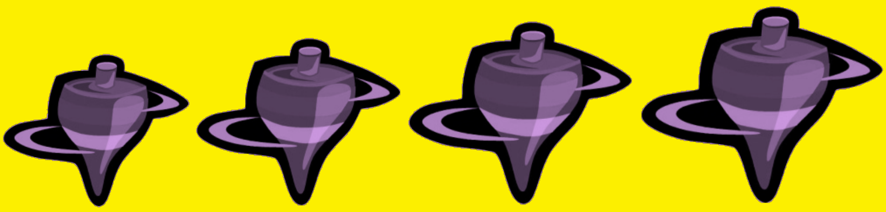
Building Academic Leadership Capability

A CD of Activities for Heads of School

Professor Tricia Vilkinas
Associate Professor Deborah West
Assoc/Professor Richard Ladyshewsky



UniSA
CHARLES DARWIN UNIVERSITY
AUSTRALIAN LEARNING & TEACHING COUNCIL
Promoting excellence in higher education

Acknowledgements

Building Academic Leadership Capability: A CD of Activities for Heads of School (the current publication called here the "2010 CD publication") is based on Academic leadership: Fundamental building blocks [Resource book](2009) – called here "the 2009 Resource book", authored by Professor Tricia Vilkinas, Associate Professor Betty Leask and Associate Professor Richard Ladyshewsky. In making the material in this the "2010 CD publication" more directly relevant to Heads/Associate Heads of Schools/Departments, the current authors Professor Tricia Vilkinas, Associate Professor Deborah West and Professor Richard Ladyshewsky adapted material in "the 2009 Resource book" by making necessary amendments and including certain additional material they authored.

The authors wish to acknowledge the significant input to this work by Dr Judith Saebel, as well as the invaluable contribution of the program's participants.

Support for this project has been provided by the Australian Learning and Teaching Council, an initiative of the Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. The views expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the views of the Australian Learning and Teaching Council Ltd.

2011

ISBN 978-0-9806179-5-5

Citation

Vilkinas, T., West, D., & Ladyshewsky, R. (2010). *Developing academic leadership capability: A CD of activities for Heads of School*. Surry Hills, New South Wales: Australian Learning and Teaching Council.

Contents

Introduction

The purpose of this CD is to provide you with activities and readings which you may find useful in the further development of your leadership capability. This CD is intended to be used in conjunction with

Vilkinas, T., West, D., & Ladyshewsky, R. (2010). *Developing academic leadership capability: A resource book for heads of school*. Surry Hills, New South Wales: Australian Learning and Teaching Council.

The first section of this CD contains a table of references which have been organised around Academic Leadership, the leadership roles associated with the ICVF and also references around 360° feedback processes. This section is followed by an activity that you may find useful if you wish to clarify your current role. The remaining sections are organised around the ICVF roles.

We hope that you find this CD useful and enjoy the further development of your Academic Leadership capability.

Regards

Tricia, Deborah and Richard

References for Development of Academic Leadership Capability

Factor	Reference
Academic Leadership	Askling, B., & Stensaker, B. (2002). Academic leadership: Prescriptions, practices and paradoxes. *Tertiary Education and Management, 8*(2), 113–125. Briggs, A. R. J. (2001). Academic middle managers in further education: Reflections on leadership. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education, 6*(2), 223–236. Bryman, A. (2007). Effective leadership in higher education: A literature review. *Studies in Higher Education, 32*(6), 693–710. Bush, T. (2008). From management to leadership: Semantic or meaningful change? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 36*(2), 271–288. Debowski, S. (2007, July). Are we there yet? A critical reflection on higher education academic development. Proceedings of the 30th Annual HERDSA Conference, *Enhancing Higher Education, Theory and Scholarship*, Adelaide, South Australia. Harris, S. E. (2006). Transitions: Dilemmas of leadership. *New Directions for Higher Education.* 2006, 79–86. Kallenberg, T. (2007). Strategic innovation in HE: The roles of academic middle managers. *Tertiary Education and Management*, *13*(1), 19–33. Middlehurst, R. (2007). A challenging journey: From leadership courses to Leadership Foundation for Higher Education. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2007*(137), 45–57. Murphy, C. (2003). The rewards of academic leadership. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2003*, 87–93. Ramsden, P., Prosser, M., Trigwell, K., & Martin, E. (2007). University teachers' experiences of academic leadership and their approaches to teaching. *Learning and Instruction, 17*(2), 140–155. Robinson, V., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. (2008). The impact of leadership on student's outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(5), 635–674. Sternberg, R. J. (2005). A model of educational leadership: Wisdom, intelligence, and creativity, synthesized. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 8*(4), 347–64. Vilkinas, T., & Ladyshewsky, R. (in press). Leadership behaviour and effectiveness of Academic Program Directors in Australian universities. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*. Yielder, J., & Codling, A. (2004). Management and leadership in the contemporary university. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 26*(3), 315–328.

References

Factor	Reference
Integrated Competing Values Framework	Denison, D. R., Hooijberg, R., & Quinn, R. E. (1995). Paradox and performance: Toward a theory of behavioral complexity in managerial leadership. *Organization Science*, 6(5), 524–540. Hooijberg, R., & Quinn, R. E. (1992). Behavioral complexity and the development of effective managers. In R. L. Philips, & J. G. Hunt (Eds.), *Strategic leadership: A multiorganizational-level perspective* (pp. 161–175). New York: Quorum. Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley. Vilkinas, T., & Cartan, G. (2001). The behavioural control room for managers: The integrator role. *Leadership & Organization Development Journa*l, *22*(4), 175–185. Vilkinas, T., & Cartan, G. (2006). The integrated competing values framework: Its spatial configuration. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(6), 505–521.
Integrator	Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1996). *Organizational learning II: Theory, methods and practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2004). The articulated learning: An approach to guided reflection and assessment. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*(2), 137–154. Booth, S., & Anderberg, E. (2005). Academic development for knowledge capabilities: Learning, reflecting and developing. *Higher Education Research & Development, 24*(3), 373–386. Fletcher, C., Bailey, C. (2003). Assessing self-awareness: Some issues and methods. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(5), 395–404. Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78–90. Gray, D. E. (2007). Facilitating management learning: Developing critical reflection through reflective tools. *Management Learning*, *38*(5), 495–517. Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. Morgan, G. (2009). Reflective practice and self-awareness. *Perspectives in Public Health*, *129*(4), 161–162. Raelin, J. A. (2002). "I don't have time to think!" versus the art of reflective practice. *Reflections*, 4(1), 66–75. Robertson, D. R. (2005). Generative paradox in learner-centered college teaching. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*(3), 181–194. Rogers, R. R. (2001). Reflection in higher education: A concept analysis. *Innovative Higher Education, 26*(1), 37–57. Schon, D. A. (1991). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. London: Ashgate. Vilkinas, T., & Cartan, G. (2001). The behavioural control room for managers: The integrator role. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 22*(4), 175–185

References

Factor	Reference
Developer	Bickel, J., Brown, A. J. (2005). Generation X: Implications for faculty recruitment and development in academic health centers. *Academic Medicine*, *80*(3), 205–210. Cloke, K., & Goldsmith, J. (2000). Conflict resolution that reaps great rewards. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 23*(3), 27–30. Raines, S. C., & Alberg, M. S. (2003). The role of professional development in preparing academic leaders. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2003*, 33–39*.* Scandura, T. A., Tejeda, M. J., Werther, W. B., & Lankau, M. J. (1996). Perspectives on mentoring. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 17*(3), 50–56. Schrubbe, K. F. (2004). Mentorship: A critical component for professional growth and academic success. *Journal of Dental Education,* 68(3), 324–328. Taylor, L. K. (2005). Academic development as institutional leadership: An interplay of person, role, strategy, and institution. *International Journal for Academic Development*, *10*(1), 31–46. Watty, K., Hilliar, K., Ji, S., Magdziarz, S., & Simpson, M. (2006). Reflections on the mentoring process with academics entering a "new" educational experience. *Asian Review of Accounting*, *14*(1/2), 37–48.
Monitor	Balbastre Benavent, F. (2006). TQM application through self-assessment and learning: Some experiences from two EQA applicants. *The Quality Management Journal, 13*(1), 7–25. Behn, R. D. (2003). Why measure performance? Different purposes require different measures. *Public Administration Review, 63*(5), 586–606. Hammer, M. (2007). The process audit. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(4), 111–123. Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2007). Using the balanced scorecard as a strategic management system. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(7/8), 150–161. Kawamoto, T., & Mathers, B. (2007). Key success factors for a performance dashboard. *DM Review*, *17*(7), 20–21.

References

Factor	Reference
Deliverer	Covey, S. R. (1989). *The seven habits of highly effective people: Restoring the character ethic*. New York: Simon and Schuster. Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 46*(4), 331–362. Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (2006). Enhancing the benefits and overcoming the pitfalls of goal setting. *Organizational Dynamics, 35*(4), 332–340. Whitehead, D. (2005). Project management and action research: Two sides of the same coin? *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 19*(6), 519–531.
Broker	Cialdini, R. B. (2001). Harnessing the science of persuasion. *Harvard Business Review, 79*(9), 72–79. Grayson, C., & Baldwin, D. (2007). Tapping in: How leaders can become effective networkers. *Leadership in Action, 27*(5), 14–18. Iarocci, J. J. (2006). Leading, experts, and expertise. *The American Review of Public Administration, 36*(4), 385–386. Ibarra, H., & Hunter, M. (2007). How leaders create and use networks. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(1), 40–47. Riggio, R. E., & Lee, J. (2007). Emotional and interpersonal competencies and leader development. *Human Resource Management Review, 17*(4), 418–426.
Innovator	Morgan, G. (1993). *Imaginization: New mindsets for seeing, organizing and managing*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage. Russo, F. (2006, January 16). The hidden secrets of the creative mind – An interview with Dr. R. Keith Sawyer. *Time, 167,* 89–90.
Action Learning	Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. Marquardt, M. J. (2000). Action learning and leadership. *The Learning Organization*. *7*(5), 233–240.
360° Feedback	Atwater, L. E., Brett, J. F., & Charles, A. C. (2007). Multisource feedback: Lessons learned and implications for practice. *Human Resource Management, 46*(2), 285–307. Eichinger, R. W., & Lombardo, M. M. (2004). Patterns of rater accuracy in 360-degree feedback. *Human Resource Planning*, *27*(4), 23–25. Maylett, T., & Riboldi, J. (2007). Using 360° feedback to predict performance. *T & D, 61*(9), 49–52. Smither, J. W., London, M., Reilly, R. R. (2005). Does performance improve following multisource feedback? A theoretical model, meta-analysis, and review of empirical findings. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(1), 33–66.

Your Role Clarification

The following are some steps for you to follow to clarify your role.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you with the clarification of your role.

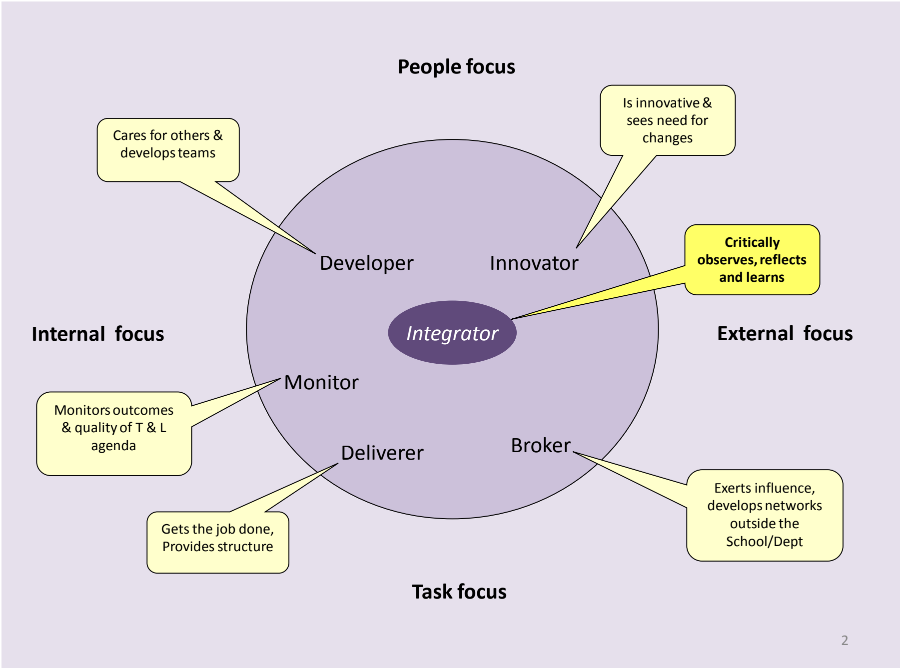
1. **Obtain a copy of the following documents and become familiar with their contents:**

- your position description
- faculty organisational structure
- institutional organisational structure
- institutional vision, mission, blueprints, strategic plan
- faculty teaching and learning plans
- institutional teaching and learning plans
- faculty teaching and learning governance and accountabilities diagram
- institutional teaching and learning governance and accountabilities diagram.

2. **Identify:**

- Where are the gaps?
- What can you do to 'fill the gaps'?
- To what extent do national policies/processes support teaching and learning?
- What teaching and learning policies/processes does my university have?
- What teaching and learning policies/processes does my university need?
- Where teaching and learning policies/processes exist in my university, how are they implemented and audited?

