard Rock Prison.

The rehabilitative-treatment type characterized by the community correctional center which places minimal emphasis upon security and punishment and more emphasis on rehabilitation. We will identify this type as Sweet Joint Correctional Center.

In order to provide you with a general view of the nature of the organizational climate of these two types, we have provided some excerpts from current literature which describe their specific characteristics.

#### HARD ROCK PRISON

This is the traditional correctional institution characterized by thick walls, locked doors, and guards with machine guns in the towers. Such institutions, typically located in remote rural areas, emphasize confinement, custodial care, and security against escape. You have probably seen movies that depict this type of institution.

The following two excerpts provide some insights about these institutions.

#### LIFE IN THE JOINT IS THE LAST STOP\*

##### "YOU TURN YOUR BRAIN OFF IN HERE"

Walla Walla--Jack Smith was 22 when he pulled his first burglary, got caught and was "busted" to the State Reformatory at Monroe. Now he's 35 and one of the long time clients of the Washington State Penitentiary at Walla Walla, an armed robber, escapee and stick-up artist.

He's been inside the "joint" so long that he refers to his brief releases in the free world as experiences which put him "outside my comfort zone."

Smith sat in the deserted office of a penitentiary guard just before lockup one night recently and tried to tell a reporter what its like inside the state's last-stop prison.

He looked back over his 13 years of incarceration and concluded, "Trust and love is lost in here. Living in this kind of environment makes a cold-blooded person out of you.

"If they'd have sprung me six weeks after they put me in here the first time, I'd have gone out and never stolen another dime--that's how much the place scared me.

\*Hilda Bryant, Seattle Post-Intelligencer, May 4, 1975.

"From '62 until now I've been in the system and this system just destroys people. You get hurt over and over and you build a wall between you and feeling.

"My mother committed suicide while I was in here. After I got over the shock and loss, I wouldn't let myself care about it. I knew where she had been. I had been there myself about two years ago. I cut both wrists and my throat. I tried it three times in a couple of days. You get to where nothing can hurt you anymore.

"You turn your brain off when you come in here and you don't turn it on again until you leave. Your normal reactions are suppressed. You see a guy hang himself or get cut up and you suppress your feelings.

"You're living in a totally negative environment all the time. An unhappy one. You're living around violence.

"I've packed a knife a lot of times but I never had to use it. But I've used my fists a lot. I was dumb and ornery. But now there's a lot of cutting and less using fists.

"It's a drug problem in here now more than crime. It used to be a small booze problem that led to fist fights but now its a lot more serious--drugs lead to knife fights."

Fear walks with you daily in the penitentiary, he said. Fear of what the state will do with you and fear that you will be killed in a knife fight--maybe over a pack of smokes or a pittance of money you borrowed and you can't pay back. And fear that maybe you will have to kill somebody.

He talked of his wife from whom he is divorced. "If you're married and you are sent up you quit growing together. When you're in here and your wife's out on the street you start living differently. You become like your environment. You pick up traits and characteristics pretty quick.

"There's no solitude in here, no privacy. No way to get away from eyes but to fantasize. There is noise all the time. Doors are banging, guys are hollering or acting out or playing radios.

"You go a whole year without getting tagged and you go up before the parole board and they say you're conwise, you just got slick.

"You hate and become hostile. You hate them and plan little ways to kill them in your fantasies and all the time it is you, but you still hate the 'bulls' and the administration. But it is really that you hate the system."

"I think you lose your normal drives in here to achieve. Five years in and you're a long way down hill. This is a school of crime.

"You lose all your work habits. You become the best procrastinators in the world. You become a cold-blooded liar.

"You learn to live in this place by its values and norms and then you have to unlearn it all to make it back outside.

"There have been a few programs that got me to thinking about how programmed I am. I didn't know it had happened until it was too late. Its probably the last thing in the world a person

wants to admit to themselves--that they're institutionalized.

He had been disillusioned by so-called rehabilitation programs in prison. He tried occupational training a decade ago when he was a first offender back in Monroe Reformatory.

"I went to an 18-month course in auto mechanics but when I got out I found out it was obsolete. I thought I had learned something. God, I was stupid!"

When he was in Shelton Diagnostic Center he said he called forth his best powers of appeal to "make them send me to Monroe instead of Walla Walla because Monroe is closer to civilization."

But he was sent to the state penitentiary in 1967. At first he could remember what it was like outside. "You remember some of the old places, the way you used to live. You dream about it. Its the only thing that keeps you going for a while.

"But in time it fades and you build fantasies to live on."

And finally, inevitably, you become institutionalized.

He said thoughtfully, "You sentenced me to the wrong place. I know how to live in an institution. It is out there that I can't make it."