Developing the Integrator



Readings

Brockbank, A., & McGill, I. (2006). *Facilitating reflective learning through mentoring and coaching*. London: Kogan Page.

Fletcher, C., & Bailey, C. (2003). Assessing self-awareness: Some issues and methods. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(5), 395–404.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78–90.

Gray, D. E. (2007). Facilitating management learning: Developing critical reflection through reflective tools. *Management Learning*, *38*(5), 495–517.

Morgan, G. (2009). Reflective practice and self-awareness. *Perspectives in Public Health*, *129*(4), 161–162.

Raelin, J. A. (2002). “I don’t have time to think!” versus the art of reflective practice. *Reflections*, *4*(1), 66–75.

Robertson, D. R. (2005). Generative paradox in learner-centered college teaching. *Innovative Higher Education, 29*(3), 181–194.

Schon, D. A. (1991). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. London: Ashgate.

Vilkinas, T., & Cartan, G. (2001). The behavioural control room for managers: The integrator role. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 22*(4), 175–185.

Activities

1.1 Developing Reflection Skills

1.2 Responding to Feedback

1.1 Developing Reflection Skills

As the ‘behavioural control room’ (Vilkinas & Cartan 2001), the role of the Integrator ensures that your previous experiences and their outcomes (both the successes and the failures) have been reflected on and analysed in the context of the current situation. The Integrator role essentially has two parts:

- critical observer
- reflective learner.

However, the two parts of the role are not discrete and there will be many occasions when you use reflection skills as you observe your own behaviour critically.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop the reflective learner part of the Integrator role.

Reflection is an important part of the experiential learning cycle and should follow any experience that is related to your Personal Action Plan. There are many ways to capture your thoughts, tasks and reflections such as reflective journals, notes on your calendar or in your diary, a dedicated note book, spread sheets, etc. The important point is capturing these to assist in the development of your Academic Leadership capability.

Activity

Some questions that you might ask yourself to develop your reflective skills further:

At your next discipline meeting with a staff member, you might like to ask yourself the following questions:

- What can I learn from this meeting?
- What can I say to help the staff member understand the situation?
- What am I holding back that needs to be said?
- What questions can I ask to understand better the staff member’s position?

You might like to make some notes around these questions that you can then think about and reflect on after the meeting.

There are also some other useful processes that can be used to develop reflection. They are in Gray’s reference on pages 499–512.

Reference

Vilkinas, T., & Cartan, G. (2001). The behavioural control room for managers: The integrator role. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 22*(4), 175–185.

1.2 Responding to Feedback

An important aspect of the Integrator role is the ability to review your own behaviour critically and its impact on those you work with over time. You should then, if necessary, use these reflections to modify your existing behaviour appropriately. You may need to make small changes, or you may need to identify and adopt new behaviours.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop the reflective learner and critical observer parts of the integrator role.

Before you embark on this activity, it is important to recognise that change in higher education generally, as well as in individual universities, is constant, and so behaviours that were once appropriate may become less effective over time. This is one of the things that makes the role of the Integrator so critical to your role as Associate/Head of School/Department. Thus, it is highly likely that at some stage you will find that you seem to be less effective in some situations than you were in the past (indirect negative feedback) and/or that you will receive direct negative feedback from others on your performance. This may have as much to do with the changing context in which you work as it has to do with you personally. You may instinctively become defensive, feeling that you're being blamed, and want to continue with your previous behaviours, which you know used to work. It is time to stop and reflect, remembering that both indirect and direct negative feedback can help you to learn how to do things better next time.

Developing appropriate responses to feedback is a very important strategy to employ when seeking to develop your Integrator role. This activity is designed to develop your ability to respond positively to feedback, in particular to feedback on your inconsistencies and hypocrisies. It builds on the reflections that you have already undertaken in completing the Johari window[1].

1 This activity incorporates some of the work of Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, and St. Clair (2007, pp. 44–45).

Activity

Step 1

Using the data that you entered into the Blind Area of the Johari window at the workshop, develop 2–3 specific questions that you would like answered about your work behaviours as an Associate/Head of School/Department. Examples may include asking professional staff why they are not able to do the task you ask.

Questions I would like to ask

Q1. ______________________________

____

Q2. ______________________________

____

Q3. ______________________________

____

Step 2

Choose someone who has worked quite closely with you in your role as Associate/Head of School/Department for at least six months. It could be another Associate/Head of School/Department, a course coordinator, a professional staff member who works on the program, or even your Dean/PVC. The important thing is that it is someone who knows you well in your role as Associate/Head of School/Department and who will give you honest feedback.

Name of person

____

Step 3

Show this person a diagram of the Johari window. Explain how it works and the importance to you of identifying and addressing issues in your blind area, particularly given the changing environment in which you work as an Associate/Head of School/Department in higher education.

Step 4

Explain to this person that you want them to provide you with completely honest and frank feedback on your *behaviours* as an Associate/Head of School/Department as this will help you to identify and address issues in your Blind Area and become more effective in your role.

What do they see as your *most* effective and *least* effective behaviours? At this stage you do not need to divulge to them what *you* see as issues for you in this area.

Step 5

Once they have provided you with their feedback, ask them the questions that you formulated in Step 1 above (unless they have been answered already, of course).

Step 6

Pay particular attention to your feelings as you listen to the feedback you are hearing. At times you may start to feel defensive, angry or upset by what you hear. Stay calm by taking a 'mental step' back and reflecting on *why* you feel this way. Ask for specific examples of behaviours if what you are getting is general comments about your attitudes.

Step 7

If you feel up to it, repeat the same exercise with someone else who works with you.

Step 8

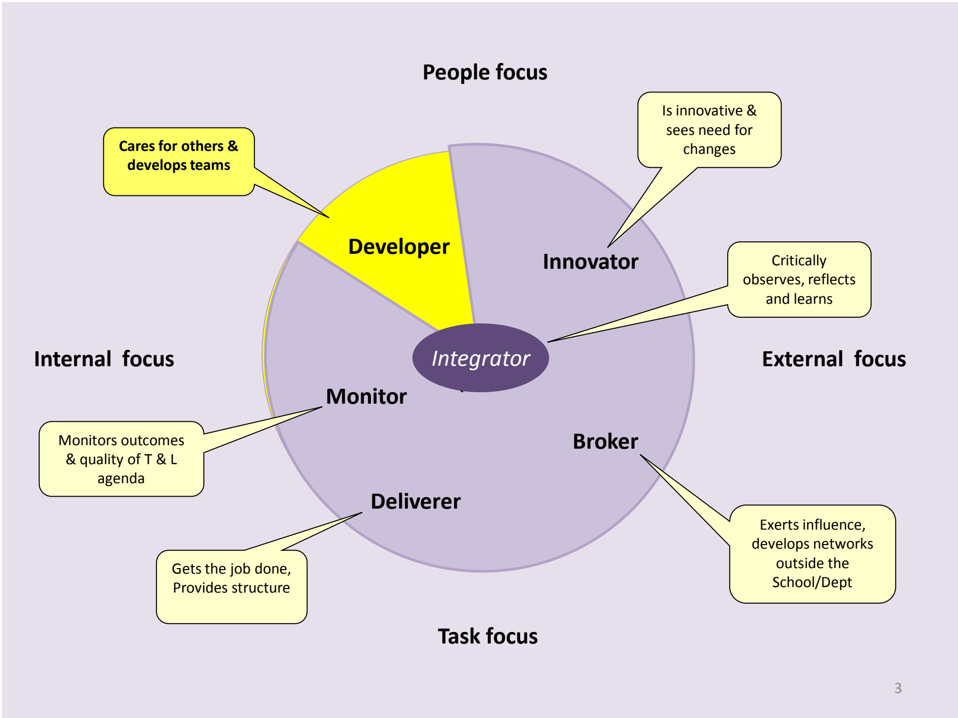
In the table below, or in your journal, summarise the feedback you received, your reaction to it (including how the feedback matches with what you had in your Blind Area), and how you will respond to this feedback.

Most effective	Least effective	My reaction	What will I change?

Reference

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Developing the Developer



Readings

Cloke, K., & Goldsmith, J. (2000). Conflict resolution that reaps great rewards. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 23*(3), 27–30.

Raines, S. C., & Alberg, M. S. (2003). The role of professional development in preparing academic leaders. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2003*, 33–39.

Scandura, T. A., Tejeda, M. J., Werther, W. B., & Lankau, M. J. (1996). Perspectives on mentoring. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 17*(3), 50–56.

Taylor, L. K. (2005) Academic development as institutional leadership: An interplay of person, role, strategy, and institution. *International Journal of Academic Development*, 10(1), 31–46.

Watty, K., Hilliar, K., Ji, S., Magdziarz, S., & Simpson, M. (2006). Reflections on the mentoring process with academics entering a "new" educational experience. *Asian Review of Accounting*, 14(1/2), 37–48.

Activities

2.1 Learning to Listen

2.2 Using Questioning Skills to Build Teams

2.3 Delegating Effectively

2.4 Managing Conflict

2.5 Developing Others Through Coaching

2.6 Building Teams.

2.1 Learning to Listen

Listening is one of the most important leadership skills that you can possess to facilitate your effectiveness as an Associate /Head of School/Department.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you in becoming a more effective listener.

Effective listening skills are at the heart of supportive communication. However, most of us do not listen effectively. Effective listening is an active process where we apply our efforts to hearing and understanding what is being communicated. Remember that communication is both verbal and non verbal and therefore we must listen to both.

A variety of barriers can get in the way of listening and these are described by McLean (2005, pp. 41–42) as falling into two main categories: environment and context. These are summarized in Table 1 below:

Table 1: *Barriers to Listening* **(**adapted from McLean, 2005)

Environment	This relates to all of the elements of the environment in which you are communicating and includes the noise level that is around you, factors that might distract you (e.g., phones ringing, other people coming in, mobiles receiving text, etc.), the acoustics in a room, etc.
Context	Context refers to those elements that are related to the interpersonal aspects of the listener and the speaker and include: • lack of interest • dislike the speaker, disregard the message (having an open mind improves your ability to listen) • can't see the forest through the trees (having difficulty identifying the key message) • faking attention (one key contributor to this doing multiple tasks while listening) • being self-absorbed (over-preoccupation with self-image, knowledge or importance reduces effective listening)

Listening is, however, only one part of the process. To take this further, we need to demonstrate that we have heard and understood what is being communicated. There are two elements of this: active listening and empathic listening.

Active Listening

Active listening entails listening and then checking that you have understood the message by paraphrasing, reflecting, clarifying and summarising the message. In other words, actively working on ensuring you have heard the correct message.

Empathetic Listening

Empathetic listening involves actively listening to understand the message but reaching beyond this to try to understand the underlying feelings and emotions of the message.

This entails listening for the emotional and non-verbal signals that accompany communication. As with active listening, you need to check this information with the speaker by reflecting back the underlying feelings, paraphrasing, clarifying and summarising.

Some tips for Active and Empathic Listening

Active and empathic listening requires the listener to make an active effort to understand the message and to demonstrate that they have understood it. This involves both our verbal and non-verbal communication skills. The points below provide a few tips to facilitate the process.

Looking interested through reflective listening

Face the speaker, maintain eye contact, stay relaxed, leanin forward slightly and maintain open posture. Use verbal and non-verbal signals to illustrate your interest and to encourage dialogue. Verbal reflective listening examples are things such as “oh”, “tell me more”, “really!” “interesting!”. Non-verbal reflective listening strategies are things such as head nodding and facial gestures.

Inquiring without question or judgement

Clarify meanings, get the full story. If you start to disagree, you start to make mental arguments to counter the message and then of course miss what is being said.

Staying on target

Stick to the point, listen for the central theme, think ahead, wait for the complete message and don’t interrupt.

Testing your understanding through reflective listening

Paraphrase the key message to check with the speaker that you have accurately heard them. Don’t forget to include the feelings that sit behind the message where appropriate.

Evaluating the message

Analyse what is said and expressed:
reasoning
fallacies
generalisations
cause linked to effect
emotional appeal
evidence
facts or assertion
information source
reliability
language
jargon
body language
voice-related indications.

Your feelings

Stay calm, don’t become emotional and keep an open mind.

Summarise

At the end of the discussion (or before a change of topic) summarise the key message, outcomes, actions to ensure that you are in agreement on the way forward

Activity

Make a conscious effort to employ active listening at your next meeting. Take a few moments after to reflect on what occurred in response to you actively listening and what you learned from this approach.

References

McLean, S. (2004). *The basics of interpersonal communication*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Pearce, C. G., Johnson, I. W., & Barker, R. T. (2003). Assessment of the Listening Styles Inventory: Progress in establishing reliability and validity. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 17*(1), 84–113.

2.2 Using Questioning Skills

Questioning skills are an important aspect of active and empathic listening, working with people and building teams. Questions help to clarify meanings, probe deeply into the complex problems, build understanding between people, and gain agreement in teams.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop your ability to use questioning skills to build teams and manage conflict.

Question Qualities

Cook (1999) describes the qualities of good questions. They are:

Brief – get to the point as quickly as possible, listeners' attention spans are brief.

Clear – avoid the use of multiple negatives and great big words that fog the simplicity of the message.

Focused – don't include multiple questions in the one sentence. Target a single subject and a particular aspect of that subject in each question. You are most likely to get the answers you need as a result.

Relevant – keep the questions relevant and on the task or issue being discussed. 'Red herrings' confuse people and take them off the subject of inquiry.

Constructive – make sure your questions are positive and constructive. This will help you to engage people and encourage dialogue.

Neutral – try not to suggest or imply the kind of answer you want. Keep your questions neutral to show that you are genuine in your desire to learn about other's views.

For example, "should we improve the quality of this course information brochure by hiring an editor/designer? There is an implied 'yes' response in this question. Alternatively, "should we add another layer to the publication process of this brochure by hiring an editor/designer?" There is an implied 'no' response in this question. A neutral question would be, "what are your thoughts about hiring an editor/designer for this brochure?"

Open ended – try not to ask questions which invite a yes/no response (see previous example). If you want high quality information from a question, give the person a neutral open ended question.

For example, a neutral open ended question would be, "What do you think about hiring an editor/designer for this publication".

With this one question you are more likely to get better information.

Types of Questions

Skilled questioning involves using the right question type as the appropriate time and delivering it a way that will lead to enhanced understanding of issues and information sharing. Cook (1999) also describes different types of questions which can be used to get the kind of information needed to facilitate effective information gathering. They are:

Factual questions – when you want facts.

Explanatory questions – when you want to understand. They usually start with 'why', 'what', ‘how, ‘where, or ‘when’. You need to be careful with your intonations in using these however, because they can be easily misconstrued as interrogation or accusation.

Justifying questions – when you want to understand the reasoning behind a person's decision or logic. The word 'why' can also be used to gain this knowledge. These should be used sparingly though they suggest that you want a reason for a person’s perspective, which is inevitably different from yours. On most occasions you will be asking an explanatory question.

Leading questions – these questions give you the answer you want to hear. For example, "We should hire an editor/designer to improve this publication, don't you agree?" These sorts of questions alienate people by forcing them into a corner and should be avoided.

Hypothetical questions – are usually preceded by 'what if'. They are used when you want someone to predict or to apply their knowledge in such a way that an educated guess is received. Whether they are valid depends on the question and the person who is giving the answer. At times they may be construed as manipulative as you put people on the spot. People may become reluctant to answer future questions.

Alternative questions are similar to leading questions in that you ask a question and offer a series of answers. The multiple choice test is a good example of this category. In some cases it may be appropriate, but often they limit the full range of answers to be explored.

Summary questions – ask people to summarise and often start with, "in general" or "overall". People may find this threatening because it puts them on the spot and does not allow them to fully explain or explore their answer. However, it can be used to move a meeting or a discussion forward if the parties are stuck.

Activity

Step 1

Think of an issue related to your work as Associate/Head of School/Department that you have been trying to resolve for some time.

1. What do you already know about this issue?

2. What information do you need?

3. Make a list of at least 3 open-ended neutral questions that will help you to get the information you need to resolve the issue.

a.

b.

c.

4. Who can answer your questions?

5. Get them together and ask them.

6. Reflect on the outcomes.

Reference

Cook, M. J. (1999). *Effective coaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

http://www.ictnz.com/Questioning.htm

2.3 Delegating Effectively

Delegation can help you to develop the skills and capabilities of your team by giving them tasks that challenge them within a supportive environment. Delegation can also help you to manage your workload, as it will give you more time to attend to other significant issues. However, effective delegation is more than simply giving tasks to others.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you in delegating effectively.

Steps in Effective Delegation	Questions to Ask Yourself
Step 1: Select an appropriate task or tasks to delegate.	
Some tasks you will not want, or may not be able, to delegate. But, if you only delegate menial, simple tasks that do not challenge people they may feel that you don't trust them – and you certainly won't provide them with opportunities to develop their skills and knowledge. If you delegate tasks that are likely to be too complex or difficult for others to complete, they will feel that they have failed you, and you will have a lot of work to do to retrieve the task and repair your relationship with them.	1. What, specifically, are you delegating? 2. Why this task or tasks?
Step 2: Select the most appropriate person for that task.	
You will need to pay careful attention to the current skill levels of those you are working with, so that you delegate tasks that challenge and interest them, but that, with support, they will be able to complete effectively.	1. What knowledge, skills and experience does the individual possess in terms of being able to manage the delegated task(s)? 2. What gaps are there in the individual's skill base and what strategies and resources do you have in place to support them? 3. How does the person view their role in the program team? How does this delegation support that role or support their career plan? 4. What is the current workload of the person? Do they have time for the additional responsibility? Is there a reasonable match between your deadline and their availability?

Step 3: Assign the task	
The most important part of this step is to communicate your expectations around completion of the task clearly. This unpacks your tacit knowledge on how you want the outcome of the task to look. Be sure that timelines, including deadlines, are communicated clearly. Ensure there is sufficient time for both of you to ask for questions or clarification. You may find the person you are delegating the work to has very good ideas. It can be useful to get the person to whom you are delegating to follow up with some written confirmation of what you discussed. This is especially important if the task is a complex or critical one.	1. Are you clear about what your expectations are in relation to completion of the task? How do you want the task to be completed? How will you check to ensure that your colleague understands these expectations? 2. What barriers may make success difficult? Can you smooth the way for them to be successful? 3. What is your role in the process? How available are you to provide support, mentoring, coaching, advice?
Step 4: Support and monitor	
You will need to step back and let them get on with it, but also ensure that you keep the communication lines open. Make it clear that you are available to answer questions. Put in place processes to monitor progress but don't rescue them as soon as they strike a problem. Remember that one of the purposes of delegation is to develop the skills and knowledge of the person to whom you have delegated the task. So while you might explore with them what is going wrong, your focus should be on helping them to find their own solutions rather than finding the solution for them-or taking the task over.	1. How critical or risky is the delegated task? To what extent is there any tolerance for mistakes to be made? 2. What is the quality standard? The higher the risk and quality standard the higher the support needs to be available. 3. What processes are in place to monitor, evaluate and check on progress?
Step 5: Recognise achievements	
There are many formal and informal ways of recognising learning and achievements. A note in an email, recognition that the task was completed successfully, a letter of appreciation are a few ways of recognising achievements. You may also want to have a follow-up meeting to reflect on what was learnt from the delegated task.	1. How will you provide the individual with feedback on performance both along the way and on completion of the task? 2. What is the most appropriate way to acknowledge both the efforts and achievements in relation to the work completed? 3. How can you assist your colleague in reflecting on what they learned from this experience?

By following these steps and considering these questions before and as you delegate, you will be more likely to achieve success and assist those you work with in developing their skills and knowledge.

Activity

Think of someone you consider to be good at delegating
What skills, behaviours and capabilities do they display?
What can you learn from them?

2.4 Managing Conflict

Conflicts arise regularly in any work situation. They can be conflicts between individuals or between groups. Conflict can enable us to understand where organisational processes and systems are failing. However, unresolved conflict is often unproductive and can even be destructive and have a negative effect on program quality. It is important therefore to manage conflict strategically, ensuring that the underlying issues causing the friction are addressed in the short and the long term.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop your skills in productively managing conflict between individuals and groups with whom you work.

Quite often, we attribute conflict in the workplace to personality clashes, or a lack of understanding of 'the real' situation by others involved. In reality, it is rarely personality or ignorance but usually some other issue we have not yet identified or have chosen to ignore. There is some inherent blaming in the belief that personality or the ignorance of others is the cause of conflict, as one usually assumes that the other party is 'bad' or ill-informed and we are the 'good', informed person. In fact, it is usually some other system or work issue that creates the conflict.

Example:

- Communication systems may be poor, leading to misunderstanding.
- Roles may be incompatible between people or departments.
- Goals may differ between parties.
- Change and fiscal pressures are creating stress and tension.

A **mapping strategy** is an excellent strategy to build your understanding of the nature of the conflict and the underlying issues.

There are three main steps in a conflict mapping strategy:

Step 1: What's the Problem?

It is important to define the problem and explore any issues that underlie it, **before** attempting to resolve it. There is no need to get anxious about whether or not it is exactly right, but simply record the nature of the issue to be mapped. Keep the problem definition open-ended.

Step 2: Who Is Involved?

Decide who the major parties are in the conflict. You might list each individual (each member of a team), or whole teams, sections, or groups. As long as the people involved share needs on the issue (that is, they want it resolved) they can be grouped together. A mixture of individual and group categories is fine too.

Step 3: What Do They Really Want?

What individuals and groups want will be informed by their underlying needs and their emotions. People are motivated by what they want and will naturally move towards that. They are also motivated by what they do not want and will move away from that. By considering these needs and emotions that are shaping what people want you can broaden the picture of the conflict and expand the possible options for solutions.

Needs could mean wants, values, interests or the things you or the other parties care about. Emotions can be concerns, anxieties or worries. To determine what each major party wants, it is useful to use your emphatic listening and critical questioning skills (see Activity 2.2 on this CD) to identify their significant needs and emotions relevant to the issue.

At this stage it is very important to remember to focus on the needs and fears of all parties until the map is complete. Don't be sidetracked into implications such as 'what about?' or solutions ‘if only we did ‘x’ this would be fixed’.

Stick doggedly to: 'What are your needs? What are your fears?' You may have to sift out solutions being offered as needs.

When having this conversation, if someone makes a comment about something in the conflict that is not working or makes them unhappy or dissatisfied, it is also useful to use your skill to find out what is behind the comment and reshape it as a need or a fear. For example, if the conflict was about meetings and the comment was something like 'meetings are a waste of time, they go on and on.' You could ask 'What do you need?' 'To spend less time in meetings?' You could also ask 'What are your fears?' – 'Not enough time to get my work done.' This broadens the issue from what might otherwise be a digression on whether meetings go on too long or should go on at all. Keep to the whole picture of what people do and don't want out of meetings.

What are the needs of the different parties involved?

Ask the question: 'Around the issue of X' and what are Y’s major needs? You may be asking it of yourself, of another person, or of a group. Needs might include: recognition, acknowledgement and understanding; abiding by policies and procedures; academic standards; and satisfying and secure work.

Sometimes it is difficult for people to stop thinking about their solutions. For example, each party will want a particular outcome which may well conflict with the desired outcomes of other individuals and groups involved. However, it may be useful to talk to them several times to explore their needs again because it is here where a solution may appear.

What are the fears of the different parties involved?

You do not have to debate whether or not the fear is realistic before it is listed. For example, people may have fears about something their rational mind knows is very unlikely to happen, yet the fear still lurks underneath, wanting to be recognised. These are important to have on the map. One of the real benefits of mapping is the opportunity for participants in the conflict to air irrational fears and have them acknowledged on the map.

Typically, fears include:

- failure and loss of face
- doing the wrong thing
- financial insecurity, being rejected, disliked
- loss of control
- being judged or criticised
- uninteresting work
- being ordered around
- having to start all over again.

Identifying solutions

By exploring the needs and fears of all the parties in the conflict, some possible outcomes may emerge which help everyone.

Using maps effectively

You can map conflicts with others or on your own. If you are not able, or don't want to bring all the parties together, using the map will help you to collect and record information and manage the conflict. Sometimes you may need to guess how it is for the other parties, but the process broadens your perspective. It will probably highlight some areas you want to know more about, which will give you some good questions to ask others about their needs before you head into solutions.

You don't need to have a conflict for mapping – you can also use it to prevent conflict. You can initiate a mapping session in your work or any other group activities you are involved in. It's quite simple to say: 'Let's get a clear picture of the situation before we go further. Let's hear everyone's needs and concerns on this issue.

Maps can be productive for the following:

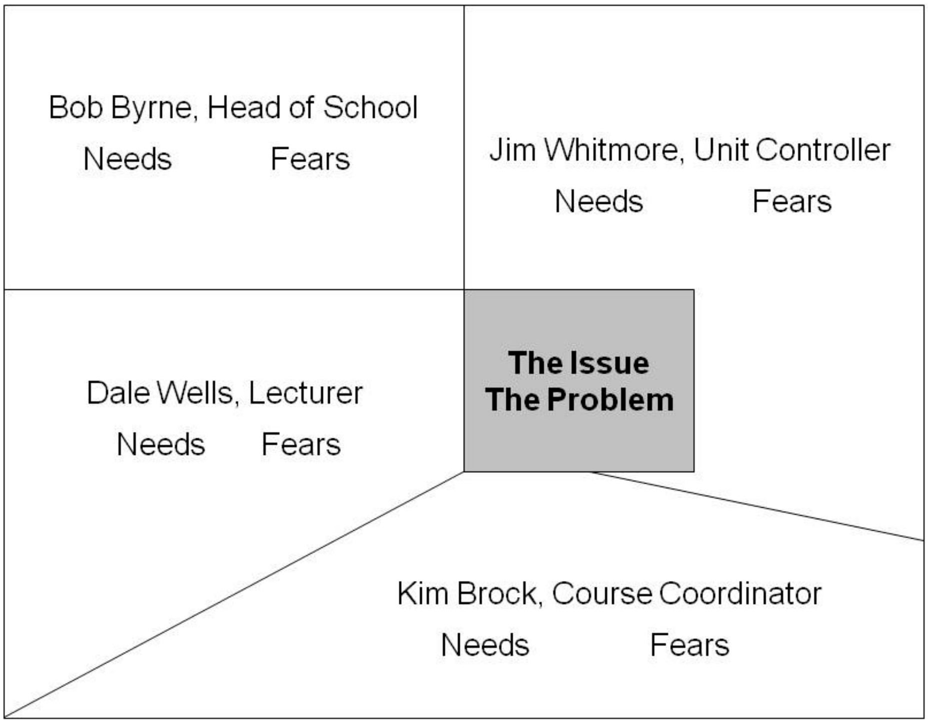
- preparations for negotiations
- teams or work areas where communications are difficult
- groups not working well together
- planning meetings
- impending change.