#### REPORT ON ATTICA\*

Forty-three citizens of New York State died at Attica Correctional Facility between September 9 and 13, 1971. Thirty-nine of that number were killed and more than 80 others were wounded by gunfire during the 15 minutes it took the State Police to retake the prison on September 13. With the exception of Indian massacres in the late 19th century, the State Police assault which ended the four day prison uprising was the bloodiest one-day encounter between Americans since the Civil War.

The New York State Special Commission on Attica was asked to reconstruct those September days and to determine why they happened. . . .

On the day the Attica uprising began, with smoke still pouring from parts of the prison destroyed by inmates, Vincent Mancusi, then the superintendent of the correctional facility in western New York State, shook his head in disbelief and asked: "Why are they destroying their home?"

Their home was a complex of barred cells 6 feet wide, 9 feet long, and 7 feet high, in buildings hidden from public view by a solid gray stone wall 30 feet high and 2 feet thick, not very different from, and certainly no worse than, New York State's five other maximum security prisons. But it did not have to be better or worse than the others for it to explode, as it did, in September 1971. For the Atticas of this country have become lethal crucibles in which the most explosive social forces of our society are mixed with the pettiness and degradation of prison life, under intense pressure of maintaining "security."

\*Attica, The Official Report of the New York State Special Commission on Attica, New York, Bantam Books, Inc., 1972, pp. xi, 2-5.

The titles "correctional facility," "superintendent," "correction officer," and "inmate," which the Legislature bestowed on the prisons, wardens, guards, and prisoners in 1970 were new. But these euphemisms expressed goals that dated back to the founding of the modern prison system in the early 19th century by men who believed that prisons should serve the purpose of turning prisoners into industrious and well-behaved members of society. Prison administrators throughout the country have continued pledging their dedication to the concept of rehabilitation while continuing to run prisons constructed in the style and operated in the manner of the 19th-century walled fortresses. "Security" has continued to be the dominant theme: the fantasy of reform legitimized prisons but the functionalism of custody has perpetuated them.

The rhetoric about rehabilitation could not, however, deceive the men brought together inside the walls; the inmates, 54 percent black, 37 percent white and 8.7 percent Spanish-speaking, almost 80 percent from the cities' ghettos, and the correction officers, all white and drawn from the rural areas in which we build our prisons.

For inmates, "correction" meant daily degradation and humiliation: being locked in a cell for 14 to 16 hours a day; working for wages that averaged 30 cents a day in jobs with little or no vocational value; having to abide by hundreds of petty rules for which they could see no justification. It meant that all their activities were regulated, standardized, and monitored for them by prison authorities and that their opportunity to exercise free choice was practically nonexistent: their incoming and outgoing mail was read, their radio programs were screened in advance, their reading material was restricted, their movements outside their cells were regulated, they were told when to turn lights out and when to wake up, and even essential toilet needs had to be taken care of in view of patrolling officers. Visits from family and friends took place through a mesh screen and were preceded and followed by strip searches probing every orifice of the inmate's body.

In prison, inmates found the same deprivation that they had encountered on the street: meals were unappetizing and not up to nutritional standards. Clothing was old, ill-fitting, and inadequate. Most inmates could take showers only once a week. State-issued clothing, toilet articles, and other personal items had to be supplemented by purchases at a commissary where prices did not reflect the meager wages inmates were given to spend. To get along in the prison's economy, inmates resorted to "hustling," just as they had in trying to cope with the economic system outside the walls.

The sources of inmate frustration and discontent did not end there: medical care, while adequate to meet acute health needs, was dispensed in a callous, indifferent manner by doctors who feared and despised most of the inmates they treated; inmates were not protected from unwelcome homosexual advances; even the ticket to freedom for most inmates--parole--was burdened with

inequities or at least the appearance of inequity.

For officers, "correction" meant a steady but monotonous 40-hour-a-week job, with a pension after 25 years's service. It meant maintaining custody and control over an inmate population which had increasing numbers of young men, blacks, and Puerto Ricans from the urban ghettos, unwilling to conform to the restrictions of prison life and ready to provoke confrontation, men whom the officers could not understand and were not trained to deal with. It meant keeping the inmates in line, seeing that everything ran smoothly, enforcing the rules. It did not mean, for most officers, helping inmates to solve their problems or to become citizens capable of returning to society. For the correction officers, who were always outnumbered by inmates, there was a legitimate concern about security; but that concern was not served by policies which created frustration and tension far more dangerous than the security risks they were intended to avert.