Maps can also be used before drawing a plan. For example, if a course is going to be redesigned, a mapping exercise with all concerned can make a huge difference to implementing the changes and influence those concerned. A good change management technique that can avoid conflict!

When mapping at meetings it is best to do your map on a large piece of paper or on a whiteboard. Write with thick pens. Use several colours – one colour for the issue and the parties, another for needs, another for fears.

A Conflict Mapping Template

This template may be useful for you in any mapping situation.



Activity

Step 1

Make a list of the situations you will try using a map in the next 12 months.

Step 2

Think of a conflict situation you are currently engaged in. Follow the mapping steps to find a solution to the conflict.

Readings

Cloke, K., & Goldsmith, J. (2000). Conflict resolution that reaps great rewards. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 23*(3), 27–30.
(This article provides a 'positive' perspective on conflict and suggests several strategies for dealing with organisational conflict.)

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

2.5 Developing Others Through Mentoring

Associate/Heads of School/Department who invest time and effort in developing their skills as formal and informal mentors are rewarded, because the people they work with become more capable and competent in delivering course and program outcomes. It also elevates the morale of Program and Course teams, because individuals feel supported and are acknowledged for their efforts and success. This in turn, creates positive program outcomes.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you in becoming a more effective mentor.

Mentoring is quite different from being directive. Managers or bosses are directive; mentors ask questions and direct inquiry. Instead, those being mentored should be encouraged to practice more self-reflection and analysis and share these insights with their colleagues who assist them in seeking alternative courses of action. This is not done through feedback, but rather through a series of exploratory and probing open-ended questions.

Quite often individuals do not invest in mentoring because of the time commitment involved. However, those who are insightful, recognise that mentoring provides feedback which is essential to good performance. Not only does the mentoring process increase communication between you, the Associate/Head of School/Department and your team, it is also a systematic approach to enhancing the performance and skill level of staff. This in turn influences organisational performance (Goleman, 2000).

Getting started

Broadly speaking, both formal and informal mentoring aims to enhance the performance and learning ability of others. It involves providing non-evaluative feedback, but it also uses other techniques such as motivation, effective questioning, (and listening) and consciously matching your style to the participant’s readiness to undertake a particular task. It is based on helping the mentoree through an active dialogue. It is never a one-way conversation of telling and instructing. Mentoring should always be non-directive. In other words, it will be your skilful questioning as a coach that will help your colleagues find their own solutions. In doing this, the coach establishes a collaborative partnership, which helps the individual to achieve their goals.

In order to mentor a peer or another staff member formally, both of you must have a clear definition of the skill that is going to be developed so that the end stage goal can be specified. This goal needs to be developed collaboratively, otherwise both of you may have very different understandings of what the end goal represents.

Expectations need to be clarified and it is typically the individual desiring mentoring that should set the goal and objectives with the support of the mentor. Once a collective understanding of what the end performance should look like is established, alternatives and solutions can be mapped out to assist the mentor in reaching mentee’s target(s).

Goleman (2000) demonstrates that empathy during the mentoring process is very important and influences performance positively. Empathic listening and responding which correctly identifies and communicates the underlying feelings being expressed is essential and therefore active and empathic listening skills must be applied effectively.

Learning plans

One strategy that can be used in the process is the development of a learning plan. Learning plans are valuable in creating congruency between the expectations of the staff, the Associate/Head of School/Department and the University.

In setting up a learning plan, the mentor and the mentoree formally agree on the learning outcome(s). A time frame is established to achieve the objective, and rules and responsibilities of both parties are mapped out. Both the human and material resources that are needed to build the skill are identified. An evaluation strategy that focuses on the key outcomes is also developed so that both parties know that the final learning goal has been attained.

The Learning Plan encourages collaboration between coach and the coachee on matters directly relevant to the individual's performance.

Benefits of the Learning Plan for the mentoree include:

- assistance in recognising and clarifying the roles of various stakeholders who affect their job performance
- opportunities to develop a sense of ownership over professional development.
- raising the quality of learning experiences by helping mentorees clarify their own learning goals, reflect on their learning and to consider issues in assessment of their performance
- assistance in developing a range of skills and build confidence in their own abilities and personal effectiveness.

Benefits of the Learning Plan for the mentor include:

- a window for participating in the development of the mentoree
- increasing the specificity and effectiveness of the learning and developmental experience
- providing a vehicle for reassuring the mentoree that support is available for their learning and performance development.

Activity

Think of someone you consider to be a good mentor
What skills, behaviours and capabilities do they display when they are in a mentoring situation?
What can you learn from them?

References

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78–90.

Zeus, P., & Skiffington, S. (2000). *The complete guide to coaching at work*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

Zeus, P., & Skiffington, S. (2002). *The coaching at work toolkit: A complete guide to techniques and practices*, Rosewille, New South Wales: McGraw-Hill.

2.6 Building Teams

The quality and effectiveness of much academic work, particularly activities associated with teaching and learning, is enhanced by effective and efficient team work. Programs are no more than collections of courses unless they are supported by groups of people coming together in teams to plan, review, evaluate, and revise the program as a coherent and connected set of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to identify, build and lead effective program teams.

You will need to use many other skills associated with the role of developer, including communicating effectively, managing conflict, mentoring, and delegating. When building a team it is also important to understand the way groups work so that you can ensure that you apply these skills to assist your team to functions effectively.

The 5-Stage Group Development Model

Tuckman (1965) described groups as going through 5 distinct stages as they work through their projects.

- The first stage is called **forming** because the group is uncertain about the scope of the project, the structure and leadership of the group at this early point.
- Once members start to conceptualise their membership within the group the second stage, **storming**, begins. In this stage there is some intra-group conflict because influence, power and ego may manifest in the group as each person attempts to establish their 'role' in the membership. A clear hierarchy of role and leadership (formal and informal) often is established by the end of this stage.
- The third stage is **norming** and involves the group becoming more cohesive with relationships developing among group members. Once a common set of expectations have been established and the group structure is established this stage is complete.
- The fourth stage, **performing**, is about moving forward to get to know the other members of the group, and to get on with the task at hand. This is the last stage of the group's developmental process if it is an ongoing group.
- If it is a short term project, then the fifth stage, **adjourning**, takes place and relationships come to an end and work gets completed.

Note: Robbins, Millett, and Waters-Marsh (2004) point out that it is also important to recognise that effectiveness does not necessarily increase as a group works toward performing stage. For example, some highly “performing” groups may not necessarily produce good results and other groups stuck at stage two may still produce some good outcomes. Progression through the stages may not always be clear and concise and there may be some overlap and regression to earlier stages in a group's history.

Group Cohesiveness and Performance

Cohesiveness of the groups is another important consideration. Groups will always differ in their cohesiveness with some members having stronger bonds with selected individuals.

If performance norms are high for the group (e.g., high quality work, high output, cooperation) and group cohesion is high, then productivity will be excellent. Groups with low performance norms and low cohesion, understandably, will have poor productivity.

Activity

Think of a situation when you observed good team work
What made the group operate as a team?
What can you learn from them?

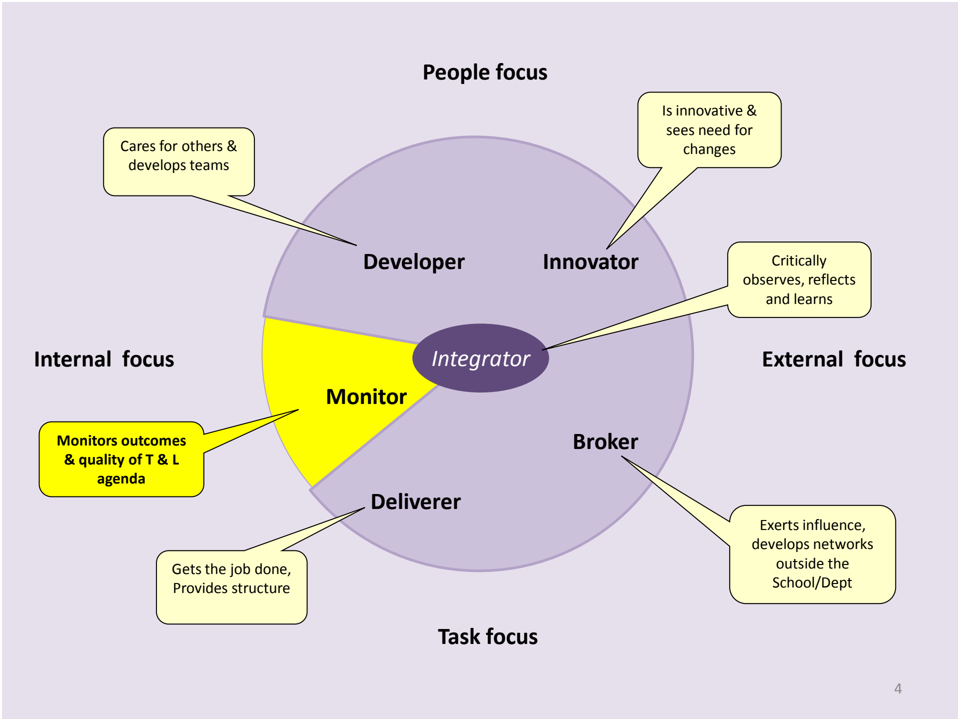
References

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Robbins, S. P., Millett, B., & Waters-Marsh, T. (2004). *Organisational behaviour* (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest, New South Wales: Pearson Education.

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 63*6), 384–399.

Developing the Monitor



Readings

Behn, R. D. (2003). Why measure performance? Different purposes require different measures. *Public Administration Review, 63*(5), 586–606.

Balbastre Benavent, F. (2006). TQM application through self-assessment and learning: Some experiences from two EQA applicants. *The Quality Management Journal, 13*(1), 7–25.

Hammer, M. (2007). The process audit. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(4), 111–123.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2007). Using the balanced scorecard as a strategic management system. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(7/8), 150–161.

Kawamoto, T., & Mathers, B. (2007). Key success factors for a performance dashboard. *DM Review*, *17*(7), 20–21.

Activities

3.1 Managing the Flow of Information and Communication

3.2 Monitoring Financial Performance

3.3 Monitoring Program Performance

3.1 Managing the Flow of Information and Communication

At times, you can feel like you are standing in the middle of a busy traffic intersection at peak hour as information flows past you in all directions. Some of the information is on paper, much is on your university's web sites and in emails and also verbally. Channelling, managing and 'directing' this information flow is an important aspect of your role. In this environment, it is critical that we are very good at sorting what comes in quickly and efficiently because it will save you time.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to develop strategies to manage the flow of information and communication effectively.

To be an effective Associate/Head of School/Department, you will need to at least review all information that relates both directly and indirectly to your School/Department:

- Some of it you will need to act on immediately.
- Some you will need to pass on.
- Some you may need to file away for future reference.
- Some will be completely irrelevant and should go straight into the bin.

But you should only ever handle each piece of information once.

The TRAF System

Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, and St. Clair (2007, pp. 116–117) outline a method of managing information overload called the **TRAF system**. The system is quite simple. Basically, once you have very briefly reviewed any communication or piece of information, there are four things you can do with it. The TRAF system helps you to set priorities and get your head around all of the information and communication passing through 'your intersection'.

Action	Notes
Review	Review by skim reading only all emails and documents, looking for the main point. Are you cc'd in or are you the main recipient? Think about why it has come to you (if indeed there is a reason). If a document is sent directly to you and takes more than 5 minutes to read, put it immediately into your 'Act' folder. Remember: don't let this pre-TRAFing stage take over or you'll never get through the paperwork.
Toss	Delete from your email inbox; throw hard copies of papers into the recycle bin. This action should be applied to anything that is not immediately valuable to you. Generally we don't 'toss' enough information – remember that if it's vital you can usually retrieve it. But never toss anything without even briefly reviewing it first. Look at the subject heading for clues.
Refer	Only refer information or communication to others that you know is relevant to them-avoid contributing to a traffic jam at someone else's intersection. Set up an email distribution list for your 'program team'. Forward email messages of relevance to the group to this list. Don't send messages to a list if they are really only of relevance to one or two people on the list. Attach post-it notes to hard copies with a brief explanation as to why you have sent it to that person.
Act	Information or communication that requires your personal action – no one else can do this. These items should go into an email "To Do' folder or a hard copy tray or folder. Make a notation re. the timeline for action and regularly 'sort' and reorder the priority order of items in your in folders. Record actions on a 'to do' list with a due date beside them. Never rely on memory alone.
File	File documents that you know will be of relevance later on. Make a notation on the document itself regarding the file it should go into. Put it into a 'Filing' tray or folder. Set aside time each week to file documents in this folder or tray.

It is important to set aside time for both the TRAF process and acting. They are different activities and you will need to schedule time for both.

Use this system to manage other forms of information.

Activity

Think about the various ways in which you receive information. How well do you think you manage the information flow? Consider what improvements you could make?