Above all, for both inmates and officers, "correction" meant an atmosphere charged with racism. Racism was manifested in job assignments, discipline, self-segregation in the inmate mess halls, and in the daily interaction of inmate and officer and among the inmates themselves. There was no escape within the walls from the growing mistrust between white middle America and the residents of urban ghettos. Indeed, at Attica, racial polarity and mistrust were magnified by the constant reminder that the keepers were white and the kept were largely black and Spanish-speaking. The young black inmate tended to see the white officer as the symbol of a racist, oppressive system which put him behind bars. The officer, his perspective shaped by his experience on the job, knew blacks only as belligerent unrepentant criminals. The result was a mutual lack of respect which made communication all but impossible.

In the end, the promise of rehabilitation had become a cruel joke. If anyone was rehabilitated, it was in spite of Attica, not because of it. Statistics show that three-quarters of the men who entered prison in New York State in the sixties had been exposed to the "rehabilitative" experience in prison before. If Attica was a true model, then prisons served no one. Not the inmates, who left them more embittered than before. Not the correction officers, who were locked into the same confinement and asked to perform an undefined job made impossible by the environment. Not the prison officials, who became accomplices in maintaining the fiction that maximum security prisons serve a useful purpose. And not the public, which requires penal institutions that serve a useful role in the reduction of crime. . . .

The only bright spots at Attica were two experimental programs available to less than 4 percent of the inmates: the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR) and work release. These programs showed that when inmates were given responsibility and the opportunity to engage in meaningful activity, rehabilitation was possible. . . .

Most of the inmates now at Attica will be returned to the streets, and every risk that the prisons have declined to take in affording

these men the freedom and opportunity to develop a sense of self-control will be passed to the public. There is no rebuttal to the testimony of one inmate shortly after his release from Attica:

The taxpayers paid thousands of dollars per year to keep me incarcerated. They didn't get anything for their money. It was a waste.

#### SWEET JOINT CORRECTIONAL CENTER

There is increasing sentiment for moving away from large prisons located in remote rural areas toward much smaller community-based correctional centers. The following excerpts suggest this trend. The first is the summary recommendations of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. It is followed by several other excerpts describing the organizational climate in such institutions.

#### A MODEL FOR INSTITUTIONS

The Commission's national survey of corrections and other studies showed it how far many jurisdictions still were from optimal uses of institutions. It was disturbed to find that much planning for institutional construction, and the attitudes of many officials concerned, indicated that these conditions were not likely to be radically changed in the future.

The Commission believes that there is, therefore, value in setting forth, in the form of a "model," the changes that it sees as necessary for most correctional institutions. There will, of course, continue to be special offender problems that must be dealt with in other kinds of institutions. But in general new institutions should be of the sort represented by the model, and old institutions should as far as possible be modified to incorporate its concepts.

The model institution would be relatively small, and located as close as possible to the areas from which it draws its inmates, probably in or near a city rather than in a remote location. While it might have a few high-security units for short-term detention under unusual circumstances, difficult and dangerous inmates would be sent to other institutions for longer confinement.

Architecturally, the model institution would resemble as much as possible a normal residential setting. Rooms, for example, would have doors rather than bars. Inmates would eat at small tables in an informal atmosphere. There would be classrooms, recreation facilities, dayrooms, and perhaps a shop and library.

\*The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society, A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1967, pp. 172-174, 297.

In the main, however, education, vocational training, and other such activities would be carried on in the community, or would draw into the institution community-based resources. In this sense the model would operate much like such programs as the Highfields and Essexfields projects. Its staff, like probation and parole officers, would be active in arranging for participation by offenders in community activities and in guiding and counseling them.

Some offenders might be released after an initial period of detention for diagnosis and intensive treatment. The model institution would permit correctional officials to invoke short-term detention--overnight or for a few days--as a sanction or discipline, or to head off an offender from prospective trouble. Even if initial screening and classification indicated that long-term incarceration was called for, and an offender was, therefore, confined in another facility, the community-based institution could serve as a half-way house or prerelease center to ease his transition to community life. It could indeed serve as the base for a network of separate group homes and residential centers to be used for some offenders as a final step before complete release.

The prototype proposed here, if followed widely, would help shift the focus of correctional efforts from temporary banishment of offenders to a carefully devised combination of control and treatment. If supported by sufficiently flexible laws and policies, it would permit institutional restraint to be used only for as long as necessary, and in carefully graduated degree rather than as a relatively blind and inflexible process.

A final advantage of the concept suggested here is that institutions that are small, close to metropolitan areas, and highly diversified in their programs provide excellent settings for research and experimentation and can serve as proving grounds for needed innovations. Not only are they accessible to university and other research centers, but their size and freedom from restrictions foster a climate friendly to inquiry and to the implementation of changes suggested by it.

Federal and state governments should finance establishment of model, small unit correctional institutions for flexible, community-oriented treatment.