Reference

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

3.2 Monitoring Program Performance

You will regularly access and interpret information in order to measure and monitor the ongoing performance of programs within your School/Department. It is important to ensure that you have access to the right information and interpret it appropriately so that any conclusions that you draw can ultimately be used to inform quality improvement processes. Measuring the performance of programs requires you to focus on several different types of information and a range of performance measures.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to identify measures of performance for your programs, and data to assist in monitoring against these measures.

All universities regularly collect and analyse data related to a range of internal and external measures around program quality. For example, the Australian Graduate Survey (AGS) which includes the Graduate Destinations Survey (GDS) and the Course Experience Questionnaire (CEQ) are external measures administered by the Graduate Careers Australia (GCA) to gather a broad range of information from graduates of Australian Universities. The information gathered from the AGS is used to compare the surveyed universities against a number of different performance measures defined by government – a major stakeholder in tertiary education.

The GDS, CEQ and almost any other evaluation instrument will not provide you with the information you need to make actual improvements in students' learning experiences. For instance, they will not help you to discover what feedback different students find useful, what difficulties they are experiencing, or which assessment tasks they perceive as requiring only memorisation and which therefore encourage shallow approaches to learning. The data provided by such surveys will, however, assist you to track in general terms how your program or course is going in general and to identify areas requiring further investigation.

Other sources of information that you can use to measure and monitor program performance include, but are not limited to, success and retention rates, peer evaluation and review of teaching and curriculum and industry and student focus groups. Bringing a variety of different types of information together and using them as the basis for identifying strengths and weaknesses is a useful way to monitor the performance and quality of programs and courses and begin the process of quality improvement.

In order to measure performance you will need to:

- regularly access data about programs in your School/Department (including course and teacher performance)
- track progress against performance measures set by the university.
- identify any additional measures you think are important.
- access existing, or determine if you need to collect new, data related to those measures
- benchmark against like institutions.

While your job will be simpler if you use data that is collected by others, there is often significant value in collecting and analysing additional complementary information. This complementary information includes that obtained in student, staff and industry focus groups, information about student placements/fieldwork, feedback from industry at advisory group meetings, etc. You need to also look for funding opportunities which would support collecting this data, e.g., ALTC research grants.

Activity

Step 1

List what you consider to be the three most important outcome measures of performance for the programs in your School/Department. Remember to consider a range of factors such as institutional priorities as well as industry requirements and student and staff feedback.

Measure 1:

Measure 2:

Measure 3:

Step 2

Draw up a plan that will enable you to monitor performance against these measures. Include at least the following in your plan:

What data do you currently have?

Where are the gaps? (For example, do you have the views of all stakeholders including industry?)

How will you fill these gaps?

What people will you consult?

How will you organise this? (Examples: focus groups, 1:1 meetings.)

Who can assist you?

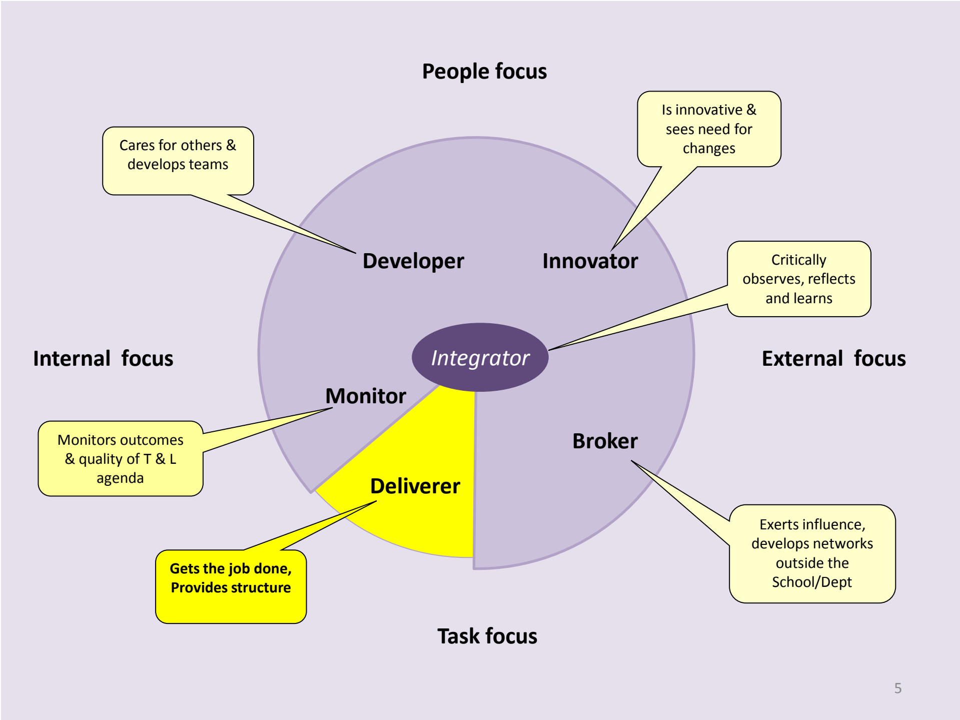
What will you do with the data once you have it?

References

Patrick, K. (2003, March). *The CEQ in practice: Using the CEQ for improvement*. Paper presented at the GCCA symposium, *Graduates: Outcomes, quality and the future*, Canberra, The Australian Capital Territory.

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Developing the Deliverer



Readings

Covey, S. R. (1989). *The seven habits of highly effective people: Restoring the character ethic*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *46*(4), 331–362.

Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (2006). Enhancing the benefits and overcoming the pitfalls of goal setting. *Organizational Dynamics*. *35*(4), 332–340.

Whitehead, D. (2005). Project management and action research: Two sides of the same coin? *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, *19*(6), 519–531.

Activities

4.1 Setting Goals

4.2 Being Productive

4.3 Managing Your Time

4.4 Managing Stress.

4.1 Setting Goals

Why is goal setting so important? Research shows that good goal setting is more likely to result in the achievement of set targets and contributes to quality outcomes. Clearly goals that are challenging, which are supported by regular feedback are more likely to lead to success.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop your skills in setting goals related to your role as Associate/Head of School/Department.

Goal achievement is also supported by having a good climate within the school or department with systems and policies in place that support achievement. Rewards are important as they keep people motivated and focused on tasks related to achieving the goals. This is particularly the case if the goals are prioritised. Locke and Latham (1985) some key components of goal setting (see below)

- **Specific challenging** goals lead to better performance than vague ones.
- **Feedback** on goal attainment enhances the process.
- Goals should be **prioritized** if more than one.
- Goal accomplishment and performance should be **rewarded**.
- Goal setting can be an important part of **performance management**.
- Individuals need to develop **action plans**.
- Organizational policies should be **congruent** with goal accomplishment.
- Climate must be **supportive**.

Goals, sometimes referred to as objectives, should be future focused and describe the target you hope to achieve. As such, the goal should follow SMART principles:

SMART Principles

S *Specific*
(is the goal detailed enough to ensure understanding of the direction a group or individual needs to take?)

M *Measurable*
(is the goal measurable? Can you develop ways of measuring whether the goal has been achieved?)

A *Achievable*
(Is the goal achievable? Can the individual or team achieve the goal or is it highly unlikely?)

R *Realistic*
(Is the goal framed in a way that it is realistic for the team or individual to achieve?)

T *Time*
(What is the time frame? Is it realistic for the goal to be achieved?)

Developing an Implementation Plan

It is important to consider what you need to do to achieve your goals. An implementation plan that sets out all of the actions that need to be taken, in sequence, by whom, to achieve your individual or team goals is an important part of your Deliverer role.

It is easy to set unrealistic goals. You might underestimate the time it will take to achieve goals or to find that there are unexpected obstacles and external factors that you have to deal with.

Thus, you should build in time to regularly review progress and modify your goals.

Modifications might include extending the timeline, gathering extra resources or redefining the goal.

Activity

Choose a task that you need to achieve and complete the steps outlined above. Remember to build in time to review and reflect on progress.

Reference

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1985). The application of goal setting to sports. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 7*(3), 205–222.

4.2 Being Productive

Stephen Covey (1989) developed a useful matrix for prioritising work which helps to manage stress and increases productivity. This matrix can be a useful strategy for managing work flow as an Associate/Head of School/Department. It is very effective when used as an 'in-basket system'.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop your ability to manage your workload so that you can be more productive.

As you can see from the figure below, each quadrant in the figure could be seen as a 'tray' in your in-basket. The vertical side of the matrix signifies importance; the horizontal side of the matrix signifies urgency.

Managing Life Stress

	Urgent	Not Urgent
Important	1 Crises Pressing Problems Deadline Driven Projects, meetings, preparations	2 Preparation Prevention Values Clarification Planning Relationship Building Empowerment
Not Important	3 Interruptions, phone calls Some mail, some reports Some meetings Many popular activities	4 Trivia, busywork Junk Mail Some phone calls Time wasters Escape activities

(Note: adapted from Covey, 1989)

Quadrant 1 is the important and urgent quadrant. Many individuals who are not adept at managing their productivity spend a lot of time in this quadrant. Crises, last minute details, pressing problems that surface; all demand the attention of a Associate/Head of School/Department. Many of these problems can often be avoided or managed by focusing more attention on quadrant 2.

Quadrant 2 is where the important, but not urgent, activities associated with your role sit. Quadrant 2 is about planning and ensuring you have systems, practices, processes and tasks in hand and running well so that they do not become Quadrant 1 dilemmas. This is the area where you should spend most of your time. You should set aside time to work on tasks in this quadrant when you are at your best. You should try not to let other things take priority in the time you have set aside for tasks in this quadrant.

Quadrant 3 is urgent but not important activities. These should be planned for times of the day when you have some free time, between a Quadrant 2 activity, or during parts of the day where you are less productive. Setting up a time each day that fits your productivity patterns is a good strategy for managing Quadrant 3 activities.

Quadrant 4 activities basically should be delegated if possible. They are not the focus of your peak productivity times and are things which you might do when you have a few spare moments between other quadrant activities or when you perhaps need a break from the more taxing activities in the other quadrants.

Activity

Make a list of the activities that you spend most of your time working on.

Activity 1:

Activity 2:

Activity 3:

Place these activities within their appropriate quadrant?

	Urgent	Not Urgent
Important		
Not Important		

Are you spending your best time of the day in Quadrant 2?

What 3 changes could you put into place to ensure you are working more effectively in Quadrant 2?

Change 1:

Change 2:

Change 3:

Reference

Covey, S. R. (1989). *The seven habits of highly effective people: Restoring the character ethic*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

4.3 Managing Your Time

Associate/Heads of Schools/Departments are frequently faced with competing demands on their time and the need to make choices about how they will spend their time. It is essentially self management. We all have too much happening in our lives and we need to be careful as leaders that we prioritise tasks and spend that most precious of resources, time, wisely.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to manage your time effectively.

Potential Time Management Traps

WE:

- do what we like to do
- tend to procrastinate
- respond on basis of who wants things done
- respond on the basis of consequences
- tackle small jobs first
- follow the squeaky wheel principle
- do things that we can get done quickly
- do the things that are easiest
- to things that are scheduled and planned
- tend to respond to demands from others first
- tend to do urgent things before important things.

(Note: adapted from Carlopio et al., 1997)

Activity

Rating Your Time Management Skills

Here is another tool taken from Carlopio et al. (1997) that may give you some insights into where you are not managing your time effectively. You could use this information to assist you in developing some strategies to improve your skills in this area.

For each of the 40 statements below please indicate how often the statement is true of you, by placing a score next to the statement, using the rating scale.

Rating scale

0	1	2	3	4
Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Usually	Always

1.	_____	I read selectively, skimming the material until I find what is important, then highlighting it.
2.	_____	I make a list of tasks to accomplish each day/week.
3.	_____	I keep everything in its proper place at work.
4.	_____	I organize the tasks I have to do according to their importance and urgency.
5.	_____	I concentrate on only one important task at a time, but I do multiple trivial tasks at once (such as signing letters when on the phone).
6.	_____	I make a list of short 5- or 10-minute tasks to do.
7.	_____	I divide large projects into smaller, separate stages.
8.	_____	I identify which 20% of my tasks will produce 80% of the results.
9.	_____	I do the most important tasks at my best time during the day.
10.	_____	I have some time during each day when I can work uninterrupted.
11.	_____	I don't procrastinate. I do today what needs to be done.
12.	_____	I keep track of the use of my time with devices such as a time log or detailed diary.
13.	_____	I set deadlines for myself.
14.	_____	I do something productive whenever I am waiting.
15.	_____	I do redundant 'busy work' at one set time during the day.
16.	_____	I finish at least one thing every day.
17.	_____	I schedule some time during the day for personal time alone (for planning, meditation, exercise).
18.	_____	I allow myself to worry about things only at one particular time during the day, not all the time.
19.	_____	I have clearly defined long-term objectives toward which I am working.
20.	_____	I continually try to find little ways to use my time more efficiently.
21.	_____	I hold routine meetings at the end of the day.
22.	_____	I hold all short meetings standing up.
23.	_____	I set a time limit at the outset of each meeting.
24.	_____	I cancel scheduled meetings that are not necessary.
25.	_____	I have a written agenda for every meeting.
26.	_____	I stick to the agenda and reach closure on each item.
27.	_____	I ensure that someone is assigned to take minutes and to watch the time in every meeting.
28.	_____	I start all meetings on time.
29.	_____	I have minutes of meetings prepared promptly after the meeting and see that follow-up occurs promptly.
30.	_____	When staff members come to me with a problem, I ask them to suggest solutions.
31.	_____	I meet visitors to my office outside the office or in the doorway.
32.	_____	I go to other people's offices when feasible so that I can control when I leave.
33.	_____	I leave a least one quarter of my day free from meetings and appointments I can't control.
34.	_____	I have someone else who can answer my calls and greet visitors at least some of the time.
35.	_____	I have one place where I can work uninterrupted.
36.	_____	I do something definite with every piece of paper I handle.
37.	_____	I keep my workplace clear of all materials except those I am working on.
38.	_____	I delegate tasks.
39.	_____	I specify the amount of personal initiative I want others to take when I assign them a task.
40.	_____	I am willing for others to get the credit for tasks they accomplish.