Even in institutions committed to longer term custody, many steps can be taken of this model to improve capacity to contribute to the reintegration of offenders. The most fundamental of these changes may be summed up as the establishment of a collaborative regime in which staff and inmates work together toward rehabilitative goals, and unnecessary conflict between the two groups is avoided.

Institutional communities in which persons are kept against their will tend to generate tension and conflict between the inmates and the staff. The task of preparing the inmate for reintegration into the community becomes lost in elaborate forms of competition, in covert and corrupting reciprocities between guards and inmate leaders, and in forced maintenance of passivity on the part of inmates. This encourages anger toward--and yet complete dependence on--institutional authority.

The collaborative approach seeks to reverse this too common pattern. The custodial staff, for example, is recognized as having great potential for counseling functions, both informally with individual inmates and in organized group discussions. Administrators and business staff likewise have been brought into the role of counselors and assigned rehabilitative functions in some programs. This collaborative style of management is more readily achieved if the institution staff is augmented by persons from the free community with whom inmates can identify. This involves recruiting outsiders who can help the inmate to develop motivation for needed vocational, avocational, and other self-improvement goals. Volunteers and subprofessional aides can be as useful in institutions as in community-based corrections.

Another important dimension of the collaborative concept is the involvement of offenders themselves in treatment functions. Group counseling sessions, for example, provide opportunities for inmates to help each other, through hard and insistent demands for honesty in self-examination, demands that cannot be made with equal force and insight by staff, whose members have not had personal experience in the world of criminal activity. The loosening of inmate-to-staff and of inmate-to-inmate communication tends to reduce the inmate politician's power. Moreover, the "rat" complex, which brings great social stigma and physical danger to an inmate who cooperates with staff in traditional institutions, is greatly diminished.

A delicate balance is involved between giving inmates a meaningful role to play in the life of the institution, and allowing them to usurp authority that should only be carried by staff. The line is still being fashioned in most institutions today, and more experience will be required to decide where it lies in specific areas such as assignment of inmates to job, work, and living units and decisions involving discipline and security.

All institutions should be run to the greatest possible extent with rehabilitation a joint responsibility of staff and inmates. Training of correctional managers and staff should reflect this mode of operation. The wholesale strengthening of community treatment of offenders and such rehabilitation are the main lines where action is needed to make correctional treatment more effective in reducing recidivism. Correctional programs of the future should be built around small centers, located in the communities they serve. These would be better suited than present facilities for flexible treatment, combining the short-term commitment sufficient for most offenders with a variety of partial release or community corrections programs in which job training, educational, and counseling services would be provided or coordinated by the center's staff. Careful screening and classification of offenders is essential so that handling can be individualized to suit the needs in each case. So, too, is greater emphasis on evaluation of the effect of programs on different offenders.

Much can be done to advance corrections toward such goals with existing facilities, but large increases in skilled diagnostic, rehabilitation, and research personnel are needed immediately. A new regime should be inaugurated in institutions to involve all staff, and encourage inmates to collaborate as much as possible, in rehabilitation. Prison industries must give more meaningful work experience. Counseling, education, and vocational training programs for inmates must be strengthened. Greater

use should be made of release for work and education, of halfway houses, and of similar programs to ease the offender's reintegration in society.

#### HALFWAY HOUSES GIVE CONVICTS A CHANCE TO WORK IT OUT\*

The big, old house is airy rather than spacious, informal rather than cozy, comfortable in an austere way.

It's less scabby than the two that flank it on the corner of 11th Avenue and Spruce Street. Together, the three are known as Pioneer Fellowship House.

Thirty-three convicts live there. They all have jobs and pay their own way although they are still doing time. It's called work-release. It's community-based corrections.

Tommy Curtis, 34, has lived there since January, 1974. Before that, he lived in the Washington State Penitentiary and the Monroe Reformatory for a total of 15 years.

An armed robber and consummate conman, no one gave him more than two weeks "outside."

Fifteen months later Curtis is married, buying a home, has an eight-year-old daughter and is head chef in one of Seattle's good restaurants.

Curtis tilted back in his chair at Pioneer House, a private institution, and "flashed back" to that day he entered the halfway house, nervous and acutely aware that he was viewed by the staff and other residents as a poor risk.

"When I first came out I was like a kid. All I'd ever done was capering. It kind of freaks you out to come to a place where they want you to think for yourself instead of them doing the thinking for you.

"So they don't let you go out for the first week. They try to get you to relax instead of throwing you right outside and telling you to 'go get it.'

"This is a good program. They put me back where I should have been.

"If they had put me back out on the streets from the pen I seriously think I'd be packin' a gun again.

"It helped me get back into the community without my being paranoid like I always was before."

Curtis has been paroled twice directly to the streets. The first time he was "busted" after five months, the second time, inside of a year. Of those times, he said, "It took me four months just to get over that weird feeling that everybody was looking at me and as soon as I got over that I was capering again."