Activity

Which three time management traps do you fall into most often?

What strategy will you use to help you to overcome these traps?

Reference

Carlopio, J. R., Andrewartha, G., & Armstrong, H. (1997). *Developing management skills in Australia* (adapted from the text by D. Whetten & K. Cameron). Melbourne, Australia: Longman.

4.4 Managing Stress

Stress can affect our productivity, so stress management is an important skill.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To develop your ability to manage stress in the workplace.

The Effects of Stress

Stress has a number of effects on our health as well as on individual and organisational effectiveness and performance. Stress produces adrenaline which helps us to survive in a 'fight-or-flight' situation. Thus, it can have performance enhancing characteristics. It may, however, do any one or more of the following:

- interfere with clear judgement and make it difficult to take the time to make good decisions
- seriously reduce your enjoyment of work
- interfere with fine motor control
- cause difficult situations to be seen as a threat, not a challenge
- damage the positive frame of mind you need for high quality work by:
  - promoting negative thinking
  - damaging self-confidence
  - narrowing attention
  - disrupting focus and concentration
  - make it difficult to cope with distractions
- consume mental energy in distraction, anxiety, frustration, and temper. This is energy that would be better devoted to the work in hand.

In the long term, stress that is not managed may seriously damage your health due to prolonged exposure to heightened levels of adrenaline. One of the ways adrenaline prepares you for action is by diverting resources to the muscles from the areas of the body which carry out body maintenance. This means that if you are exposed to adrenaline for a sustained period, then your physical health may start to deteriorate and you may also experience a range of unpleasant psychological symptoms. These include worry and anxiety and mood changes such as depression.

Although individuals have different levels of tolerance to stress, the long-term effects of stress should never be underestimated.

Stress at work may be caused by a range of factors. Some of these are illustrated in Table 2 below.

Table 2: *Sources of Stress in the Workplace* (Williams, Woodward, & Dobson, 2002)

Job factor	**Examples**
intrinsic to the job	decision latitude level of structure
role conflict and ambiguity	juggling roles lack of clear job specification
relationships at work	job pressure from boss lack of support by peers
social support and appraisal	colleagues failing to provide support negative appraisal
home-work interface	conflict over time and loyalties
organisational structure	mergers downsizing cost reduction reorganisation
environmental factors	work travel economic & political uncertainty

Successful stress management depends on recognising the degree to which you are stressed and having a range of strategies in place to deal with it. It is useful to identify possible and actual sources of stress in your personal life, in yourself, and in your job.

Activity

There are many ways in which you can reduce the negative effects of stress in your life. Some strategies that have proven effective in stress management are outlined below.

Effective Strategies in Stress Management

Time Management

Time management is important and you should look back at this activity and think about how you might use the strategies identified in that section to you manage stress at work.

Personal value system

What is important to you in your life and work? Is your life balanced? Do you have clear goals and plans set for your career and personal life?

Physical health – weight, diet and exercise

The importance of maintaining an appropriate weight, a good diet, and regular exercise are critical for maintaining your ability to withstand stress. .

Relaxation techniques

Examples include meditation, physical exercise and yoga, mental framing and imagery, deep breathing exercises, muscle relaxation exercises and massage. Classical music and a good ergonomic workstation can also help.

Personal support systems – social resiliency

Invest in the relationships that help you to buffer the stress in your life through kindness, courtesy, honesty and consistency. Do not just use them to dump your worries, develop these relationships. Team work and mentoring are important aspects of this.

Interpersonal competence

There are a range of strategies in this workbook to help you build your interpersonal competence. For example:

- how to build teams
- conflict management
- mentoring and counselling
- motivating employees
- productive feedback.

Work redesign

Lack of control over one's role and job requirements is a key factor in causing stress. Look at what you can delegate. How can you combine tasks to achieve multiple aims? Build relationships with your team and involve them in decisions so you get support, buy in and possible avenues for delegation and role sharing.

Goal setting and small wins strategies

Having clear work goals and targets enables you to focus on those activities that are important, yet not urgent. With clear goals and action plans in place, you can celebrate small wins by focusing on the incremental steps required to achieve the larger goal.

Balancing life activities

If you feel stressed in one part of your life you often spend more time on that activity to get a handle on it. This is counterproductive as you become more stressed, less creative, etc…in other parts of your life.

Psychological resiliency – mindfulness

The manner in which you think about life events and can a major cause of stress. It relates largely to a person's world views and orientation towards pessimism versus optimism.

Mark Twain said:

"I have had a great many troubles in my life, and most never happened".

Activity

Which of the above strategies for managing stress are suited to your personal profile and interests?

Try one or more of them out and consider the impact on your stress levels.

References

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78–90.

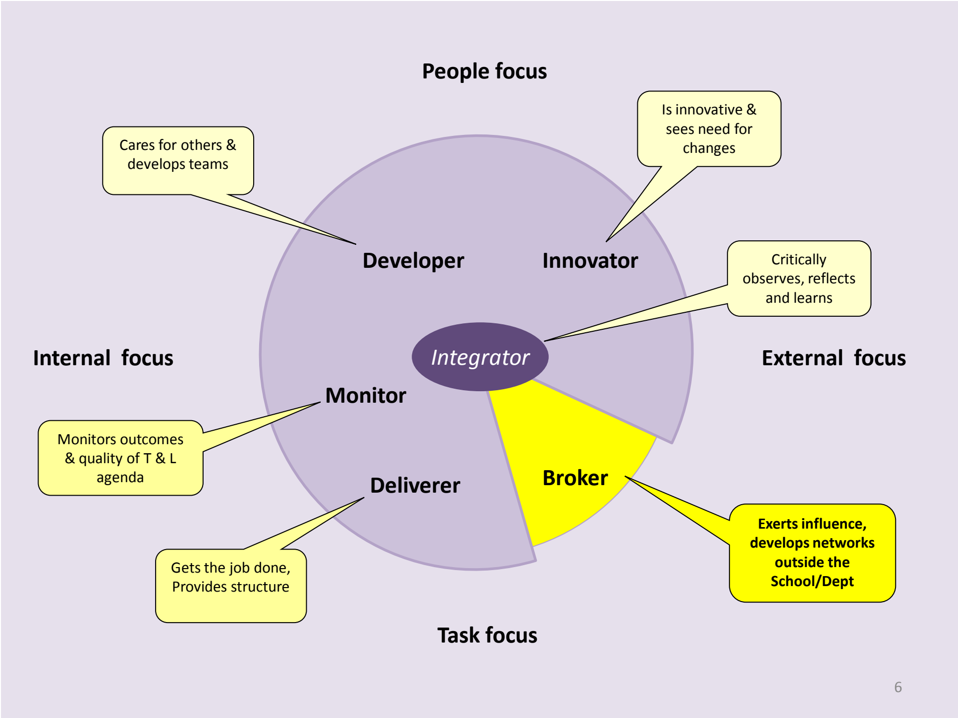
Grant, A. M., & Greene, J. (2001). Coach *yourself: Make real change in your life*. London: Person Education.

Karasek, R. A., Theorell, T., Schwartz, J. E., Schnall, P. L., Pieper, C. F., & Michela, J. L. (1988). Job characteristics in relation to the prevalence of myocardiai infarction in the US Health Examination Survey (HES) and the Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (HANES). *American Journal of Public Health, 78*(8), 910–918.

Williams, A., Woodward, S., & Dobson, P. (2002). *Managing change successfully: Using theory and experience to implement change*. London: Thompson.

Zeus, P., & Skiffington, S. (2000). *The complete guide to mentoring at work*. Sydney, New South Wales: McGraw-Hill.

Developing the Broker



Readings

Cialdini, R. B. (2001). Harnessing the science of persuasion. *Harvard Business Review, 79*(9), 72–79.

Grayson, C. C., & Baldwin, D. (2007). Tapping in: How leaders can become effective networkers. *Leadership in Action, 27*, 14–18.

Iarocci, J. J. (2006). Leading, experts, and expertise. *The American Review of Public Administration, 36*(4), 385–386.

Ibarra, H., & Hunter, M. (2007). How leaders create and use networks. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(1), 40–47.

Riggio, R. E., & Lee, J. (2007). Emotional and interpersonal competencies and leader development. *Human Resource Management Review, 17*(4), 418–426.

Activities

5.1 The Skill of Persuading Others

5.2 Influencing Your Line Manager

5.3 Negotiating Effectively

5.4 Using Power and Influence.

5.1 The Skill of Persuading Others

As an Associate/Head of School/Department, you will often find yourself in the situation of needing to persuade others to do things – Dean/PVC, academics and administrative staff with whom you work.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to increase your persuasiveness.

There are ranges of ways in which you can increase your persuasiveness and influence over others in order to be a more effective Associate/Heads of School/Department. Different situations will require different tactics. Here are some tactics to help you persuade others:

Ensure and Establish Your Credibility

Credibility is an important foundation for persuasion. It is very difficult to be persuasive if you have no credibility. Thus it is important to ensure and establish your credibility. To ensure your credibility you should be well informed, show you are self-assured, adopt a confident posture and use a steady tone of voice when communicating what you want others to do and why.

Activity

Think of someone you think of as having a high level of credibility.

How have they established their credibility?

What can you learn from them?

Know What You Want

- If you are going to persuade others to do what you want, you need to be, and sound, confident.
- You must be clear about what you want to achieve.
- Think carefully about what exactly you want to accomplish.
- Can you break this down into several individual components?
- Who will be responsible for what parts?

Present Strong Evidence to Support Your Position

You will need to explain why what you want is important. The responsibility for building the case is yours. While it may seem obvious to you it will not necessarily be so for others. You will need to be prepared to provide strong supporting evidence for your case. A logical, reasoned argument does not guarantee a positive result, but you will be much more likely to succeed if your case is based on facts and rational argument rather than if it is based on supposition and assumption.

Know and Respect Your Audience

The more you understand the people you are trying to persuade the easier your task will be. You need to understand what 'makes them tick' and what 'turns them off'. Put yourself into their shoes – how can you appeal to their self-interest? If you can identify what is in *your* preferred position for *them*, you will find your task of persuasion much easier than if you leave them to work that out for themselves. What are their goals, needs, interests, feelings, and aspirations? Do they have preconceived views on this subject?

Always be positive and tactful, aware of the sensitivities, needs and feelings of those you are trying to persuade. Always assume that those you are trying to persuade are intelligent and mature and show them your respect them by being direct and sincere.

Create Positive Feelings

Increasing positive feelings can be an effective way to increase your persuasiveness. One way of doing this is by setting up reward systems. It is certainly easier to persuade people to take risks or make an extra effort to do something for you, if they feel good about themselves and because you have recognised past achievements.

Use Your Networks

The role of Associate/Heads of School/Department also allows you to create coalitions by connecting members across your School/ Department and or between School/Departments. Building and maintaining networks and knowing when and how to use them can help you to exert influence and be more persuasive.

Reference

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

5.2 Managing Upwards

According to research by Gabarro and Kotter (1980/2005), employees who believe they need to manage their relationship with their Boss, and who take a somewhat strategic approach in doing so, enjoy greater job satisfaction, effectiveness and career success than those who think it is solely the Boss' responsibility to manage them. As an Associate/Head of School/Department you will need to establish a good working relationship with your Dean/PVC. An important part of this relationship will be your ability to influence them.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To improve your ability to influence your line manager.

The benefits of improving your relationship with your Boss are many. You can reduce your physical and mental stress, increase your opportunities for recognition and promotion, and make it easier for yourself and your team to implement your ideas. Your self confidence and motivation will improve and your job satisfaction will increase. A good working relationship with your Boss will also help you to anticipate and avoid potential problems.

If you are to improve your relationship with your line manager and your influence with them, it is important not to fall into the trap of blaming them, 'the system' or 'the University for the problems. By apportioning blame, we very often absolve ourselves of any responsibility for finding a solution. Hence, managing upwards puts some responsibility back on you to ensure that you can work towards solutions. Your effectiveness as an Associate/Head of School/Department will be greatly enhanced.

Activity

The following three questionnaires can be used to conduct an audit of your relationship with your Dean/PVC. They will also help you to identify what action you need to take to improve your influence with them.

Understanding Your Line Manager

Do you know your line managers goals and priorities (professional and personal), preferred working styles, needs, strengths and weaknesses?

Step 1

Complete the following questionnaire to organise your thinking about these things.

About Your Line Manager

1. **Does your line manager prefer to receive information through** (Tick box)

☐	☐	☐	☐
memos	phone calls	formal meetings	informal meetings

Other (specify) ....