His eyes ranged around the bright, clean office of Pioneer House supervisor Harry Baummeister. "This place is like a refuge if you need it to be. It helped me break back into society and that's hard. Probably one guy in four doesn't make it because of the initial shock.

"I almost ran once. That was my normal pattern. I really don't know why I didn't - unless it was because I had a friend I'd been able to rap with. And I was just tired of doing time. And there were friends at work who cared that I stay straight.

"It's like night and day - being here and being inside. But I've stopped relating to the penitentiary now. That's something thousands

\*Hilda Bryant, Seattle Post-Intelligencer, May 4, 1975

are never able to accomplish.

"Maybe that's why I'm still out here."

Curtis said he had never worked more than four months at a stretch in his entire life before he came to the halfway house. But you can't stay in the halfway house without a job. Each resident pays \$5.50 a day for board and room.

When Curtis was in the State Reformatory he cost the taxpayers \$6,200 a year. When he was in the penitentiary it cost taxpayers \$7,000 a year to support him. Work release, state prison officials say, costs the taxpayers about half the cost of warehousing adult offenders.

Curtis said, "We all pay \$165 a month to stay here but in comparison to inside the joint most dudes would pay \$300 a month to stay here.

"If a guy can make it out here for five weeks he's free. Because that's when you move up into phase five and you have more social outing time.

"When you've been here three months you move up into unlimited social outing hours - that's phase seven. In phase seven you can apply for early parole hearing.

"It's like graduating. Now I'm as far as I can go. I went from a dishwasher to head chef at a nice restaurant. I was kind of like a 17-year-old because I'd never gone straight and I had to learn the system. A lot of ordinary things were sort of perplexing.

"In a way this is a bummer because we're supposed to be perfect and not make mistakes. But we have the same problems everybody else out here does. For example a speeding ticket can put us back in jail. For the normal man on the street it would just be a ticket.

"We're supposed to be super. It only takes one person to break the program."

But the pressure for the offender to live straighter when he is on the "outside" than a free person is required to is clearly worth it to Curtis. He said, "All prison is is a warehouse, a jungle. It's a sad way for a human to have to live. In a penitentiary you are part of a mass. Out here you become an individual again."

#### MODERN PRISON IS A BETTER PLACE TO LIVE\*

Arlington, Snohomish County - Three men work in a lush, organic garden where pea vines are 4 feet high.

Another threesome tosses a football on the spacious green lawn circled by tall, cool evergreens.

One man vacuums a car in the warm sunshine.

A couple more shoot pool in a well-equipped gymnasium.

Another reads in the lounge with its handsome beamed ceiling.

Some do kitchen work and grounds maintenance.

These are some of the 60 convicted felons serving "time" at the Indian Ridge Treatment Center near here.

There are no fences, walls or guard towers.

"We don't always lock the doors," said Donald Look, the superintendent.

A few miles away in the woods, a crew works for the State Department of Natural Resources. Sprinkled throughout the nearby communities of Everett, Marysville, Lake Stevens and this town are 10 men on fulltime

\*Marjorie Jones, The Seattle Times, July 1, 1974

work-release jobs. They all have weekends off.

One man working swing shift drives his own car to his job. He makes \$4.40 an hour. Most of it will go to pay his family back for lawyer fees.

Eight are attending classes at Everett Community College.

Some are in the small classroom in the complex of buildings that make up this institution, the most modern prison in the state - perhaps in the country.

The Indian Ridge program operates on a concept of incarceration and treatment similar to that of the juvenile youth camp, which it was prior to its transition to an adult facility.

Look said the Indian Ridge program may become a model for community-based corrections of the future.

"We've made a good start," he said.

Look, largely responsible for the switch to an adult corrections facility with full backing from Olympia, said the center will have been in operation a year on July 9.

There has not been an escape.

"We're way overdue," said the realistic Look, an experienced corrections professional.

Why they don't run may be attributed to a combination of factors, Look believes.

Some men are genuinely concerned that the program continue to be available to them and others. Escapes might reduce its effectiveness.

The obvious reason is that if they have to spend "time" they'd much rather spend it here than any other institution," as one 19-year-old prisoner said.

"I'd say a person would have to be a fool to run," said a Renton man, 20, committed for grand larceny. "He could end up in Walla Walla (the penitentiary)."

But the 19-year-old is not happy. He's been here 8½ months and can't get work or school release. He had a drinking infraction.

"You only get that (work release) if you're perfect," he said.

But he feels the program has done him good. The staff is "tight" however, he said. They are supposed to take a head check every two hours, but they take one every hour, he said.

Another complained that the staff, used to counseling juveniles in the former program, doesn't know how to counsel adults. "They baby-sit us," he said.

The security rooms, of which there are six, have been used fewer than a dozen times during the year. Only one man has had to be transferred to a maximum-security prison. That was for use of marijuana.

The operation of Indian Ridge has been geared to succeed. The clientele has been carefully selected, ranging in age from 18 to 34. Screened out are the men who have committed crimes of violence, such as murder, assault and sex offenses. Only those on first commitments are accepted.

Forty-five per cent have drug commitments. Others are for burglary, auto theft, robbery, grand larceny, forgery and second degree assault. Six federal prisoners have been placed here; four on charges related to draft evasion.

All the men at Indian Ridge have spent some time at the State Corrections Center at Shelton.

Before they are accepted at Indian Ridge the men must have been reviewed by the classification staff at Shelton and approved for transfer by the corrections office in Olympia and by Look.

One 25-year-old who worked in the organic garden is a business-administration graduate who had his own business in California. He was convicted of a marijuana charge.

"I feel this program is a step in the right direction," he said. "It puts some humanity into imprisonment."

He has freedom to work in the garden he loves and is getting into yoga.

Another man who works in the garden has a couple of years of college. He also was "busted" for selling marijuana.

Some men resent the fact they can't go out at nights and even Look believes it would be possible with many of the men to go unescorted. But the 25-year-old said he thought that would "make it too easy."

They can't umpire Little League games without staff escort.

Look said there are a large number of men in state prisons who do not need the confinement of a maximum-security institution.

"This may be the solution," he said.

The program is not too different from that of the youth camp. Most of the men are only a few years older, but they are expected to behave as adults. There is a counselor for every five men here, and a program set up for each individual.

The cost of operation is \$10,000 a year per resident. At the reformatory the cost per year is \$7,785 per year, and there is only one counselor for every 70 residents.

The freedom of Indian Ridge compared to the security of locks, fences, guard towers and uniforms at a maximum-security prison is "quite a transition" for most of the men.

But the 21-year-old committed for marijuana sale said, "You can't see them, but the fences are still there. They're invisible."

It's tougher staying behind the invisible walls, a 22-year-old committed for burglary said. It requires more discipline.

The biggest gripe is "doing time." A lot of the men (Look included) feel that there comes a time in a man's imprisonment when he is "ready" to leave. Further imprisonment will only make adjustment on the outside more difficult.

But release is still dependent upon the State Board of Prison Terms and Parole, which has the authority to override any recommendations by staff.

Another gripe is "crew," that is the work crew in the woods. In cold, wet, winter months, they bend over planting trees all day. Many of the men hate it.

The men get \$25 monthly gratuity when they work plus \$1 a day incentive. They think they deserve more.

There are two dormitories with 16 men in each. As the men progress they are moved to more privileges and into single rooms.

When the institution was a juvenile facility there were a couple of incidents in the community, Look said, but there have been no problems with the adults.

He attributes this largely to the staff's job of public relations.

"The community was fearful at first but everything has worked out well," the superintendent said.

Lyle Poolman, vocational-training coordinator, said the community has cooperated beautifully in providing jobs for the men.

"In the past two weeks I've had a half a dozen employers contact me for more of the fellows (prisoners) to work for them," Poolman said.

#### PROCEDURE

In this exercise you are asked to use a systems approach to compare Hard Rock Prison and Sweet Joint Correctional Center. In order to facilitate comparison and discussion, use the model set forth in this book:

- Environmental system
- Goals and values subsystem
- Technical subsystem
- Structural subsystem
- Psychosocial subsystem
- Managerial subsystem

#### STEP 1

Read the Overview, including the excerpts. Before class, complete the forms, My Analysis of Hard Rock Prison and My Analysis of Sweet Joint Correctional Center (pages      and      ). Use descriptive words and phrases to depict the key characteristics of each organization.

#### STEP 2

Meet in groups of five or six and develop a group composite of your comparative analysis. Refine your descriptions and record them on the form, Comparative Analysis of Hard Rock Prison and Sweet Joint Correctional Center (page      ).

#### STEP 3

Select one group to report on its analysis of Hard Rock Prison and another group to report on its analysis of Sweet Joint Correctional Center.

#### STEP 4

The entire class participates in discussion.

MY ANALYSIS OF HARD ROCK PRISON

Environmental system

Goals and values

Technology

Structure

Psychosocial system

Managerial system

MY ANALYSIS OF SWEET JOINT CORRECTIONAL CENTER

Environmental system

Goals and values

Technology

Structure

Psychosocial system

Managerial system

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF HARD ROCK PRISON AND SWEET JOINT CORRECTIONAL CENTER

	HARD ROCK	SWEET JOINT
Environment		
Goals and values		
Technology		
Structure		
Psychosocial		
Managerial		

DISCUSSION. (Approximately 15-20 minutes.)