2. **What is your line manager’s preferred working style?** (Tick box)

☐ organised, highly structured

☐ moderately organised, and structured

☐ as little organisation and structure as possible

☐ multi-tasked

☐ finishing one thing at a time, before moving on to the next

Other (specify) ....

3. **What are your line manager’s top three organisational priorities at work?**

a. ....

b. ....

c. ....

4. **What are your line manager's top three personal priorities?**

a. ....

b. ....

c. ....

5. **What is your line manager’s attitude to conflict?** (Tick box)

☐ thrives on it

☐ avoids it at all costs

☐ tries to keep it to a minimum

☐ doesn't mind it

☐ sees it as an opportunity to achieve something worthwhile

Other (specify) ....

Step 2

Understanding Yourself

To manage your relationship with your line manager effectively, it is not enough to understand them; they are only half of the team. You also need to understand the other half of the team – yourself!

Complete the following questionnaire to organise your own thinking about such things.

1. **Do you prefer to receive information through** (Tick box)

☐ memos	☐ phone calls	☐ formal meetings	☐ informal meetings

Other (specify) ....

2. **What is your preferred working style? (Tick box)**

☐ organised, highly structured

☐ moderately organised, and structured

☐ as little organisation and structure as possible

☐ multi-tasked

☐ finishing one thing at a time, before moving on to the next

Other (specify) ....

3. **What are your top three organisational priorities at work?**

a. ....

b. ....

c. ....

4. **What are your top three personal priorities?**

a. ....

b. ....

c. ....

5. **What is your attitude to conflict?** (Tick box)

☐ thrive on it

☐ avoid it at all costs

☐ try to keep it to a minimum

☐ don't mind it

☐ see it as an opportunity to achieve something worthwhile

Other (specify) ....

Step 3

The Level of Understanding Between You and Your Line Manager

Now that you have completed the inventories on your understanding of the line manager and your understanding of yourself, you can now begin to gain a better understanding of your relationship with your line manager.

Answer the following 5 questions with a "yes", "no" or "unsure". (Tick the box.)

Question	Yes	No	Unsure
Do I understand what my line manager wants me to contribute to our relationship?			
Does my line manager know what I need from her or him to perform my work satisfactorily and comfortably?			
Do I and my line manager together agree that my partnership is beneficial for each of us?			

Even if you answered "Yes" to all these questions, you can improve your work situation in many practical ways by applying upward management skills.

If you answered "NO" to any of the questions above, what do you need to do to begin to build a better working understanding and relationship with your line manager?

Step 4

Think about the following:

What are the implications of all this for your line manager and yourself and your team and yourself? What can you learn here?

What problems/difficulties can you anticipate given this information? What can you do differently to improve your relationship?

Reference

Gabarro, J. J., & Kotter, J. P. (1980/2005). Managing your boss. *Harvard Business Review, January*, available at http://www.blended.com.au/leadership-demo/resources/docs/r0501j.pdf

5.3 Negotiating Effectively

Associate/Heads of School/Department can expect to be involved in a range of negotiations which always involves balancing competing needs and viewpoints.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To improve your ability to negotiate with others.

Power in Negotiations

Power in negotiations is perhaps better defined as the ability to influence the other parties' decision through the use of various types of power.

Types of Power You Can Use in Negotiations

Reward	Rewards and punishments, not necessarily physical or tangible rewards and punishments, are powerful negotiation tools.
Competition	If a lot of people are after what you have then you have a lot of negotiating power.
Information	Access to the best information is important. It needs to be up-to-date and relevant.
Expertise	Accurate and up to date knowledge in key areas related to the negotiation.
Legitimacy	Institutional power can be important in a negotiation.
Knowing what the other needs	Knowing what others want and why it is valuable information in any negotiation.
Investment	How important is the outcome to others involved in the negotiation? What is their investment in their preferred outcomes? How does that compare with your investment? How can you make them invest more so they have more to lose if they do not achieve an outcome?
Personal 'charisma'	Personal charisma can be useful in charming others involved in the negotiation. It might enable you to get others to want what you want?
Precedent	Are there previous decisions that were made that will support your argument?

Preparation and Strategy for a Negotiation

The more work you put into a negotiation the more likely you are to be successful. There are a variety of things you need to consider prior to commencing any negotiation. The following questions are useful preparation for a negotiation.

1. What are some background factors you must consider – such as previous negotiations?
2. List your ideal goals – what you could best hope for?
3. What is your B.A.T.N.A. – the best alternative to a negotiated agreement- In other words, what are your options if you do not negotiate an agreement? You need to have this in your mind.
4. List your fall back positions (Plans B through C, D, E, etc.) – what is a fair outcome?
5. List your bottom line – what is the lowest point you would be willing to go?
6. When do you walk away? What happens if you do not reach an agreement?
7. Try and consider what the other person's perspectives would be. This may tell you the range in which you can negotiate.
8. Review your assumptions – you may be able to consider things outside of your paradigm or box.
9. Information is a primary source of influence and power in negotiations; collect as much as possible so that you can generate more alternatives. Be sure to check its accuracy, as incorrect information reduces your credibility. If possible, share information so that you get some in return.
10. Consider all the areas where there are disagreements, misunderstandings and bad feelings.
11. Consider hidden or imaginary issues.
12. Plan the order in which you will present this information during the negotiation. What impact will they have in terms of making progress in the negotiations? You may also want to categorise issues and information into the following three four dimensions:

- major/minor
- difficult to settle/easy to settle
- long term/short term.

Successful negotiators

There has been a considerable amount written about negotiators. The studies undertaken show that skilled negotiators:

- raise a variety of options
- pay more attention to common ground
- spend more time considering long term implications
- set upper and lower limits
- are less likely to use irritating language
- are less likely to make counter proposals – as these often cloud the issue and are seen as blocking or disagreement
- use less defending or attacking behaviour
- are more likely to use checking and summarising statements
- ask more questions
- express more internal thoughts and feelings – gives the other party a sense of security
- give fewer reasons in support of their particular point or proposal – increasing justification has the potential to increase exposure of a weakness
- are more likely to reflect and review the negotiation
- view situations as a win-win.

Activity

Think of someone you consider to be a good negotiator.

What skills, behaviours and capabilities did they display?

What can you learn from them?

5.4 Using Power and Influence

In the academic setting power relationships are often nebulous. While there are clear power relationships denoted by organisational structure and some staff have positional power (e.g., the Vice-Chancellor, Head of School), there are also informal power relationships influenced by academic qualification and institutional status. Power can also be exerted through personal efficacy that enables you to mobilise resources to get work done. As an Associate/Head of School/Department, you need to understand all of the dimensions of power in the academic setting and develop your skills to use your positional and personal power appropriately and effectively.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To increase your ability to influence others using positional and personal power.

Brounstein (2000) described the ability to influence people and events in two ways:

Positional influence (use title and authority)	**Personal influence** (earn respect through traits of honesty, integrity)
exercise authority	exercise personal qualities
maintain chain of command	build relationships
seek control	seek colleague's ownership and involvement
end up getting **compliance.**	end up getting **commitment.**

As an Associate/Head of School/Department you have positional authority and power. The legitimacy of your role allows you to make requests of staff. Your role provides you with access to specific information and you can use that information in logical arguments to persuade people into certain action. The status of your role may also allow you to get people to align with your ideas because of the favours they seek from you as part of your role. Personal power is, however, more complex and potentially more important than positional power. It includes the ability to inspire and persuade others.

The table below provides examples of tactics that relate to different sources of power – '***position power***' and ***'personal power'***. A range of factors will influence the amount of access you have to these sources of power at different times. Most academic leaders will need to exert both positional and personal power at some stage.

Positional power type	Related influencing tactic(s)
legitimate	legitimization consultation rational persuasion ingratiation
reward	exchange
coercive	pressure
connection	coalitions

Personal power type	Related influencing tactic(s)
information	rational persuasion
expert	rational persuasion
referent	inspirational appeal personal appeal

(Note: Adapted from French and Raven, 1959)

You can see from the above that using either positional or personal power is not about authoritarian control. Tactics such as consultation, exchange (or bargaining) and inspirational appeal are more effective in most situations than directives.

Effective Associate/Heads of School/Department can use both positional and personal power appropriately to do things such as getting items on and off agendas, getting fast access to decision makers and getting early information about shifts in direction. They do this by exerting influence and managing upwards. Their power often comes from their ability to understand and sometimes pre-empt their line manager's needs. This means they can lighten his/her responsibilities. The reciprocal benefit for the Associate/Heads of School/Department is increased power and influence,

Ways of building your personal power (Carlopio, Andrewartha, & Armstrong, 2001) include:

- expanding your area of expertise
- impression management
- loyalty and honesty
- expending personal effort
- looking at where you position yourself in your role
- being dependable, consistent and creative
- give credit when it is due
- listen carefully for multiple perspectives.

Activity

Think of someone you consider to use personal influence effectively.

What skills, behaviours and capabilities do they display?

What can you learn from them?

References

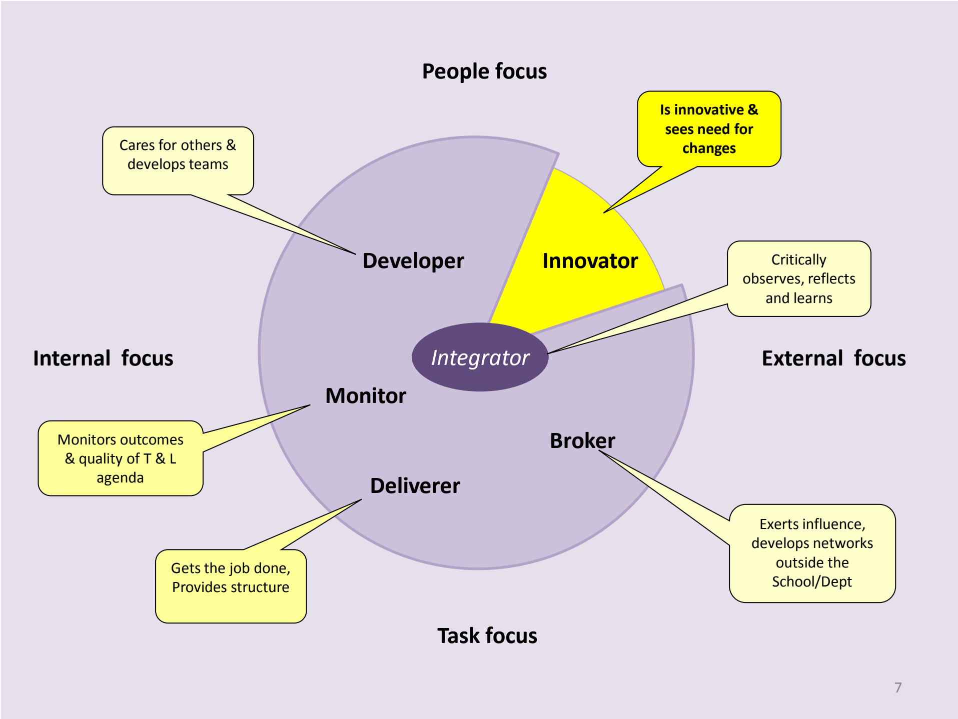
Brounstein, M. (2000). *Couching and mentoring for dummies*. Foster City, CA: IDG Books Worldwide.

Carlopio, J. R., Andrewartha, G., & Armstrong, H. (2001). *Developing management skills: A comprehensive guide for leaders* (adapted from the text by D. Whetten & K. Cameron; 2nd ed.). Frenchs Forest, New South Wales: Pearson Education Australia.

French, J. R. P., Jr., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150–167). Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(2), 78–90.

Developing the Innovator



Readings

Morgan, G. (1993). Imaginization: New mindsets for seeing, organizing and managing. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Russo, F. (2006). The hidden secrets of the creative mind – An interview with Dr. R. Keith Sawyer. Time, 167, 89–90.

Activities

6.1 Introducing and Managing Change

6.2 Managing Resistance to Change

6.3 Change Management Strategies

6.4 Fostering Innovation

6.1 Introducing and Managing Change

The role of Associate/Heads of School/Department is critical to the regeneration and success of university courses and programs which must respond to changing contexts. The ability to introduce and manage changes to content as well as teaching and learning arrangements is an important part of the role of an Associate/Head of School/Department.

> **ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE**
>
> To develop your ability to introduce and manage change.

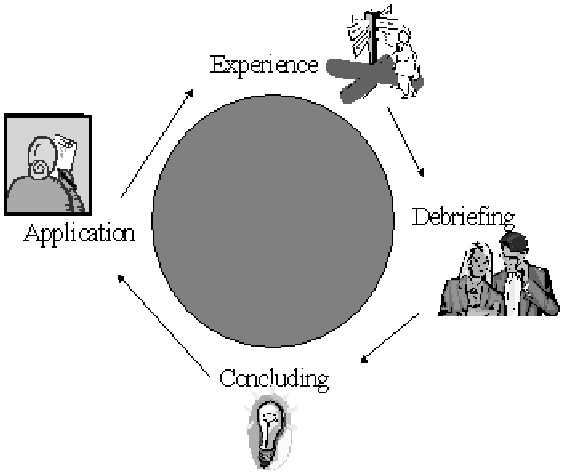
It is important to remember that change is a process, not an event. The transition from what exists now to a future state takes time and different people will react differently to change proposals. This can create challenges for the Associate/Heads of School/Department who are seeking to lead and manage the introduction of change with minimum fuss and minor disruption to staff and students.