1. Do you think that it is possible to establish a correctional institution that can effectively accomplish the diverse social goals of confinement and punishment as well as treatment and rehabilitation?

2. What conflicting societal demands do other social service organizations face?

How do these agencies respond in terms of their goals, structure, client processing, staffing, decision making?

3. Of what value is it to you as a social work administrator to view the organization as a system?

4. Briefly describe the formal components of your own agency.

APPENDIX J

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: INFLUENCE  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: A1-A3)

APPENDIX J

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: INFLUENCE  
 (ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
 MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: A1 - A3)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
<b>Relevance:</b>					
06	18	91	5.05	0.80	0.64
07	18	93	5.17	0.71	0.50
08	16	62	3.86	1.31	1.72
09	15	63	4.20	1.01	1.03
<b>Learning Means:</b>					
10	18	95	5.28	0.83	0.68
11	--	--	--	--	--
12	18	89	4.94	0.94	0.88
13	18	89	4.94	1.00	1.00
14	16	79	4.94	1.06	1.13
15	18	92	5.11	0.83	0.69
16	18	92	5.11	0.90	0.81
17	18	89	4.94	0.87	0.76
18	18	97	5.39	0.85	0.72
19	--	--	--	--	--
20	18	81	4.50	0.92	0.85
21	17	74	4.35	1.17	1.37
22	18	96	5.33	0.84	0.71
23	17	83	4.88	0.93	0.86
<b>Effectiveness:</b>					
36	16	78	4.88	0.96	0.92
37	16	79	4.94	0.77	0.60
38	16	82	5.13	0.62	0.38
41	15	63	4.20	1.01	1.03
42	15	74	4.93	0.96	0.92
43	15	64	4.27	0.88	0.78
A1	18	90	5.72	1.23	1.51
A2	18	88	5.67	1.14	1.29
A3	18	89	5.22	1.17	1.36

APPENDIX K

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: INFORMAL ORGANIZATION  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: B1-B3)

APPENDIX K

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: INFORMAL ORGANIZATION  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: B1-B3)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
<b>Relevance:</b>					
06	13	60	4.62	1.26	1.59
07	13	60	4.62	0.96	0.92
08	13	45	3.46	1.27	1.60
09	12	38	3.17	1.11	1.24
<b>Learning Means:</b>					
10	13	48	3.69	1.55	2.40
11	13	47	3.62	1.71	2.92
12	13	54	4.15	1.46	2.14
13	13	49	3.77	1.24	1.53
14	13	42	3.23	1.53	2.36
15	13	49	3.77	1.30	1.69
16	13	60	4.62	1.12	1.26
17	12	47	3.92	1.31	1.72
18	13	56	4.31	1.11	1.23
19	13	49	3.78	1.30	1.69
20	13	50	3.85	1.21	1.47
21	11	33	3.00	1.10	1.20
22	13	56	4.31	1.11	1.23
23	13	52	4.00	1.41	2.00
<b>Effectiveness:</b>					
36	11	33	3.00	1.61	2.60
37	11	41	3.73	1.42	2.02
38	11	39	3.54	1.69	2.87
41	12	51	4.25	0.97	0.93
42	12	49	4.08	1.08	1.17
43	12	46	3.83	1.34	1.79
B1	18	101	5.61	1.04	1.08
B2	18	103	5.72	1.07	1.15
B3	18	99	5.50	1.25	1.56

APPENDIX L

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: LEADERSHIP  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: C1-C3)

APPENDIX L

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: LEADERSHIP  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: C1-C3)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
<b>Relevance:</b>					
06	18	65	3.61	1.50	2.25
07	18	63	3.50	1.34	1.79
08	18	55	3.06	1.70	2.88
09	17	44	2.59	1.58	2.51
<b>Learning Means:</b>					
10	18	61	3.39	1.42	2.02
11	17	67	3.94	1.39	1.93
12	18	92	5.11	0.83	0.69
13	17	57	3.35	1.54	2.37
14	18	54	3.00	1.19	1.41
15	18	58	3.22	1.56	2.30
16	16	73	4.56	1.09	1.20
17	15	49	3.27	1.49	2.21
18	17	81	4.76	1.20	1.44
19	16	68	4.25	1.18	1.40
20	14	42	3.00	1.80	3.23
21	15	47	3.13	1.73	2.98
22	16	59	3.69	1.66	2.76
23	15	45	3.00	1.69	2.85
<b>Effectiveness:</b>					
36	17	73	4.29	1.53	2.35
37	16	57	3.56	1.67	2.80
38	17	54	3.18	1.55	2.40
41	17	63	3.71	1.45	2.10
42	17	64	3.76	1.71	2.94
43	17	61	3.59	1.54	2.38
C1	18	123	6.83	0.92	0.85
C2	18	112	6.22	0.88	0.77
C3	18	102	5.67	1.03	1.06

APPENDIX M

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: SUPERVISORY TASKS  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: E1-E3)

APPENDIX M

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: SUPERVISORY TASKS  
 (ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
 MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: E1-E3)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
<b>Relevance:</b>					
06	13	56	4.30	1.03	1.06
07	13	54	4.15	0.99	0.97
08	13	46	3.54	1.13	1.27
09	12	53	4.42	1.16	1.36
<b>Learning Means:</b>					
10	13	38	2.92	1.50	2.24
11	8	17	2.13	1.55	2.41
12	13	52	4.00	1.29	1.66
13	13	45	3.46	1.39	1.94
14	12	39	3.25	1.42	2.02
15	13	40	3.08	1.71	2.91
16	11	46	4.18	1.25	1.56
17	12	44	3.67	1.50	2.24
18	13	56	4.31	1.38	1.90
19	6	18	3.00	1.41	2.00
20	13	47	3.62	1.61	2.59
21	11	30	2.73	1.42	2.02
22	12	42	3.50	1.31	1.73
23	10	33	3.30	1.77	3.12
<b>Effectiveness:</b>					
36	12	46	3.83	1.47	2.15
37	12	45	3.75	1.48	2.20
38	12	36	3.00	1.35	1.82
41	12	42	3.50	1.31	1.73
42	13	43	3.31	1.32	1.73
43	13	43	3.31	1.44	2.06
E1	18	108	6.00	0.84	0.71
E2	18	102	5.67	1.03	1.06
E3	18	110	6.11	1.02	1.05

APPENDIX N

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: E4-E5)

APPENDIX N

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: E4-E5)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
Relevance:					
06	16	86	5.38	0.81	0.65
07	16	84	5.25	0.77	0.60
08	16	81	5.06	0.77	0.60
09	16	86	5.38	0.72	0.52
Learning Means:					
10	16	87	5.44	0.81	0.66
11	16	78	4.88	0.89	0.78
12	16	78	4.88	0.96	0.92
13	16	85	5.31	0.79	0.63
14	16	85	5.31	0.70	0.50
15	16	81	5.06	0.85	0.73
16	15	70	4.67	0.98	0.95
17	16	85	5.31	0.60	0.36
18	16	88	5.50	0.82	0.67
19	14	69	4.93	1.27	1.61
20	15	83	5.53	0.52	0.27
21	15	68	4.53	1.06	1.12
22	16	81	5.06	1.00	1.00
23	15	71	4.73	0.96	0.92
Effectiveness:					
36	16	82	5.13	1.02	1.05
37	16	81	5.06	1.06	1.13
41	16	82	5.13	0.62	0.38
42	16	84	5.25	0.58	0.33
43	16	79	4.94	0.77	0.60
E4	18	105	5.83	0.79	0.62
E5	18	101	5.61	0.98	0.96

APPENDIX O

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: FORMAL ORGANIZATION  
(ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: G1-G3)

APPENDIX O

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA FOR EXERCISE: FORMAL ORGANIZATION  
 (ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING: 06-43;  
 MY ADMINISTRATIVE CAPACITIES: G1-G3)

Items	N	Total	Mean	S.D.	Variance
<b>Relevance:</b>					
06	13	58	4.46	1.20	1.44
07	13	58	4.46	1.20	1.44
08	13	59	4.55	0.88	0.77
09	13	61	4.69	1.11	1.23
<b>Learning Means:</b>					
10	13	56	4.31	1.25	1.56
11	11	49	4.45	1.13	1.27
12	13	67	5.15	0.55	0.31
13	13	63	4.85	0.80	0.64
14	11	53	4.82	0.75	0.56
15	13	57	4.38	1.50	2.26
16	10	52	5.20	1.55	2.40
17	12	47	3.92	1.08	1.17
18	13	62	4.77	1.36	1.86
19	10	39	3.90	1.10	1.21
20	12	51	4.25	1.14	1.30
21	13	55	4.23	1.09	1.19
22	12	45	3.75	1.22	1.48
23	12	49	4.08	1.08	1.17
<b>Effectiveness:</b>					
36	13	62	4.77	1.17	1.36
37	13	53	4.08	1.44	2.08
38	13	54	4.15	1.34	1.81
41	13	61	4.69	1.44	2.06
42	13	62	4.77	1.17	1.36
43	12	58	4.83	1.80	3.24
G1	18	99	5.50	1.04	1.09
G2	18	94	5.22	1.17	1.36
G3	18	96	5.33	0.84	0.71

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