Stages of Change

Carlopio, Andrewartha, and Armstrong (2005) stages of change are useful for Associate/Heads of School/Departments seeking to introduce change. It enables understanding where in the change process we sit, how we are progressing and what intervention strategies are needed to move forward.

Stage 1: Unlearning: Before change can occur people have to believe that the change is necessary. They will want to know why what was working in the past is no longer working now (or will be unsustainable in the future). They will need the motivation to pursue a change effort which may require a lot of physical, mental and emotional energy. This is especially the case if they already feel like they have enough to do! It is important therefore that as Associate/Head of School/Department you support the change process by identifying a clear rationale for the change, identify clear goals and provide accurate and regular information updates. This is best done through the establishment of an open communication strategy – regular meetings, email updates or a website with links to supporting data, minutes of meetings and background papers.

Stage 2: Changing: Embedded within this second stage is another cycle of action. This is Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Model, which is characterised by another 4 components:



Experiential Learning Model (adapted from Kolb's Learning Theory)

Where changes are likely to involve academic staff making personal changes to the way they work, they will need practice and experience in the new way of working. For example, in moving to online delivery of a course, the concrete *experience* part of the cycle above may be the development and delivery of a course or part of a course, with appropriate support, for online delivery for the first time. After the first couple of weeks they should then be given the opportunity to *debrief* (reflective observation) on some of the observations they have made about the utility of the online learning experience, on student engagement and learning. From this reflection, they will draw some *conclusions* (abstract conceptualisation) and theories about online learning, which may be grounded further by discussing their ideas with peers who are also engaged in online learning. These conclusions will inform future adaptation and *application* (active experimentation) of online learning and may lead to more active experimentation as the cycle is repeated.

***Stage 3: Relearning*:** In this stage people are engaged in the change process and actively working towards implementing the new systems or processes. They may be in the third or fourth rotation of Kolb's cycle. 'Practice makes perfect' is an excellent cliché to describe this stage. Over time they are using daily and weekly challenges resulting in significant relearning and movement along the change continuum.

Stage 4: Institutionalisation*:* At this stage, the change process is essentially complete and is now part of the course's on-going practice. It becomes 'the way things are done in this program'. The cycle may of course begin again if the program review process highlights the need for further changes.

Change and Academic Leadership

Coakley and Randall (2006) note that current models of academic leadership focus on managing the balance of relationships between academic staff. While this is an important aspect of introducing and managing change it is important not to put too much emphasis on managing peer relationships and desires. This can result in changes required by external demands or evidence based theory (Raelin, 1995) being slowed or abandoned in response to the needs of individual staff members. This can result in the program not evolving and eventually 'dying' as students and industry see it as irrelevant. Coakley and Randall (2006) note that this is not an adequate outcome, given the higher education sector's increasing need for transparency and accountability.

Activity

Identify a change that needs to be made within your School/Department as a result of external drivers (e.g. declining enrolments)

____

____

____

____

What factors will need to be managed in this process?

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

References

Carlopio, J. R., Andrewartha, G., & Armstrong, H. (2005). *Developing management skills: A comprehensive guide for leaders* (adapted from the text by D. Whetten & K. Cameron; 3rd ed.). Frenchs Forest, New South Wales: Pearson Education Australia.

Coakley, L., & Randall, L. M. (2006). Orchestrating change at the departmental level: Applying the process of adaptive leadership [Electronic Version]. *Academic Leadership*, *4*(2), from http://www.academicleadership.org/emprical_research/Orchestrating_Change_at_the_Departmental_Level.shtml

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University.

Heifetz, R. A., & Linsky, M. (2002). A survival guide for leaders. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(6), 65–73. Available at http://ls.ateneo.edu/global/UserFiles/File/A_Survival_Guide_for_Leaders.pdf

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Raelin, J. A. (1995, August). How to manage your local professor. In *Proceedings of the Academy of Management Annual Meeting* (pp. 207–211), Vancouver, B.C.

6.2 Managing Resistance to Change

Staff within universities may be very resistant to change. As an Associate/Head of School/Department you will need to be able to manage resistance to change which will most likely require that you manage conflict.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to understand and manage resistance to change.

Even changes that are seen as necessary and desirable by the majority may be resisted vehemently by some. Resistance to change can come from individual people or organisational units/groups of people. Existing organisational routines, structures and cultural mores are often very strong barriers to change.

Five personal and six organisational factors have been identified as contributing to resistance to change (Robbins, Millett, & Waters-Marsh, 1994). They are:

Personal Factors

Habit – there is some truth in the expression, "Old Habits Die Hard".

Security – some individuals have a much higher need for security. If there are other stressors in a person's life, added change may threaten security needs further, thus creating resistance. This is often referred to as 'tolerance of ambiguity'.

Economic Factors – there may be concerns that change will lower income, access to resources and hence result in increasing resistance.

Fear of the Unknown – like security, some individuals have a very low tolerance for ambiguity, hence, change that is bringing uncertainty can increase resistance.

Selective Information Processing – everyone has their own world view or map of their environment. When change threatens that map and how that individual has constructed their reality, information processing may become selective such that they only 'hear or see' what is of use to them in preserving their map.

Revenge – in some cases it may be personal revenge because people feel aggrieved and therefore put energy in to blocking the change. Alternatively, the resistance may take the form of a personal crusade because the change violates their values and they do not believe the change is in the best interests of the program, School or University.

Organisational Factors

Structural Inertia – large organisations like a university have systems in place that produce stability, but in doing so, they create inertia that makes even small changes seem like monumental tasks.

Limited Focus of Change – changes in one area may be very hard for the University as a whole to incorporate.

Group Inertia – individual changes may be resisted by a larger group, such as a Union, which prevent certain initiatives being adopted by a few in favour of the group.

Threat to Expertise – as organisational processes change, individuals may feel threatened because they feel a diminishment of their expertise.

Threat to Established Power Relationships – changes in operating structures affect power relationships and networks, hence, areas may resist change if they feel they will lose power or influence.

Threat to Established Resource Allocations – similarly, changes in resources, particularly decreases in funding or enrolments, may also influence change as people work harder to hold on to their resources.

Activity

In your experience what are the most frequently encountered personal and organizational factors contributing to resistance to change?

Which have you found the most difficult to deal with?

Reference

Robbins, S. P., Millett, B., & Waters-Marsh, T. (2004). *Organisational behaviour* (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest, New South Wales: Pearson Education.

6.3 Change Management Strategies

Three common approaches to managing change are identified by Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, and St. Clair (2007, p. 288–292): ***telling, forcing and participating***. The first two are less effective than the last.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to understand change.

The first stage in managing change often involves the ***telling strategy***. This is when people are told it is in their best interests to change; there are good reasons for this change and the leader assumes that just telling people what those reasons are will be sufficient to ensure compliance. This strategy is only effective if the change is easy to implement. That is, it doesn't require major changes to the way people do things; no new learning is required and only minimal, if any, adjustment to feelings or attitudes is required.

The forcing strategy often follows unsuccessful use of the telling strategy. It involves the imposition of punishments or sanctions of some sort. This strategy may work for a short time, but people will soon go back to their old ways of doing things.

The more effective third strategy is to involve those who are affected in the change process. Collaborative decisions are taken. The leader brings others with her/him. The reasons for change will be articulated as they are in the telling strategy but the leader invites and welcomes the views of others as equals in the change process. This often involves working through conflicts, but the emphasis is on communication, collaboration and cooperation. The leader needs to use active listening techniques (see 'Listening Effectively' in the Developer Role section of this workbook). This is called the ***participating strategy.*** The goal is to achieve a win-win result and to this end all who will be affected by the change are invited to participate in an open dialogue, supportive communication is modelled, and there is almost constant attention to, and monitoring of processes, designed to engage participation in the decision-making process and move towards consensus.

Activity

What change strategies do you use most often?

What participating strategies have you used successfully in the past?

Reference

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., McGrath, M. R., & St. Clair, L. S. (2007). *Becoming a master manager: A competing values approach* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

6.4 Fostering Innovation

An important aspect of the Associate/Head of School/Department role is assisting others to pursue opportunities for innovation. This often means that they will need to change the way they do things.

ACTIVITY OBJECTIVE

To assist you to foster innovation by identifying and responding to pressures for and against change.

In the early 1950s, Kurt Lewin (Lewin, 1951) first proposed a model called Force Field Analysis, which stems from physical laws. Objects stay at rest unless a force acts upon them that is greater than the force that allows them to be stable.

By applying this concept to change within an academic course or program, forces can be identified which will support and move individuals along in the change process. In other words, if an Associate/Head of School/Department can identify driving forces that are stronger than resistance forces, change is likely to be supported and pursued by staff. Similarly, if resistance forces are greater than the forces supporting change, it is unlikely that change will occur.

For example, say a program wants to expand its scope and move into international markets. What are some pressures for change that can be used as driving forces to convince staff of the need to move in this direction? These are listed in the left hand column. On the other hand, what are the present or anticipated pressures against changes in this direction? These are presented in the right hand column.

Pressures for Change Driving Forces	**Pressures Against Change** Resisting Forces
1. globalisation	1. preference for routine and structure
2. efficiency	2. changes to IT infrastructure needed
3. cost effectiveness	3. more paperwork and administration
4. technological advances	4. increased complexity
5. increased revenue	5. possibility of language competency problems
6. exposure of local students to international peers.	6. possibility of more plagiarism
	7. security of examination papers

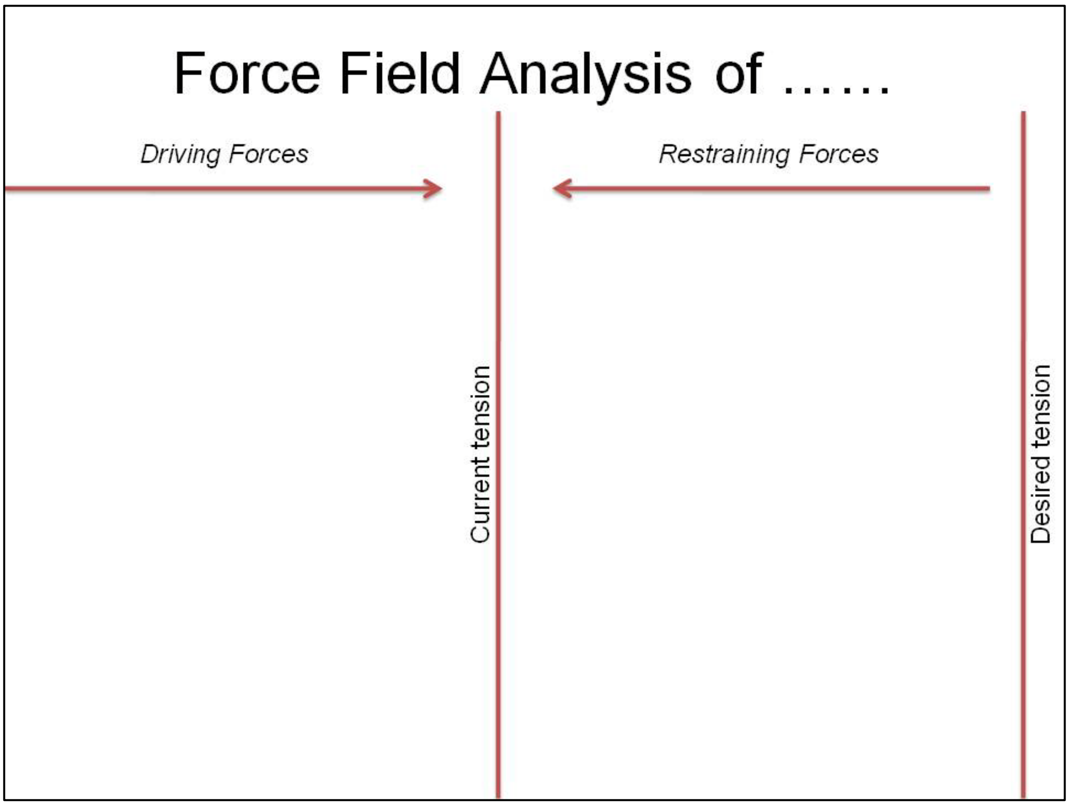
It is important to consider not only the length of the list but also the weight of each item. For the change process to be successful, the drivers for change must exceed the resisting forces. If there is an imbalance favouring ‘no change’, additional driving forces can be identified and enacted. Alternatively some of the resisting forces may be able to be removed or minimised in some way. As noted by Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, &

McGrath (2003), research states that minimising or removing the resisting forces is most effective in driving change forwards.

Activity

Step 1

Consider a change you would like to introduce. Develop a force field analysis for this change using the figure below as a guide.



Step 2

Now develop a change management action plan.

Do you need to redress an imbalance between the pressures for and against change?

If so, what actions could you take to reduce the resisting forces and increase the driving forces?

Who will you need to work with?

What will be your timeline?

References

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science: Selected theoretical papers* [edited by Dorwin Cartwright]. New York: Harper & Row.

Quinn, R. E., Faerman, S. R., Thompson, M. P., & McGrath, M. R. (2003). *Becoming a master manager: A competency framework* (3rd ed.). New York: Wiley.